Rational exponents - an application of the intermediate-value theorem.

It is a consequence of the intermediate-value theorem, that, given a positive integer n and a real number $a \ge 0$, there is exactly one real number $b \ge 0$ such that

$$b^{n} = a$$
.

We denote b by $\sqrt[n]{a}$, and call it the $n\frac{th}{t}$ root of a. (See Theorem 3.9, p. 145 of Apostol.)

It follows from the general theorem about continuity of inverses that the $n\frac{th}{}$ root function, defined by the rule

$$f(x) = {}^{n}\sqrt{x} \quad \text{for } x \ge 0,$$

is continuous. (See Theorem 3.10, p. 147 of Apostol.)

Now (finally!) we can introduce rational exponents. We do so only when the base is a positive real number.

<u>Definition</u>. Let r be a rational number; let a be a <u>positive</u> real number. We can write r = m/n, where m and n are integers <u>and</u> n <u>is positive</u>. We then define

$$a^r = (^n\sqrt{a})^n$$
.

(Here we use the fact that \sqrt{a} is non-zero, so m can be negative.)

We must show that this definition makes sense. A problem might arise from the fact that the number r can be represented as a ratio of integers in many different ways. We must show that the value of a does not depend on how we represent r. This is the substance of the following lemma.

Lemma 1. Suppose m/n = p/q, where m, n, p, q are integers, and n and q are positive. Then $\binom{n}{a}^m = \binom{q}{a}^p$.

<u>Proof.</u> Let $c = {}^{n}\sqrt{a}$ and $d = {}^{q}\sqrt{a}$. Then $a = c^{n}$ and $a = d^{q}$ by definition. Because m/n = p/q, we have mq = np. Using these facts, we compute

$$a^{p} = (c^{n})^{p} = c^{np} = c^{mq} = (c^{m})^{q}$$
, and $a^{p} = (d^{q})^{p} = d^{qp} = (d^{p})^{q}$, so that $(c^{m})^{q} = (d^{p})^{q}$.

(We use here the laws of integral exponents.) We conclude (by uniqueness of the $q\frac{th}{}$ roots) that

$$c^m = d^p$$
, or

$$(^{n}\sqrt{a})^{m} = (^{q}\sqrt{a})^{p}$$
. \square

On the basis of Lemma 1, we know that a^r is well-defined if r is a rational number and a is positive. In particular, we have the equation

$$a^{1/n} = n \sqrt{a},$$

by definition. The definition of $a^{m/n}$ can then be written in the form

$$a^{m/n} = (a^{1/n})^m.$$

Consider now the three basic laws of exponents. We already know that these laws hold in the following cases:

- (i) positive integral exponents; arbitrary bases.
- (ii) integral exponents; non-zero bases.

We now comment that these laws also hold in the following case:

(iii) rational exponents; positive bases.

The proof is not difficult, but it is tedious. It is given in Theorem 2 following.

Later on, we shall extend our definition to arbitrary <u>real</u> exponents; that is, we shall define a when x is an arbitrary real number (and a is a positive real number). Furthermore, we shall verify that the laws of exponents also holds in this new situation; i.e., in the case:

(iv) real exponents; positive bases.

So you can skip the proof of Theorem 2 if you wish, for we are going to prove the more general result involving real exponents later on.

Before proving Theorem 2, we make the following remark about negative bases: If a is negative, one can still define ${}^{n}\sqrt{a}$ provided n is odd. For in that case there exists exactly one real number b such that $b^{n} = a$. We shall define ${}^{n}\sqrt{a} = b$ in this case. It is tempting to use exponent notation in this situation, defining $a^{m/n} = ({}^{n}\sqrt{a})^{m}$ if n is odd and a is negative. However, this practice is dangerous! For the laws of exponents do not always hold in these circumstances. For example, if we used this definition, we would have

$$((-8)^2)^{1/6} = 2$$
, while $(-8)^{1/3} = -2$.

Thus the second law of exponents would not hold in this situation. For this reason, we make the following convention:

We shall use rational exponent notation only when the base is positive.

Now we verify the laws of exponents for rational exponents and positive bases.

Theorem 2. If r and s are rational numbers, and if a and b are positive real numbers, then

(i)
$$a^ra^s = a^{r+s}$$
,

$$(ii) \quad (a^r)^s = a^{rs},$$

(iii)
$$a^rb^r = (ab)^r$$
.

<u>Proof.</u> Let r = m/n and s = p/q, where m, n, p, q are integers, and where n and q are positive.

To prove (i), we note that

$$a^r a^s = a^m/n a^{p/q}$$

=
$$(^{nq}\sqrt{a})^{mq}$$
 $(^{nq}\sqrt{a})^{np}$ by definition,

=
$$(^{nq}\sqrt{a})^{mq+np}$$
 by (iii) for integral exponents,

=
$$a^{(mq+np)/nq}$$
 by definition,

=
$$a^{r+s}$$
.

To prove (ii), we verify first that

$$(^{n}\sqrt{a})^{m} = \sqrt[n]{a^{m}}.$$

Let $c = n \sqrt{a}$; then $c^n = a$ by definition. We compute

$$a^{m} = (c^{n})^{m} = c^{nm} = (c^{m})^{n}$$

by (ii) for integral exponents. By uniqueness of $n\frac{th}{}$ roots, we have

$$\sqrt[n]{a^m} = c^m = (\sqrt[n]{a})^m,$$

as desired.

It now follows that

$$a^{m/n} = (a^{1/n})^m = (a^m)^{1/n}.$$

The first equation follows from the definition of $a^{m/n}$, and the second from what we just proved. The formula (*) is of course special case of our desired formula (ii).

Now we prove (ii) in general: Let

$$c = (a^r)^s = (a^{m/n})^{p/q}.$$

Then

$$c = (((a^m)^{1/n})^p)^{1/q}$$
 by (*) (applied twice)
= $(((a^m)^p)^{1/n})^{1/q}$ by (*).

It follows that

$$c^{q} = (((a^{m})^{p})^{1/n}, and$$

$$(c^q)^n = (a^m)^p$$
, by definition, so that

Then

$$c = qn \sqrt{a^{mp}}$$
 by definition,

=
$$(a^{mp})^{1/nq}$$
 by definition,

$$= a^{mp/nq} \qquad by (*),$$

To check (iii), let $c = {}^{n}\sqrt{a}$ and $d = {}^{n}\sqrt{b}$. We first note that

$$(cd)^n = c^n d^n$$
 by (iii) for integral exponents,

= ab by definition.

It follows that

$$cd = n \sqrt{ab}$$
.

We then prove (iii) as follows:

$$a^{m/n}b^{m/n} = (^{n}\sqrt{a})^{m}(^{n}\sqrt{b})^{m} = c^{m}d^{m}$$
 by definition,

$$= (cd)^{m}$$
 by (iii) for integral exponents,

$$= (^{n}\sqrt{ab})^{m}$$
 by (*),

=
$$(ab)^{m/n}$$
 by definition.

Thus the three laws hold for rational exponents. D

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18.014 Calculus with Theory Fall 2010

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