# RESULTS AND ESTIMATES ON PSEUDOPOWERS 

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#### Abstract

Let $n$ be a positive integer. We say $n$ looks like a power of 2 modulo a prime $p$ if there exists an integer $e_{p} \geq 0$ such that $n \equiv 2^{e_{p}}(\bmod p)$. First, we provide a simple proof of the fact that a positive integer which looks like a power of 2 modulo all but finitely many primes is in fact a power of 2.

Next, we define a $x$-pseudopower of the base 2 to be a positive integer $n$ that is not a power of 2 , but looks like a power of 2 modulo all primes $p \leq \boldsymbol{x}$. Let $P_{2}(x)$ denote the least such $n$. We give an unconditional upper bound on $P_{2}(x)$, a conditional result (on ERH) that gives a lower bound, and a heuristic argument suggesting that $P_{2}(x)$ is about $\exp \left(c_{2} x / \log x\right)$ for a certain constant $c_{2}$. We compare our heuristic model with numerical data obtained by a sieve.

Some results for bases other than 2 are also given.


## 1. Introduction

It is a general, though hardly universal, principle in number theory that if an equation is solvable modulo all but finitely many primes $p$, then it is solvable over $\mathbb{Z}$, the integers. For example, let $a$ be a positive integer. Then it is well known that if $a$ looks like a square $\bmod p\left(\right.$ i.e., there exists $x$ such that $\left.x^{2} \equiv a(\bmod p)\right)$ for all but finitely many primes $p$, then $a$ is in fact the square of an integer. For a proof, see [6, p. 62].

Trost [23] generalized this theorem to higher powers. He proved that if $x^{n} \equiv$ $a(\bmod p)$ has a solution for all but finitely many primes $p$, then either (i) there exists an integer $b$ with $a=b^{n}$, or (ii) $8 \mid n$ and $a=2^{n / 8} b^{n}$. Also see [1, 7].

Let $n$ be a positive integer. If $n$ is a nonsquare that looks like an odd square modulo all primes $\leq x$ (i.e., $n \equiv 1(\bmod 8)$, and $\left(\frac{n}{p}\right)=1$ for all primes $\left.p \leq x\right)$, then $n$ is said to be an $x$-pseudosquare. Pseudosquares were first studied by Lehmer, Lehmer, and Shanks [10]. Williams et al. [12, 21] have computed the least $x$ pseudosquare for all $x \leq 271$. It is possible to show, assuming the Extended Riemann Hypothesis (ERH), that the least $x$-pseudosquare is $>e^{\sqrt{x / 2}}$ [25].

In this paper, we consider the analogues of these questions for powers of 2 instead of squares.

We introduce some notation that will be used in this paper. If $p$ is a prime, then by $\nu_{p}(n)$ we mean the exponent of the highest power of $p$ that divides $n$. We will use the familiar convention that sums over indices $p$ and $q$, such as $\sum_{p<x} f(p)$, are taken over primes only. Also, we define $\vartheta(x)=\sum_{p \leq x} \log p$, and $\psi(x)=\sum_{p^{k} \leq x} \log p$,

[^0]where this last sum is over all nontrivial prime powers $\leq x$. Finally, if $g$ is a unit $\bmod p$, we define $\langle g\rangle_{p}$ to be the multiplicative subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z})^{*}$ generated by $g$.

## 2. Numbers that Look Like Powers of 2

In this section, we prove the following theorem:
Theorem 1. Let $n$ be a positive integer. Suppose that for all but finitely many primes $p$ there exists an integer $e_{p} \geq 0$ such that $n \equiv 2^{e_{p}}(\bmod p)$. Then $n$ is a power of 2 .

As Armand Brumer kindly pointed out to us (personal communication), this theorem is a special case of a more general theorem of Schinzel [17]. (See also [18, Thm. 2]; [19, Thm. 2].) Since our proof seems to be simpler than Schinzel's, we give it here.

Proof. We prove the contrapositive. Assume $n$ is not a power of 2. Let $q$ be the least prime for which $n$ is not a $q$ th power. Let $\zeta$ be a primitive $q$ th root of unity, and consider the number field $K=\mathbb{Q}(\zeta)$. Since $n$ is not a power of 2 , it has at least one odd prime factor, and the extension field $L=K(\sqrt[q]{2}, \sqrt[q]{n})$ has degree $q^{2}$ over $K$. By the Chebotarev density theorem (e.g., see [9, p. 169]), there are infinitely many degree-1 primes $P$ in $K$ 's ring of integers such that

$$
X^{q}-2 \text { splits completely }(\bmod P)
$$

whereas

$$
X^{q}-n \text { is irreducible }(\bmod P)
$$

Each such $P$ lies over an ordinary prime $p$ for which $2 \in\left((\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z})^{*}\right)^{q}$ but $n \notin$ $\left((\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z})^{*}\right)^{q}$. Thus, $n$ is not a power of 2 modulo infinitely many primes.

## 3. Bounds on Pseudopowers of 2

As mentioned in $\S 1$, we define an integer $n$ to be a $x$-pseudopower of the base 2 if $n$ is not a power of 2 , but looks like a power of 2 modulo all primes $\leq x$, i.e., if for all primes $p \leq x$ there exists an integer $e_{p} \geq 0$ such that $n \equiv 2^{e_{p}}(\bmod p)$. We denote the least such $x$-pseudopower as $P_{2}(x)$. In this section we obtain upper and lower bounds on the size of $P_{2}(x)$.
Theorem 2. For $x \geq 3$ we have $P_{2}(x)<e^{1.000081 x}$.
Proof. Suppose $n$ is the smallest $x$-pseudopower of the base 2. Then $n$ is odd, for if not, $n / 2$ would also be an $x$-pseudopower. Hence, if $p_{1}=2, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}$ are the primes $\leq x$, we know that $n$ is the least non-unit solution in the interval [ $1, p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{k}$ ] of the following system of congruences:

```
n \equiv1 (mod 2),
n \equiv 1 or 2 (mod 3),
n \equiv 1, 2, 3, or 4 (mod 5),
n \equiv 1,2,or 4 (mod 7),
    \vdots
n}\in\langle2\mp@subsup{\rangle}{\mp@subsup{p}{k}{}}{}\quad(\operatorname{mod}\mp@subsup{p}{k}{})
```

Now if $x \geq 3$ (i.e., $k \geq 2$ ), then this system clearly has at least one non-unit solution, which cannot be a power of 2 , since $n$ is odd. Hence we find $P_{2}(x) \leq$ $p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{k}$. The prime number theorem tells us that

$$
P_{2}(x) \leq \prod_{p \leq x} p=e^{\vartheta(x)}=e^{x(1+o(1))}
$$

Furthermore, a result announced by Schoenfeld [20] provides the more explicit upper bound $e^{1.000081 x}$.

We can obtain a lower bound on $P_{2}(x)$ if we assume the ERH:
Theorem 3. If the Riemann hypothesis holds for Dedekind zeta functions, then there is a constant $A>0$ such that $P_{2}(x) \geq \exp \left(A \sqrt{x} /(\log x)^{3}\right)$.

Proof. Let $n=P_{2}(x)$, and consider the proof of Theorem 1. There, $q$ was defined to be the least prime such that $n$ is not a $q$ th power. Considering the exponents in $n$ 's prime factorization, we have

$$
n \geq 2 \prod_{p<q} p=2^{e^{\theta(q-1)}}
$$

From the prime number theorem, we know $\theta(x) \sim x$, and it follows that $q=$ $O(\log \log n)$. Let $\Delta$ be the discriminant of $L=K(\sqrt[q]{2}, \sqrt[q]{n})$. Using formulas for the discriminants of towers [5, Satz 39] and composed fields [22], we have

$$
\log |\Delta| \leq 4 q^{3} \log q+q^{3} \log (2 n)=O\left((\log n)(\log \log n)^{3}\right)
$$

If the ERH holds, there is a degree- 1 prime $P$ of $K$ modulo which $X^{q}-2$ splits completely and $X^{q}-n$ is irreducible, of norm $O\left((\log |\Delta|)^{2}\right)$. (See [8].) Taking $p$ to be the norm of $P$, we find as before that $n \notin\langle 2\rangle \bmod p$. Necessarily, $p>x$, so we have $x=O\left((\log n)^{2}(\log \log n)^{6}\right)$. Recalling that $n=P_{2}(x)$, we obtain the result.

The estimate of Theorem 3 could be made explicit by using a strong form of the generalized Linnik theorem; see [2].

## 4. A Heuristic Estimate for $P_{2}(x)$

Theorem 1 implies that $P_{2}(x) \rightarrow \infty$. The theorems of the last two sections give us bounds of the form

$$
A x^{1 / 2-\epsilon} \leq \log P_{2}(x) \leq B x
$$

in which $A$ and $B$ are certain positive constants. (The lower bound relies on the ERH.) In this section, we argue that the growth rate of $\log P_{2}(x)$ is close to $c_{2} x / \log x$, for a certain constant $c_{2}$.

We consider a probabilistic model. The fraction of integers $n$ satisfying the system of congruences (1) for $p \leq x$ is

$$
\frac{1}{2} \prod_{3 \leq p \leq x} \frac{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}{p}
$$

If we choose integers at random, the expected number of draws until we find one meeting the conditions is

$$
2 \prod_{3 \leq p \leq x} \frac{p}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}=\left(\prod_{2 \leq p \leq x} \frac{p}{p-1}\right)\left(\prod_{3 \leq p \leq x} \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}\right)
$$

We therefore expect the least number satisfying the conditions to be about this large.

By Mertens' theorem, the first factor is asymptotic to $e^{\gamma} \log x$, where $\gamma$ is Euler's constant. To estimate the second factor, we will have to resort to a heuristic argument. We have

$$
\prod_{3 \leq p \leq x} \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}=\exp \left(\sum_{3 \leq p \leq x} \log \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}\right)
$$

We observe that $\sum_{3 \leq p \leq x} \log \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}$ is $\pi(x)-1$ times the average value of $\log \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}$, for odd primes $p \leq x$. It is reasonable to believe that this average has a limit $c_{2}$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and we give two different arguments for this below. Assuming the existence of this limit, the expected number of draws is

$$
\begin{equation*}
e^{\gamma}(\log x)\left(e^{\pi(x)-1}\right)^{c_{2}+o(1)}=\exp \left(\left(c_{2}+o(1)\right) \frac{x}{\log x}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

This suggests an "expected value" for $P_{2}(x)$, but we must also consider possible fluctuations about this mean. Let $Z_{k}$ be the number of random samples from $\left\{1, \ldots, p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{k}\right\}$ needed to satisfy (1). We recall the Borel-Cantelli lemma, which states that if $E_{1}, E_{2}, \ldots$ are events for which $\sum_{k} \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{k}\right]$ converges, then almost surely only finitely many $E_{k}$ occur. Let $\epsilon>0$ be arbitrary, and let $E_{k}$ be the event that $Z_{k}>(1+\epsilon) E\left[Z_{k}\right] \log k$. Observing that $\left(1-1 / E\left[Z_{k}\right]\right)^{E\left[Z_{k}\right]} \leq e^{-1}$, we have

$$
\sum_{k \geq 1} \operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{k}\right] \leq \sum_{k \geq 1}\left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{(1+\epsilon) \log k}<\infty
$$

We can replace $\log k$ by $\log p_{k}$ in this argument and get the same result (the two are asymptotic to each other). Therefore, the following inequality holds with probability 1 :

$$
Z_{k} \leq e^{\gamma}(\log x)^{1+\epsilon}\left(e^{\pi(x)-1}\right)^{c_{2}+o(1)}=\exp \left(\left(c_{2}+o(1)\right) \frac{x}{\log x}\right)
$$

(Here we are again assuming the existence of $c_{2}$, and putting $x=p_{k}$.) Based on this result, and the fact that $E\left(\log Z_{k}\right)=\log E\left(Z_{k}\right)+O(1)$, a consequence of the geometric distribution of $Z_{k}$, we conjecture that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log P_{2}(x) \sim \frac{c_{2} x}{\log x} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now consider the problem of computing $c_{2}$. The simplest idea is that 2 acts like a randomly chosen element $g$ of $(\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z})^{*}$. As we will see, this is not quite correct, but it gives a place to start. Let the prime factorization of $p-1$ be $q_{1}^{\epsilon_{1}} \ldots q_{r}^{e_{n}}$. Then

$$
\log \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle g\rangle_{p}\right|}=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq r} \log \frac{q^{e_{i}}}{\left|\langle g\rangle_{p, q_{i}}\right|}
$$

where $\langle g\rangle_{p, q}$ denotes the group generated by $g$ 's image in the $q$-Sylow subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z})^{*}$. (This is the group generated by $g^{(p-1) / q}$.)

Let $q$ be one of the prime divisors of $p-1$, with $q^{e} \| p-1$. Then the $q$-Sylow subgroup of $(\mathbb{Z} / p \mathbb{Z})^{*}$ has a chain decomposition into cyclic groups of the form

$$
1 \subset C_{q} \subset C_{q^{2}} \subset \cdots \subset C_{q^{e}}
$$

The location of $g$ in this chain determines its order in the $q$-Sylow group, and if $g$ is chosen at random, we find that

$$
\begin{aligned}
E\left[\log \frac{q^{e}}{\langle g\rangle_{p, q}}\right] & =\frac{q-1}{q}\left(\log 1+\frac{\log q}{q}+\frac{\log q^{2}}{q^{2}}+\cdots+\frac{\log q^{e-1}}{q^{e-1}}\right)+\frac{\log q^{e}}{q^{e}} \\
& =\left(\frac{q-1}{q} \sum_{1 \leq i \leq e-1} \frac{i \log q}{q^{i}}\right)+\frac{e \log q}{q^{e}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

So far, we have given a rigorous argument valid for one prime $p$. Now, we fix $q$ and consider all the primes $p$ having $q$ as a prime divisor of $p-1$. If $e \geq 1$, by considering the possible residue classes for $p-1 \bmod q^{e+1}$, we find that the $\overline{\text { density }}$ of primes $p$ for which $q^{e} \| p-1$ (relative to all primes) is $1 / q^{e}$. Taking this to be the "probability" that $q^{e} \| p-1$, we compute

$$
\begin{aligned}
c & =\sum_{q \geq 2} \sum_{e \geq 1}\left(\left(\frac{q-1}{q} \sum_{1 \leq i \leq e-1} \frac{i \log q}{q^{i}}\right)+\frac{e \log q}{q^{e}}\right) \operatorname{Pr}\left[q^{e} \| p-1\right] \\
& =\sum_{q \geq 2} \frac{q \log q}{(q-1)^{2}(q+1)}
\end{aligned}
$$

as the "expected value" of $\log \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle g\rangle_{p}\right|}$.
We can compute an accurate value for $c$ in the following way. We first note that

$$
\frac{q}{(q-1)^{2}(q+1)}=\sum_{n \geq 2} \frac{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}{q^{n}}
$$

This reduces the computation of $c$ to the evaluation of $\sum_{q}(\log q) / q^{n}$ for various $n$. Using Möbius inversion, these sums can be rewritten in terms of the logarithmic derivative of the zeta function (see (5.1) of [16]). Doing all this, we find that

$$
c=-\sum_{m \geq 1} \mu(m) \sum_{n \geq 2}\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor \frac{\zeta^{\prime}}{\zeta}(m n)
$$

Integer values of the zeta function and its derivative are easy to obtain by EulerMaclaurin summation [4]. Numerically, we have

$$
c \doteq 0.89846489937400140618
$$

This argument assumed a randomly chosen base. We now consider the specific base 2. The actual average value of $\log \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}$, for odd primes $p \leq 10^{6}$, is 0.923465 . On the other hand, the corresponding averages for bases $3,5,6$ are all close to $c$. (They are $0.896144,0.894457$, and 0.895721 , respectively.)

The discrepancy for the base 2 is due to the effect of the quadratic reciprocity law, or more precisely, to the quadratic character of 2. (Thanks to Carl Pomerance for suggesting this.) We have $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)=+1$ if and only if $p \equiv \pm 1(\bmod 8)$, which means that 2 cannot mimic a random element of the 2 -Sylow subgroup. If $\nu_{2}(p-1)=1$, there is no problem, but if $\nu_{2}(p-1)=2$, then $p \equiv 5(\bmod 8)$, so $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)=-1$, and the image of 2 generates the 2 -Sylow subgroup. Similarly, for $\nu_{2}(p-1) \geq 3$, the image of 2 never generates the 2-Sylow subgroup. If we assume that the order of 2 is constrained only by these requirements, we see that the contribution for 2 should
be

$$
\frac{\log 2}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}+\sum_{e \geq 3}\left(\left(\sum_{1 \leq i \leq e-1} \frac{i \log 2}{2^{i+1}}\right)+\frac{e \log 2}{2^{e-1}}\right) \frac{1}{2^{e}}
$$

(Note that there is no contribution for $e=2$.) The upshot is that we must add $(\log 2) / 24$ to the value of $c$ for the base 2 . The resulting constant is

$$
c_{2} \doteq 0.9273460318973324607
$$

which is more in line with our observations.
We close this section with another argument that $\log \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}$, averaged over odd primes $\leq x$, has a limiting value. For any given $x$, we can express the average as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{t \geq 1} A(2, t ; x) \log t \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $A(2, t ; x)$ denotes the fraction of odd $p \leq x$ with the index of $\langle 2\rangle \bmod p$ equal to $t$. (Note that this sum is finite.) Lenstra [11] has shown that for every $t$, the limit

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(2, t)=\lim _{x \rightarrow \infty} A(2, t ; x) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

exists, assuming the ERH. Thus, it is plausible that the sum in (4) has a limit as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and that the limit is

$$
\begin{equation*}
c_{2}^{\prime}=\sum_{t \geq 1} A(2, t) \log t \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Murata [14] gives an estimate for the rate of convergence in (5), but it does not seem sharp enough to prove this.)

We can compute $\boldsymbol{c}_{2}^{\prime}$ using results of Wagstaff [24], who expressed $A(2, t)$ as a rational number times Artin's constant. For our purposes it is convenient to use the following formulas. Let

$$
g(t)=\frac{1}{t^{2}} \prod_{q \mid t} \frac{q^{2}-1}{q^{2}-q-1}
$$

and let

$$
A=\prod_{q \geq 2}\left(1-\frac{1}{q(q-1)}\right) \doteq 0.373955813619202
$$

be Artin's constant. Then we have

$$
A(2, t)= \begin{cases}A g(t), & \text { if } 4\langle t \\ 2 / 3 A g(t), & \text { if } 4 \| t \\ 2 A g(t), & \text { if } 8 \mid t\end{cases}
$$

By comparison with the Euler $\varphi$-function, it can be shown that $g(t)=O\left((\log \log t) / t^{2}\right)$, so that $\sum_{t \geq 1} A(2, t) \log t$ converges.

Using a segmented version of the Sieve of Eratosthenes [3, 15] we were able to compute $g(t)$ for $t<10^{9}$, and obtain the approximation

$$
c_{2}^{\prime} \doteq 0.927346
$$

(correct to six figures). Within the limits of this calculation, we have $\boldsymbol{c}_{2}^{\prime} \doteq c_{2}$. We conjecture that this is actually an equality.

## 5. Pseudopowers of the Base 2 and Numerical Evidence for the Heuristic Model

The following table gives, for $1 \leq k \leq 55$, the least positive odd number $n>1$ for which $n$ looks like a power of 2 modulo the primes $p_{1}=2, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}$. The data is only provided for the "record-setting" values of $k$, that is, those $k$ for which $P_{2}\left(p_{k}\right) \neq P_{2}\left(p_{k-1}\right)$. For values of $k<55$ that are not listed, $P_{2}\left(p_{k}\right)$ is the last preceding value; thus, for example, $P_{2}\left(p_{6}\right)=23$.

These values were obtained using the Manitoba Scalable Sieve Unit (MSSU), a sieve machine designed and built by the fourth author and his colleagues. This machine searches for the least integer satisfying a set of congruence conditions, such as (1), and is described in detail elsewhere $[12,13]$.

| $k$ | $p_{k}$ | $P_{2}\left(p_{k}\right)$ | $c_{2}^{(k)}$ | $R_{2}^{(k)}$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 0.000000 | 0.192 |
| 2 | 3 | 5 | 0.000000 | 0.417 |
| 3 | 5 | 7 | 0.000000 | 0.541 |
| 4 | 7 | 11 | 0.231049 | 0.807 |
| 5 | 11 | 23 | 0.173287 | 0.684 |
| 7 | 17 | 43 | 0.231049 | 0.799 |
| 9 | 23 | 127 | 0.259930 | 0.784 |
| 11 | 31 | 1087 | 0.387120 | 0.813 |
| 14 | 43 | 2209 | 0.435612 | 0.982 |
| 15 | 47 | 2837 | 0.454008 | 1.042 |
| 20 | 71 | 7603 | 0.371013 | 1.016 |
| 21 | 73 | 115669 | 0.456435 | 0.957 |
| 24 | 89 | 1062839 | 0.517447 | 1.007 |
| 25 | 97 | 4007837 | 0.524768 | 0.966 |
| 30 | 113 | 38863631 | 0.543879 | 1.024 |
| 31 | 127 | 101665279 | 0.622095 | 1.129 |
| 33 | 137 | 234556697 | 0.604875 | 1.117 |
| 36 | 151 | 1848054121 | 0.618817 | 1.118 |
| 48 | 223 | 3131990286049 | 0.581310 | 1.028 |
| 50 | 229 | 41398091214971 | 0.580003 | 0.979 |
| 51 | 233 | 335444151885977 | 0.609992 | 0.980 |
| 52 | 239 | 663176716985449 | 0.611623 | 0.981 |
| 53 | 241 | 10600009924847711 | 0.644141 | 0.970 |
| 54 | 251 | 28185732773917153 | 0.662354 | 0.987 |
| 55 | 257 | 306313044048233909 | 0.701433 | 0.998 |

It will be noted that (2) is not a very good predictor of $P_{2}\left(p_{k}\right)$ within the range of this table. For example, if we take $k=55$, so that $p_{k}=257$, then $e^{\gamma} \log p_{k} e^{(k-1) c_{2}} \approx 6 \times 10^{22}$, whereas $P_{2}\left(p_{k}\right) \approx 3 \times 10^{17}$. We believe that the discrepancy is mainly caused by slow convergence of the mean values of $\log \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}$ to $c_{2}$. As an example of this, for odd primes $\leq 257$, the true mean value is 0.701433 , rather less than the presumed asymptotic value of 0.927346 . Of course, this error is exacerbated by the exponentiation in (2).

We can check our heuristic assumption that the solutions to (1) behave randomly by replacing $c_{2}$ by $c_{2}^{(k)}$, the true mean value of $\log \frac{p-1}{\left|\langle 2\rangle_{p}\right|}$ over odd primes $\leq p_{k}$, in
(2). These values are also listed in the table, together with the ratio

$$
R_{2}^{(k)}=\frac{\gamma+\log \log \left(p_{k}\right)+c_{2}^{(k)}(k-1)}{\log P_{2}(k)}
$$

It seems that $R_{2}^{(k)} \rightarrow 1$, which is consistent with (2).

## 6. Pseudopowers for Other Bases

One can replace the base 2 by any other number. In this section, we briefly discuss how our results extend to other bases, and present empirical data for the bases 3 and 5 .

For simplicity we assume that $b$ is prime. As before, we define $P_{b}(x)$ to be the least $n>1$ that is not a power of $b$, but appears to be such a power modulo the primes $\leq x$. Analogously to (1), we see that $P_{b}\left(p_{k}\right)$ is the least number greater than 1 satisfying $n \in\langle b\rangle\left(\bmod p_{i}\right)$ for $i \leq k, p_{i} \neq b$, and $n \equiv 1(\bmod b)\left(\right.$ if $\left.b \leq p_{k}\right)$.

Therefore, the analog of Theorem 2 holds for $x>b$. The analogs of Theorems 1 and 3 remain true (and are proved the same way), with the modification that the constant $A$ now depends on $b$. Using the same heuristic argument as before, we expect that

$$
P_{b}(x)=(b-1) e^{\gamma}(\log x)\left(e^{\pi(x)-1}\right)^{c_{b}+o(1)}
$$

where $c_{b}$ is the asymptotic average value of $\log \frac{p-1}{\langle b\rangle\rangle}$.
The following two tables give pseudopowers of 3 and 5 , found using the MSSU. As before, we only list the record-breaking values of $P_{3}$ and $P_{5}$. To compare the data with our heuristic predictions, we also tabulated $c_{b}^{(k)}$, the average value of $\log \frac{p-1}{|\langle b\rangle|}$ over the primes different from $b$ and $\leq p_{k}$, and the ratio

$$
R_{b}^{(k)}=\frac{\gamma+\log (b-1)+\log \log p_{k}+c_{b}^{(k)}(k-1)}{\log P_{b}(k)}
$$

for $b=3,5$.

| $k$ | $p_{k}$ | $P_{3}\left(p_{k}\right)$ | $c_{3}^{(k)}$ | $R_{3}^{(k)}$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 2 | 5 | 0.000000 | 0.562 |
| 2 | 3 | 7 | 0.000000 | 0.701 |
| 4 | 7 | 13 | 0.000000 | 0.755 |
| 5 | 11 | 31 | 0.173287 | 0.826 |
| 6 | 13 | 157 | 0.415888 | 0.849 |
| 9 | 23 | 841 | 0.346574 | 0.770 |
| 10 | 29 | 859 | 0.308065 | 0.778 |
| 12 | 37 | 1543 | 0.315067 | 0.820 |
| 13 | 41 | 6241 | 0.422931 | 0.876 |
| 18 | 61 | 36481 | 0.485484 | 1.041 |
| 19 | 67 | 170041 | 0.519547 | 1.001 |
| 20 | 71 | 241081 | 0.528684 | 1.030 |
| 21 | 73 | 1515361 | 0.591837 | 1.023 |
| 27 | 103 | 16226731 | 0.550833 | 1.032 |
| 28 | 107 | 32913169 | 0.556104 | 1.030 |
| 29 | 109 | 52078027 | 0.585753 | 1.082 |
| 36 | 151 | 872200213 | 0.519796 | 1.024 |
| 41 | 179 | 1327190419 | 0.506807 | 1.104 |
| 42 | 181 | 8479278889 | 0.528258 | 1.075 |
| 44 | 193 | 89400402001 | 0.577596 | 1.101 |
| 58 | 271 | 384810485528569 | 0.559402 | 1.039 |
| 63 | 307 | 2346816388490401 | 0.572087 | 1.087 |
| 65 | 313 | 150139363999760521 | 0.597531 | 1.043 |


| $k$ | $p_{k}$ | $P_{5}\left(p_{k}\right)$ | $c_{5}^{(k)}$ | $R_{5}^{(k)}$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 0.000000 | 1.454 |
| 2 | 3 | 7 | 0.000000 | 1.057 |
| 3 | 5 | 11 | 0.000000 | 1.017 |
| 5 | 11 | 31 | 0.173287 | 1.028 |
| 8 | 19 | 311 | 0.354987 | 0.963 |
| 10 | 29 | 961 | 0.353117 | 0.925 |
| 11 | 31 | 3931 | 0.548064 | 1.048 |
| 17 | 59 | 32761 | 0.429183 | 0.985 |
| 19 | 67 | 96721 | 0.481038 | 1.050 |
| 20 | 71 | 2048071 | 0.594618 | 1.012 |
| 22 | 79 | 3962941 | 0.570995 | 1.016 |
| 24 | 89 | 15942061 | 0.551480 | 0.974 |
| 34 | 139 | 1049824801 | 0.543683 | 1.035 |
| 42 | 181 | 537343041691 | 0.592626 | 1.033 |
| 43 | 191 | 6791126548441 | 0.633339 | 1.023 |
| 53 | 241 | 28764591571409101 | 0.641573 | 0.977 |
| 54 | 251 | 88428973201069961 | 0.672913 | 1.008 |

We close with some remarks about the likely values of $c_{3}$ and $c_{5}$. Wagstaff's formula for $A(2, t)$ is a special case of a more general one for $A(b, t)$, the asymptotic fraction of primes $p$ for which $\langle b\rangle$ has index $t \bmod p$. (This is also a rational multiple
of Artin's constant.) Let

$$
c_{b}^{\prime}=\sum_{t \geq 1} A(b, t) \log t
$$

By summing over $t<10^{9}$, we found that

$$
c_{3}^{\prime}, c_{5}^{\prime} \doteq 0.898465
$$

which is, as far as we know, the same as the constant $c$ defined in $\S 4$. We conjecture that $c_{3}=c_{3}^{\prime}, c_{5}=c_{5}^{\prime}$, and that both of these equal $c$.

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