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# Transcendence of Values of the Iterated Exponential Function at Algebraic Points 

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#### Abstract

We say that the limit of a sequence of functions $$
x, \quad x^{x}, \quad x^{x^{x}}, \ldots
$$ is the iterated exponential function, denoted by $h(x)$. By a result of Barrow, this limit is convergent for every $x \in\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$. In this paper, we prove that, for each fixed integer $k \geq 2$, the limit $h(A)$ is transcendental for all but finitely many algebraic numbers $A \in\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$ with $k=\min \left\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid A^{n} \in \mathbb{Q}\right\}$. Furthermore, let $Q(k)$ be the cardinality of exceptional points $A$. We prove that the ratio $Q(k) / \varphi(k)$ approaches $e-1 / e$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, where $\varphi(k)$ denotes Euler's totient function.


## 1 Introduction

We say that a complex number $\alpha$ is algebraic if there exists a non-zero polynomial $f(X)$ with rational coefficients such that $f(\alpha)=0$, and $\alpha$ is transcendental if $\alpha$ is not algebraic. Let $\mathbb{A}$ and $\mathbb{T}$ denote the set of all algebraic numbers and transcendental numbers, respectively. A fundamental problem in transcendental number theory is to determine the transcendence (or algebraicity) of a given number.

In 1934, Gelfond and Schneider (independently) solved one of the big problems in the area, called Hilbert's 7th problem.

Theorem 1 (Gelfond-Schneider $[6,7,12,13])$. If $\alpha \in \mathbb{A} \backslash\{0,1\}$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{A} \backslash \mathbb{Q}$, then $\alpha^{\beta}$ is transcendental.

By using this result, we study the transcendence of the limit of a sequence

$$
\begin{equation*}
x, \quad x^{x}, \quad x^{x^{x}}, \ldots \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This limit is denoted by $h(x)$, called the iterated exponential function. Formally, the limit $h(x)$ can be written as

$$
h(x)=x^{x^{x^{*}}}
$$

The limit of a sequence (1) is convergent for every $e^{-e} \leq x \leq e^{1 / e}$ from a result of Barrow [3, Theorem 5], and he also proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x)=x^{h(x)}, \text { and } \quad 1 / e \leq h(x) \leq e . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $e^{-e} \leq x \leq e^{1 / e}$. We propose the following question:
Question 2. Suppose $A$ is algebraic and $h(A)$ is convergent. Is $h(A)$ transcendental?
For some algebraic numbers $A$, the transcendence of $h(A)$ is already known from the following result of Sondow and Marques:

Proposition 3 ([14, Corollary 4.2]). Let $A \in\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$. If either
(i) $A^{n} \in \mathbb{A} \backslash \mathbb{Q}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, or
(ii) $A \in \mathbb{Q} \backslash\{1 / 4,1\}$,
then $h(A)$ is transcendental.
However, they did not study the case when there exists an integer $n \geq 2$ such that $A^{n} \in \mathbb{Q}$. This paper gives new results in this unknown case.

To state our main theorems, we now define the function ord : $\mathbb{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \cup\{\infty\}$ to be

$$
\operatorname{ord}(A)=\min \left\{n \in \mathbb{N}: A^{n} \in \mathbb{Q}\right\}
$$

if there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A^{n} \in \mathbb{Q}$, and define $\operatorname{ord}(A)=\infty$ otherwise. We say that $\operatorname{ord}(A)$ is the order of an algebraic number $A$. The first goal of this paper is to prove the following theorem.

Theorem 4. Fix an integer $k \geq 2$. For every $A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$ with $\operatorname{ord}(A)=k$, the limit $h(A)$ is transcendental, except possibly for $A \in \mathcal{E}(k)$, where

$$
\theta:=(\log 2-1 / e)^{-1}=3.074390 \cdots,
$$

and

$$
\mathcal{E}(k):=\left\{\left(\frac{k t}{s}\right)^{\frac{s}{k t}}: \begin{array}{c}
1 \leq t \leq \theta \log k, k t / e \leq s \leq k t e, s, t \in \mathbb{N}, \\
(k t)^{1 / t}, s^{1 / t} \in \mathbb{N}, \operatorname{gcd}(k t, s)=1
\end{array}\right\} .
$$

We prove Theorem 4 in Subsection 3.1. Moreover, for the case that $k$ is a square-free integer, we can characterize the set of all algebraic numbers $A$ of order $k$ such that the limit $h(A)$ is algebraic.

Theorem 5. If $k \geq 3$ is square-free, then

$$
\left\{A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]: \begin{array}{l}
h(A) \text { is algebraic, } \\
\operatorname{ord}(A)=k
\end{array}\right\}=\left\{\left(\frac{k}{s}\right)^{\frac{s}{k}}: \begin{array}{l}
k / e \leq s \leq k e \\
\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=1
\end{array}\right\} .
$$

Remark 6. We also get the result for $k=2$. The explicit form is stated after the proof of Theorem 5.

We do not know whether the set $\mathcal{E}(k)$ is equal to the set of all algebraic numbers $A$ with order $k$ such that the limit $h(A)$ is algebraic. As we discussed previously, the case $k=1$ or $\infty$ was already proven by Sondow and Marques (Proposition 3). We define $\mathcal{E}(1)=\{1 / 4,1\}$ and $\mathcal{E}(\infty)=\emptyset$. From Theorem 4 and Proposition 3, the limit $h(A)$ is transcendental except possibly for $A \in \mathcal{E}(k)$ for every $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup\{\infty\}$.

It is clear that $\mathcal{E}(k)$ is a finite set for every $k \geq 1$. Thus we can define the arithmetic function $Q(k)$ to be

$$
Q(k)=\#\left\{A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]: h(A) \text { is algebraic, and } \operatorname{ord}(A)=k\right\}
$$

where $\# X$ denotes the cardinality of $X$ for every finite set $X$.
For every pair of functions $f(k), g(k)$ and for every non-negative function $h(k)$, we write $f(k)=g(k)+O(h(k))$ if there exists some constant $C>0$ such that $|f(k)-g(k)| \leq C h(k)$. Let $\varphi(k)$ be the number of positive integers up to a given integer $k$ that are relatively prime to $k$; this is called Euler's totient function. We find an asymptotic formula for $Q(k)$, where the main term is $(e-1 / e) \varphi(k)$; furthermore, the ratio $Q(k) / \varphi(k)$ approaches $e-1 / e$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. More precisely, we get the following result:

Theorem 7. For every $k \geq 3$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q(k) / \varphi(k)=e-\frac{1}{e}+O\left(k^{-1 / 2} \log \log k\right) . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, we have

$$
\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{Q(k)}{\varphi(k)}=e-\frac{1}{e} .
$$

Remark 8. We know that the limit $h(A)$ is transcendental for every $A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$ with $\operatorname{ord}(A)=\infty$ from Proposition 3. Thus we might guess that $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} Q(k)=0$. However, Theorem 7 implies that $\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} Q(k)=\infty$.

Theorem 9. The exceptional set

$$
\left\{A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]: h(A) \text { is algebraic }\right\}
$$

is dense in $\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$.
If we fix the order of algebraic numbers, then we can find that the exceptional set is finite by Theorem 4. On the other hand, we see that the union

$$
\bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty}\left\{A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]: h(A) \text { is algebraic, and } \operatorname{ord}(A)=k\right\}
$$

is dense in $\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$ from Theorem 9.
In the above four results, we consider only the case where $x$ is positive. We can extend the iterated exponential function (1) to $\mathbb{C}$, and it is known that there exists a non-real number $x$ such that (1) converges. Let

$$
\mathcal{R}=\left\{e^{t e^{-t}}| | t \mid<1, \text { or } t \text { is a root of unity }\right\} .
$$

In 1983, Baker and Rippon [2] showed that if $x \in \mathcal{R}$, the sequence (1) converges to $e^{t}$.

Theorem 10. Let $x \in \mathbb{A} \cap \mathcal{R}$. Then if $h(x)$ is an algebraic number, then $x$ is real and positive.

This theorem makes our results valid for all $\mathbb{A}$ with the condition that the sequence (1) converges. We show this result in Section 5 .

As one of the generalizations of these results, we also consider the case $x=\alpha^{\beta}$, where both $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are algebraic numbers with $\alpha \notin\{0,1\}$. If $\beta$ is not a rational number, then $\alpha^{\beta}$ is a transcendence number by Theorem 1 . We characterize the pairs $(\alpha, \beta)$ such that $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right)$ is an algebraic number in Section 5.

A complex-valued function $f(x)$ is called transcendental, if there exists no non-zero polynomial $P(y)$ with $\mathbb{C}(x)$ coefficients such that $P(f(x)) \equiv 0$. It is known that there are entire transcendental functions $f$ such that $f(\alpha)$ is an algebraic number for every algebraic number $\alpha$ [11]. For transcendental functions $f$, the exceptional set is defined to be

$$
\{\alpha \in \mathbb{A} \mid f(\alpha) \in \mathbb{A}\} .
$$

In this paper, we also consider the exceptional set for the iterated exponential function.
We give some notation. In this paper, the expression $a \mid b$ denotes that $b$ can be divided by $a$, and $p^{k} \| a$ denotes that $p^{k} \mid a$ and $p^{k+1} \nmid a$.

## 2 Preliminary discussion

To prove Theorem 4, 5, and 7, we show the following lemmas.
Lemma 11. Let $x \geq 2$ be an integer, and let $a$ and $b$ be relatively prime positive integers. If $x^{a / b}$ is a positive integer, then $x^{1 / b}$ is also a positive integer.

Proof. Let $y=x^{a / b}$. Note that $y \in \mathbb{N}$. From the prime factorization, it follows that $x=p_{1}^{\alpha_{1}} \cdots p_{n}^{\alpha_{n}}$ and $y=p_{1}^{\beta_{1}} \cdots p_{n}^{\beta_{n}}$ for some prime numbers $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{n}$ and positive integers $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}, \beta_{1}, \ldots, \beta_{n}$. This yields that $\beta_{j} b=\alpha_{j} a$ for every $1 \leq j \leq n$. From $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, it is obtained that $b \mid \alpha_{j}$ for every $1 \leq j \leq n$. Thus we conclude $x^{1 / b} \in \mathbb{N}$.

Lemma 12. Let $A \in \mathbb{A} \backslash\{0\}$ and $k \geq 1$. If $A^{k} \in \mathbb{Q}$, then $\operatorname{ord}(A) \mid k$.
$\underline{P r o o f .}$. We define $\mathbb{A}^{\times}$and $\mathbb{Q}^{\times}$to be the multiplicative group $\mathbb{A}$ and $\mathbb{Q}$, respectively. Let $\bar{B} \in \mathbb{A}^{\times} / \mathbb{Q}^{\times}$be the equivalent class of $B \in \mathbb{A}$. Then the cardinality of the cyclic group $\langle\bar{A}\rangle=\left\{A^{n} \in \mathbb{A}^{\times} / \mathbb{Q}^{\times}: n \in \mathbb{Z}\right\}$ is equal to ord $(A)$, and $(\bar{A})^{k}=\overline{1}$. By the theory of groups, we obtain $\operatorname{ord}(A) \mid k$.

Lemma 13. Let $A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$. If $h(A) \in \mathbb{R} \backslash \mathbb{Q}$, then $h(A) \in \mathbb{T}$.
Proof. Assume that $h(A) \in \mathbb{A}$. Then $1 / h(A) \in \mathbb{A} \backslash \mathbb{Q}$ since the same is true for $h(A)$. From Theorem 1, we see that $h(A)^{1 / h(A)}$ is transcendental, but this is a contradiction by (2).

## 3 Proof of main theorems

### 3.1 Proof of Theorem 4

Proof of Theorem 4. Fix an integer $k \geq 2$. Assume that $h(A)$ is rational. The goal of this proof is to show that $A \in \mathcal{E}(k)$ from Lemma 13. It can be written as $h(A)=a / b$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Since $\operatorname{ord}(A)=k$, it also can be written as $A=(x / y)^{1 / k}$ for some $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1$. From (2), the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\frac{b}{a}}=\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^{\frac{1}{b}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds. From $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1$ and (4), it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a^{b k}=x^{a}, \quad b^{b k}=y^{a} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $x=1$, then it is easily seen that $a=1$ from (5). This does not happen since $k \mid a$ by Lemma 12. Thus we may assume that $x \geq 2$. Let $t=a / k$. We next show that $1 \leq t \leq \theta \log k$. From $k \mid a$, the integer $t$ is a positive integer, and $\operatorname{gcd}(t, b)=1$ holds. From (5), it is seen that $x^{t / b} / t=k$. From Lemma 11, we have $x^{1 / b} \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore $x$ can be written as $x=x_{0}^{b}$ for some positive integer $x_{0}$. We see that $x_{0} \neq 1$ from $x \geq 2$. Thus $x^{1 / b}=x_{0} \geq 2$. Therefore, we have

$$
\frac{2^{t}}{t} \leq \frac{x^{t / b}}{t}=k
$$

which implies that

$$
(\log 2-1 / e) t \leq \log \frac{2^{t}}{t} \leq \log k
$$

Thus we have $1 \leq t \leq \theta \log k$, where recall $\theta=(\log 2-1 / e)^{-1}$.
Let $s=b$. We find that $h(A)=a / b=k t / s$. From (2), we have $k t / e \leq s \leq k t e$.
From the above discussion, it follows that

$$
\begin{gathered}
1 \leq t \leq \theta \log k, \quad k t / e \leq s \leq t k e, \quad s, t \in \mathbb{N}, \\
x=a^{b k / a}=(k t)^{s / t}, \quad y=b^{b k / a}=s^{s / t}, \quad \operatorname{gcd}(k t, s)=1, \\
A=\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}}=\left(\frac{k t}{s}\right)^{\frac{s}{k t}} .
\end{gathered}
$$

Lemma 11 and $\operatorname{gcd}(k t, s)=1$ imply that $(k t)^{1 / t}$ and $s^{1 / t}$ are positive integers. Therefore, we conclude $A \in \mathcal{E}(k)$.

### 3.2 Proof of Theorem 5

Let $f(y)=y^{1 / y}$ on $1 / e \leq y \leq e$. The function $f$ is an injection. Indeed,

$$
f^{\prime}(y)=y^{1 / y-2}(1-\log y)
$$

holds from taking the logarithmic derivative. Therefore $f^{\prime}(y)>0$ for every $y \in(1 / e, e)$, which means that $f$ is an injection. Hence we immediately get the following lemma.
Lemma 14. Let $A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$. If there exists $q \in \mathbb{Q} \cap[1 / e, e]$ such that $A=q^{1 / q}$, then $h(A)=q$.
Proof of Theorem 5. First, we prove that the set on the left-hand side set contains the set on the right-hand side. Since $k / e \leq s \leq k e$, we obtain $(k / s)^{s / k} \in\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$. By Lemma 14, we have $h\left((k / s)^{s / k}\right)=k / s$. When we assume that $\operatorname{ord}(A)<k$, i.e. there is an integer $l$ such that

$$
1 \leq l<k \quad, \quad \text { and } \quad\left(\frac{k}{s}\right)^{\frac{s l}{k}}=\frac{x}{y} \quad(\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1)
$$

we see that

$$
k^{s l}=x^{k}
$$

because $\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=1$ and $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1$. Therefore $k$ divides $l$, because $\operatorname{gcd}(s, k)=1$ and $k$ is square-free. This is a contradiction. Hence we have $\operatorname{ord}(A)=k$.

Next, we prove that the set on the left-hand side is a subset of the set on the right-hand side. By Lemma 13 , we can see that $h(A) \in \mathbb{Q}$. When we put

$$
h(A)=\frac{a}{b} \quad(\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1)
$$

we can obtain

$$
A=\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\frac{b}{a}} \quad(a / e \leq b \leq a e)
$$

Now we prove $a=k$. It also can be written as $A=(x / y)^{1 / k}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1$ because $\operatorname{ord}(A)=k$. Therefore

$$
\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\frac{b}{a}}=\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^{\frac{1}{k}}
$$

and we have

$$
a^{k b}=x^{a} .
$$

We can write $a=k m(m \in \mathbb{N})$ and the above equation can be rewritten as

$$
(k m)^{b}=x^{m} .
$$

Since $k$ is square-free, if a prime $p$ divides $k$ but not $m$, then $m$ divides $b$. However we put $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Hence this is a contradiction except possibly for the case of $m=1$. If there is a prime $p$ such that

$$
p \nmid k \quad \text { and } \quad p^{\alpha} \| m(\alpha \geq 1)
$$

then $m$ divides $\alpha$ since $\operatorname{gcd}(b, m)=1$. Therefore $p^{\alpha}$ divides $\alpha$, but that is impossible. Hence $k$ and $m$ are not co-prime or $m=1$. We assume that $k$ and $m$ are not co-prime and $k \geq 3$. Then there is a prime $p>2$ such that

$$
p^{\alpha+1} \| k m(\alpha \geq 1)
$$

Since $\operatorname{gcd}(b, m)=1$, the integer $m$ divides $\alpha+1$, and therefore $p^{\alpha}$ divides $\alpha+1$. But this is impossible. Therefore $m=1$.

For the case $k=2$, the triple $(m, p, \alpha)=(2,2,1)$ satisfies $p^{\alpha+1} \| k m$. Then, we have $a=4$. By the assumption, an odd integer $b$ satisfies $4 / e \leq b \leq 4 e$ and $b^{b}=y^{2}$. Therefore, $b=9$. In this case, we confirm that $h\left((4 / 9)^{9 / 4}\right)=4 / 9$ and $(4 / 9)^{9 / 4} \in Q(2)$. Thus, there is only one exceptional element $(2 / 3)^{9 / 2} \in Q(2)$.

### 3.3 Proof of Theorem 7

In order to estimate the value of $Q(k)$, we need some evaluations of arithmetic functions. Let $d(n)$ be the number of divisors of $n, \omega(n)$ be the number of distinct prime factors of $n$, and $\gamma$ be the Euler-Mascheroni constant.

Lemma 15. We have the following facts.

- [9, Theorem 2.9] For every $n \geq 3$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi(n) \geq \frac{n}{\log \log n}\left(e^{-\gamma}+O\left(\frac{1}{\log \log n}\right)\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

- [9, Theorem 2.11] For every $n \geq 3$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\log d(n) \leq \frac{\log n}{\log \log n}\left(\log 2+O\left(\frac{1}{\log \log n}\right)\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

- [9, Theorem 3.1] Let $P$ be a positive integer. For every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, and every $y \geq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\substack{x<n \leq x+y \\ \operatorname{gcd}(n, P)=1}} 1=\frac{\varphi(P)}{P} y+O\left(2^{\omega(P)}\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 16. From (7), there exists $C>0$ such that for every $n \geq 3$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
d(n) \leq \exp \left(\frac{C \log n}{\log \log n}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can take $C=1.5379$ from the result of Nicolas and Robin [10], but we do not use this explicit value.

Since $2^{\omega(P)} \leq d(P)$ holds, by (8) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\substack{x<n \leq x+y \\ \operatorname{gcd}(n, P)=1}} 1=\frac{\varphi(P)}{P} y+O(d(P)) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

For every function $f(k)$ and for every non-negative function $g(k)$, we define $f(k) \ll g(k)$ to mean $f(k)=O(g(k))$.

Proof of Theorem 7. Let $\mathcal{E}(k)$ be the set in Theorem 4. From Theorem 4 and Eq. (10), it follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q(k) & \leq \# \mathcal{E}(k) \\
& \leq \#\left\{(u, t) \in \mathbb{N}^{2}: 1 \leq t \leq \theta \log k,(k t / e)^{1 / t} \leq u \leq(k t e)^{1 / t}, \operatorname{gcd}(k, u)=1\right\} \\
& =\sum_{1 \leq t \leq \theta \log k} \sum_{\substack{(t k / e)^{1 / t} \leq u \leq(t k e)^{1 / t} \\
\operatorname{gcd}(k, u)=1}} 1 \\
& =\sum_{1 \leq t \leq \theta \log k}\left(\left((t k e)^{1 / t}-\left(\frac{t k}{e}\right)^{1 / t}\right) \frac{\varphi(k)}{k}+O(d(k))\right) \\
& =\left(e-\frac{1}{e}\right) \varphi(k)+\left(\sum_{2 \leq t \leq \theta \log k}\left((t k e)^{1 / t}-\left(\frac{t k}{e}\right)^{1 / t}\right) \frac{\varphi(k)}{k}\right)+O(d(k) \log k) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By the mean value theorem and the fact $t^{1 / t}$ is bounded, the middle term is dominated by

$$
\frac{\varphi(k)}{k} \sum_{2 \leq t \leq \theta \log k}\left(k e-\frac{k}{e}\right) \frac{(k / e)^{1 / t-1}}{t} \ll \varphi(k) k^{-1 / 2} \log \log k
$$

By (6) and (9), we have

$$
\varphi(k) k^{-1 / 2} \log \log k+d(k) \log k \ll \varphi(k) k^{-1 / 2} \log \log k .
$$

Therefore there exists a constant $C_{1}>0$ such that

$$
Q(k) / \varphi(k)-\left(e-\frac{1}{e}\right) \leq C_{1} k^{-1 / 2} \log \log k
$$

We next find a lower bound for $Q(k)$. Let

$$
\mathcal{E}_{0}(k)=\left\{\left(\frac{k}{s}\right)^{\frac{s}{k}} \begin{array}{l}
k / e \leq s \leq e k, s \in \mathbb{N}, \operatorname{gcd}(k, s)=1  \tag{11}\\
r \mid k \text { and } r \neq 1 \Rightarrow s^{1 / r} \notin \mathbb{N}
\end{array}\right\}
$$

for every $k \geq 3$. Then $\mathcal{E}_{0}(k) \subset\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$ holds for every $k \geq 3$. Indeed, since $f(x)=x^{1 / x}$ is increasing on $x \in[1 / e, e]$, we have

$$
e^{-e} \leq\left(\frac{k}{s}\right)^{\frac{s}{k}} \leq e^{1 / e}
$$

for every $1 / e \leq s / k \leq e$. Therefore $h(A)$ can be defined for every $A \in \mathcal{E}_{0}$. Fix $A \in \mathcal{E}_{0}$ and write $A=(k / s)^{s / k}$. We next show that $\operatorname{ord}(A)=k$. It follows that

$$
\left(\frac{k}{s}\right)^{\frac{s \cdot \operatorname{ord}(A)}{k}}=A^{\operatorname{ord}(A)}=\frac{x}{y}
$$

for some relatively prime positive integers $x$ and $y$. From Lemma 12 , we obtain $\operatorname{ord}(A) \mid k$. Since $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=\operatorname{gcd}(k, s)=1$ implies that

$$
s^{\frac{s}{k / \operatorname{rord}(A)}}=y
$$

it follows that $s^{\frac{1}{k / \operatorname{ord}(A)}} \in \mathbb{N}$ from Lemma 11 and the fact that $\operatorname{gcd}(k, s)=1$. Therefore, the definition of $\mathcal{E}_{0}(k)$ leads to $\operatorname{ord}(A)=k$. Furthermore, the limit $h(A)$ is rational from Lemma 14. Hence we get the evaluation

$$
\# \mathcal{E}_{0}(k) \leq Q(k)
$$

We now find a lower bound for $\# \mathcal{E}_{0}(k)$. It is obtained that

$$
\# \mathcal{E}_{0}(k) \geq \sum_{\substack{k / e \leq s \leq e k \\ \operatorname{gcd}(k, s)=1}} 1-\sum_{\substack{r \mid k \\ r \neq 1}} \sum_{\substack{(k / e)^{1 / r} \leq u \leq(e k)^{1 / r} \\ \operatorname{gcd}(k, u)=1}} 1 .
$$

From (10), the first sum is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(e-\frac{1}{e}\right) \varphi(k)+O(d(k)), \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the second sum is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\substack{r \mid k \\ r \neq 1}}\left((e k)^{1 / r}-\left(\frac{k}{e}\right)^{1 / r}\right) \frac{\varphi(k)}{k}+O\left(d(k)^{2}\right) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the mean value theorem and the estimate (9), this sum is dominated by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\varphi(k)}{k} \sum_{\substack{r \mid k \\ r \neq 1}} \frac{1}{r}(k / e)^{1 / r} \ll \frac{\varphi(k)}{k} k^{1 / 2} \sum_{r \mid k} \frac{1}{r} \leq \frac{\varphi(k)}{k} k^{1 / 2} \frac{k}{\varphi(k)}=k^{1 / 2} . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, by combining (12), (13), and (14), we have

$$
\# \mathcal{E}_{0}(k) / \varphi(k)=e-\frac{1}{e}+O\left(d(k)^{2} / \varphi(k)+k^{1 / 2} / \varphi(k)\right)
$$

Hence, by (6) and (9), there exists $C_{2}>0$ such that

$$
-C_{2} k^{-1 / 2} \log \log k \leq Q(k) / \varphi(k)-\left(e-\frac{1}{e}\right)
$$

for every $k \geq 3$. Therefore we obtain

$$
Q(k) / \varphi(k)=e-\frac{1}{e}+O\left(k^{-1 / 2} \log \log k\right)
$$

Furthermore, we find that $Q(k) / \varphi(k) \rightarrow e-\frac{1}{e}$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ from (6).

Proof of Theorem 9. Let $\mathcal{E}=\left\{A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]: h(A)\right.$ is algebraic $\}$, and let $f(x)=1 / x^{x}$. By the definition (11), we have

$$
\left\{f\left(p / 2^{k}\right): k \geq 2, p \text { is odd prime, } 1 / e \leq p / 2^{k} \leq e\right\} \subseteq \bigcup_{k=3}^{\infty} \mathcal{E}_{0}(k) \subseteq \mathcal{E}
$$

Note that the function $f(x)=1 / x^{x}$ is a homeomorphism from $[1 / e, e]$ into $\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$. Thus it is sufficient to show that the set

$$
\mathcal{F}:=\left\{p / 2^{k} \in \mathbb{Q}: k \geq 2, p \text { is odd prime }\right\}
$$

is dense in $(0, \infty)$. Here fix real numbers $x>0$ and $\epsilon>0$. It is clear from [9, Theorem 6.9] that if $y$ is a sufficiently large real number, then there exists an odd prime number $p$ such that $p \in[y, y+y / \log y]$. Therefore if we choose a sufficiently large integer $k=k(x, \epsilon)$, then we can find an odd prime number $p$ such that

$$
(x-\epsilon) 2^{k}<p<(x+\epsilon) 2^{k} .
$$

Then the following inequality holds:

$$
\left|x-p / 2^{k}\right|<\epsilon,
$$

which implies that $\mathcal{F}$ is dense in $(0, \infty)$.

## 4 Iterated exponential on $\left(0, e^{-e}\right)$

Barrow [3] showed that $h(x)$ does not converge on the interval $\left(0, e^{-e}\right)$, but he proved that sequences of the functions

$$
\begin{equation*}
x, \quad x^{x^{x}}, \quad x^{x^{x^{x^{x}}}}, \cdots \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{x}, \quad x^{x^{x^{x}}}, \quad x^{x^{x^{x^{x^{x}}}}}, \cdots \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

are convergent for every $x \in\left(0, e^{-e}\right)$. We define $h_{o}(x)$ and $h_{e}(x)$ to be the limits of the above sequences (15) and (16), respectively. We say that $h_{o}(x)$ is the odd iterated exponential function and $h_{e}(x)$ is the even iterated exponential function. Note that these functions can be defined on $\left(0, e^{-e}\right)$. Barrow proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{o}(x)=x^{h_{e}(x)}, \quad h_{e}(x)=x^{h_{o}(x)}, \quad 0<h_{o}(x)<\frac{1}{e}<h_{e}(x)<1 \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $x \in\left(0, e^{-e}\right)$. We define

$$
R(k)=\#\left\{A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left(0, e^{-e}\right): h_{o}(A) \text { and } h_{e}(A) \text { are algebraic, and } \operatorname{ord}(A)=k\right\}
$$

Question 17. Is $R(k)$ finite? If so, can we find an asymptotic formula of $R(k)$ ?
The goal of this section is to give the affirmative answer to Question 17. More precisely, we get the following results:

Theorem 18. Let $A$ be an algebraic number in the interval $\left(0, e^{-e}\right)$. Then $h_{o}(A)$ and $h_{e}(A)$ are algebraic if and only if there exists a positive integer $v$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\left(\frac{v}{v+1}\right)^{(v+1)\left(\frac{v+1}{v}\right)^{v}} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the above theorem, it follows that

$$
R(k)=\#\left\{v \in \mathbb{N}: \operatorname{ord}\left(\left(\frac{v}{v+1}\right)^{(v+1)\left(\frac{v+1}{v}\right)^{v}}\right)=k\right\}
$$

Theorem 19 (the answer to Question 17). We have

$$
R(k)= \begin{cases}1, & \exists v \in \mathbb{N} \text { s.t. } k=v^{v} \\ 0, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

In order to prove the results, we first show the following lemma:
Lemma 20. Let $A \in \mathbb{A} \cap\left(0, e^{-e}\right)$. If $h_{o}(A)$ or $h_{e}(A)$ is irrational, then $h_{o}(A)$ or $h_{e}(A)$ is transcendental.

Proof. If $h_{o}(A)$ is a transcendental number, then we immediately get this lemma. Thus we may assume that $h_{o}(A)$ is algebraic. It follows from (17) that $h_{e}(A)=A^{h_{o}(A)}$. Therefore $h_{e}(A)$ is transcendental from Theorem 1.

By the result of Hurwitz [8], we obtain that
Lemma 21. All solutions of the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{y}=y^{x}, \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Q}, \quad x>y>0 \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

are

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=(1+1 / v)^{1+v}, \quad y=(1+1 / v)^{v} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $v \in \mathbb{N}$.
We refer to the paper of Anderson [1] for readers who want to know the background of the equation (19).

Proof of Theorem 18. Assume that $h_{o}(A)$ and $h_{e}(A)$ are algebraic. From Lemma 20, the limits $h_{o}(A)$ and $h_{e}(A)$ are rational. From (17), we have

$$
\left(1 / h_{o}(A)\right)^{1 / h_{e}(A)}=\left(1 / h_{e}(A)\right)^{1 / h_{o}(A)} .
$$

It follows from Lemma 21 that

$$
h_{o}(A)=(1+1 / v)^{-1-v}, \quad h_{e}(A)=(1+1 / v)^{-v}
$$

for some $v \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus the formula (18) is obtained from $A=h_{o}(A)^{1 / h_{e}(A)}$.
To prove the converse assertion, we shall prepare several lemmas.
Lemma 22 (cf. Lemma 21). If $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ with $0<y<x$ is a solution to

$$
\begin{equation*}
x^{y}=y^{x} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

then there exists a positive $t>0$ such that $y=(1+1 / t)^{t}, x=(1+1 / t)^{t+1}$.
Proof. Let $t=\frac{y}{x-y}>0$. Then, we have $x=(1+1 / t) y$. By (21), we compute as

$$
y^{(1+1 / t) y}=\left(\left(1+\frac{1}{t}\right) y\right)^{y} \Longleftrightarrow y^{1 / t}=\left(1+\frac{1}{t}\right) \Longleftrightarrow y=\left(1+\frac{1}{t}\right)^{t},
$$

which implies $x=(1+1 / t) y=(1+1 / t)^{t+1}$.
Lemma 23. For every $t>0$, we have

$$
\frac{1}{t+1}-t\left(\log \left(1+\frac{1}{t}\right)\right)^{2}>0
$$

Proof. Let

$$
G(t)=\frac{1}{t+1}-t\left(\log \left(1+\frac{1}{t}\right)\right)^{2}
$$

Then, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
G^{\prime}(t) & =-\frac{1}{(t+1)^{2}}-\left(\log \left(1+\frac{1}{t}\right)\right)^{2}+2 \log \left(1+\frac{1}{t}\right) \frac{1}{t+1} \\
& =-\left(\frac{1}{t+1}-\log \left(1+\frac{1}{t}\right)\right)^{2}<0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Combining this with $\lim _{t \rightarrow 0} G(t)=1$ and $\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} G(t)=0$, we confirm that $G(t)>0$.

Lemma 24. For every $t>0$, let

$$
f(t)=\left(\frac{t}{t+1}\right)^{(t+1)\left(\frac{t+1}{t}\right)^{t}}
$$

Then, $f(t)$ is monotonically increasing on $t>0$.
Proof. Let $g(t)=-\log f(t)$. It suffices to show that $g(t)$ decreases monotonically. The logarithmic derivative leads that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{g^{\prime}(t)}{g(t)} & =\log \left(1+\frac{1}{t}\right)-\frac{1}{t(t+1) \log (1+1 / t)} \\
& =\frac{t(t+1)(\log (1+1 / t))^{2}-1}{t(t+1) \log (1+1 / t)}<0
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $g(t)>0$, one confirms that $g^{\prime}(t)<0$ if and only if $G(t)$ as in Lemma 23 is positive. Lemma 23 ensures that $G(t)>0$. Therefore $f(t)$ is monotonically increasing on $t>0$.

Proposition 25. If

$$
A=\left(\frac{v}{v+1}\right)^{(v+1)\left(\frac{v+1}{v}\right)^{v}}
$$

for some $v \in \mathbb{N}$, then $h_{o}(A)=(1+1 / v)^{-1-v}$ and $h_{e}(A)=(1+1 / v)^{-v}$ which are algebraic.
Proof. By (17), we have $h_{o}(A)^{1 / h_{e}(A)}=h_{e}(A)^{1 / h_{o}(A)}$ and $h_{o}(A)<h_{e}(A)$. This yields that

$$
\left(\frac{1}{h_{o}(A)}\right)^{1 / h_{e}(A)}=\left(\frac{1}{h_{e}(A)}\right)^{1 / h_{o}(A)}=\frac{1}{A}, \quad 1 / h_{e}(A)<1 / h_{o}(A)
$$

By combining this with Lemma 22, there exists a real number $t>0$ such that

$$
1 / h_{e}(A)=(1+1 / t)^{t}, \quad 1 / h_{o}(A)=(1+1 / t)^{t+1}
$$

Since $A=h_{o}(A)^{1 / h_{e}(A)}$, we have

$$
\left(\frac{t}{t+1}\right)^{(t+1)\left(\frac{t+1}{t}\right)^{t}}=A=\left(\frac{v}{v+1}\right)^{(v+1)\left(\frac{v+1}{v}\right)^{v}}
$$

Lemma 24 leads to $t=v$. Thus, we obtain that $h_{o}(A)=(1+1 / v)^{-1-v}$ and $h_{e}(A)=$ $(1+1 / v)^{-v}$. As $v \in \mathbb{N}$, both $h_{o}(A)$ and $h_{e}(A)$ are algebraic.

We have now completed the proof of Theorem 18.

Proof of Theorem 19. We find the solutions of the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{v}{v+1}\right)^{(v+1)\left(\frac{v+1}{v}\right)^{v}}=\left(\frac{x}{y}\right)^{1 / k}, \quad v, x, y \in \mathbb{N}, \quad \operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1 \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $A$ be the left-hand side of (22). It follows that $A^{v^{v}} \in \mathbb{Q}$. From Lemma 12, we have $k \mid v^{v}$. Let $t=v^{v} / k \in \mathbb{N}$. It is seen that

$$
v^{(v+1)^{v+1}}=x^{t}, \quad(v+1)^{(v+1)^{v+1}}=y^{t} .
$$

There exists positive integers $a$ and $b$ such that

$$
v=a^{t}, \quad v+1=b^{t}
$$

from Lemma 11 and $\operatorname{gcd}(v, v+1)=1$. Assume that $t \geq 2$. Then it follows from $b>a$ that

$$
1=(b-a)\left(b^{t-1}+b^{t-2} a+\cdots+a^{t-1}\right) \geq t
$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore $t=1$, which means that

$$
k=v^{v} .
$$

## 5 Generalized case

In this section, $x$ denotes a complex number. First, we show Theorem 10. There are many results about convergence of iterated exponential (1). Carlsson [4] showed that convergence of (1) can occur only if $x \in R=\left\{e^{t e^{-t}}| | t \mid \leq 1\right\}$ in 1907. In 1983, Baker and Rippon showed the following theorem.

Theorem 26 (Baker and Rippon [2]). Let

$$
\mathcal{R}=\left\{e^{t e^{-t}}| | t \mid<1, \text { or } t \text { is a root of unity }\right\}
$$

If $x \in \mathcal{R}$, the sequence (1) converges to $e^{t}$. For almost all $t$ on the unit circle $|t|=1$ in the sense of the Lebesgue measure, the sequence (1) diverges.

An alternative proof of Theorem 26 using Lambert's $W$ function was given by Galidakis [5]. In the following, we denote by $x=e^{t e^{-t}}$ an element of $\mathcal{R}$ and consider whether the value $h(x)$ is a transcendental number. The Lindemann theorem states that if $t \in \mathbb{A} \backslash\{0\}$, then $h(x)=e^{t}$ is transcendental. Therefore, the limit $h(x)$ can be an algebraic number only if $t$ is either zero or a transcendental number. Moreover, we can show a similar lemma to Lemma 13 by the same argument of the proof of Lemma 13.

Lemma 27. Let $x \in \mathbb{A} \cap \mathcal{R}$. If $h(x) \notin \mathbb{Q}$, then $h(x) \in \mathbb{T}$.
Let $x \in \mathbb{A} \cap \mathcal{R}$. Since $|t| \leq 1$, if we assume $h(x)=e^{t} \in \mathbb{Q}$, then $t \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x$ is positive. Thus, there are no algebraic non-positive numbers $x \in \mathbb{A} \cap \mathcal{R}$ such that $h(x)$ is an algebraic number. This shows Theorem 10 and our results can be extended to all algebraic numbers $A \in \mathbb{A} \cap \mathcal{R}$ such that $h(A)$ converges.

Next, we consider the case $x=\alpha^{\beta}$, where both $\alpha \neq 1$ and $\beta$ are real algebraic numbers. Since if $\beta$ is rational then $x$ becomes algebraic, this is one of the generalizations of our results. From Theorem 26, if $\beta=\frac{t e^{-t}}{\log \alpha}$ with $-1 \leq t \leq 1$, then the sequence (1) converges to $e^{t}$. In the following, we specify the form of $t$.
Lemma 28. Let $\alpha \neq 1, \beta$ be real algebraic numbers. For $\alpha^{\beta} \in \mathcal{R}$, we have $\beta h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right) \notin \mathbb{Q}$ if and only if $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right) \in \mathbb{T}$.
Proof. Since we assume $\beta$ is algebraic, if $\beta h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right)$ is a transcendental number then $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right) \in \mathbb{T}$. In the following, we assume $\beta h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right) \in \mathbb{A} \backslash \mathbb{Q}$. From Theorem 1, it follows that $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right)=\alpha^{\beta h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right)}$ is transcendental. This proves the lemma.

Assume that $\alpha^{\beta} \in\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$ with $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right)$ being algebraic. Then we have $\alpha^{\beta}=e^{t e^{-t}}$, that is, $\beta=\frac{t e^{-t}}{\log \alpha}$ for some $-1 \leq t \leq 1$ as in Theorem 26. Lemma 28 shows that $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right)$ is algebraic if and only if

$$
\beta h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right)=\frac{t}{\log \alpha} \in \mathbb{Q} .
$$

Therefore, there exists an $a \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that $t=\log \alpha^{a}$. One can check easily that $\log \alpha^{a}$ is transcendental by the Lindemann theorem, so $\log \alpha^{a}$ is not a root of unity. Thus, $|t|<1$, that is,

$$
-|\log \alpha|^{-1}<a<|\log \alpha|^{-1}
$$

We record it as a lemma.
Lemma 29. Let $\alpha \neq 1, \beta$ be real algebraic numbers with $\alpha^{\beta} \in \mathcal{R}$. Then the followings hold.

1. If $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right) \in \mathbb{A}$ then $\beta=\frac{a}{\alpha^{a}}$, where $a \in \mathbb{Q} \cap\left(-|\log \alpha|^{-1},|\log \alpha|^{-1}\right)$.
2. If there exists $a \in \mathbb{Q} \cap\left(-|\log \alpha|^{-1},|\log \alpha|^{-1}\right)$ such that $\beta=\frac{a}{\alpha^{a}}$, then $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right)=\alpha^{a}$.

Lemma 29 implies the following theorem.
Theorem 30. Let $\alpha \neq 1, \beta$ be real algebraic numbers with $\alpha^{\beta} \in \mathcal{R}$. If only one of $\operatorname{ord}(\alpha)$ and $\operatorname{ord}(\beta)$ is infinity then $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right)$ is a transcendental number.
Proof. It suffices to show that when $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right) \in \mathbb{A}$, the order of $\alpha$ is infinity if and only if the order of $\beta$ is so. First, we assume $\operatorname{ord}(\alpha)=k<\infty$ and $\operatorname{ord}(\beta)=\infty$. If $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right) \in \mathbb{A}$ then Lemma 29 implies that there exists a rational number $a=\frac{a_{1}}{a_{2}}$ such that $\beta=\frac{a}{\alpha^{a}}$. Since $\operatorname{ord}(\alpha)=k, \beta^{a_{2} k}=\frac{a^{a_{2} k}}{\alpha^{a_{1} k}}$ is a rational number. This contradicts to $\operatorname{ord}(\beta)=\infty$.

Next we assume ord $(\alpha)=\infty$ and $\operatorname{ord}(\beta)=k<\infty$. As in the above, if $h\left(\alpha^{\beta}\right) \in \mathbb{A}$ then $\beta=\frac{a}{\alpha^{a}}$, that is, $\alpha=\left(\frac{a}{\beta}\right)^{\frac{1}{a}}$ for some rational number $a=\frac{a_{1}}{a_{2}}$. Then we have $\alpha^{a_{1} k}=\left(\frac{a^{k}}{\beta^{k}}\right)^{a_{2}}$ is rational, but this contradicts to $\operatorname{ord}(\alpha)=\infty$. This proves the theorem.

## A Transcendence of $h(1 / \sqrt[n]{n})$

We have not yet mentioned an example of $A \in \mathbb{A} \backslash \mathbb{Q}$ with $\operatorname{ord}(A)<\infty$ such that $h(A)$ is transcendental. This appendix gives such an example.

Proposition 31. For every $n \geq 2$, the limit $h(1 / \sqrt[n]{n})$ is transcendental.
Remark 32. Let $f(x)=x^{x}$ on ( 0,1 ). From the logarithmic derivative, $f^{\prime}(x)=x^{x}(\log x+1)$ holds. Therefore $f\left(e^{-1}\right)=e^{-1 / e}$ is the minimum value of $f$ on $(0,1)$. It follows that $e^{-1 / e} \leq$ $f(x) \leq 1$, which implies that $h(f(x))$ is convergent for every $x \in(0,1)$. Hence $h\left((1 / n)^{1 / n}\right)$ can be defined for all $n \geq 2$.

Proof of Proposition 31. Fix $n \geq 2$. From Lemma 13, it is sufficient to show that $h(1 / \sqrt[n]{n})$ is not rational. Thus we assume that $h(1 / \sqrt[n]{n})$ is rational. It can be written as $h(1 / \sqrt[n]{n})=a / b$ for some relatively prime positive integers $a, b$. From (2), it follows that

$$
\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{\frac{b}{a}}=\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^{\frac{1}{n}}
$$

which implies that $a^{b n}=1$ and $b^{b n}=n^{a}$. Thus $a=1$ holds. Since $n \neq 1$, we have $b \neq 1$. Therefore it is obtained that

$$
n<2^{n}<2^{2 n} \leq b^{b n}=n
$$

This is a contradiction.
It is well known that $h(\sqrt{2})=2$. Indeed we see that $\sqrt{2} \in\left[e^{-e}, e^{1 / e}\right]$ from the calculation, and $h(\sqrt{2})^{1 / h(\sqrt{2})}=\sqrt{2}$. Here $2^{1 / 2}=\sqrt{2}$ also holds. Therefore we have $h(\sqrt{2})=2$ from Lemma 14. On the other hand, $h(1 / \sqrt{2})$ is transcendental from Proposition 31 with $n=2$.

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