## On the order of unimodular matrices modulo integers

by

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**1. Introduction.** Given an integer b and a prime p such that  $p \nmid b$ , let  $\operatorname{ord}_p(b)$  be the multiplicative order of b modulo p. In other words,  $\operatorname{ord}_p(b)$  is the smallest nonnegative integer k such that  $b^k \equiv 1 \mod p$ . Clearly  $\operatorname{ord}_p(b) \leq p-1$ , and if the order is maximal, b is said to be a primitive root modulo p. Artin conjectured (see the preface in [1]) that if  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  is not a square, then b is a primitive root for a positive proportion (1) of the primes.

What about the "typical" behaviour of  $\operatorname{ord}_p(b)$ ? For instance, are there good lower bounds on  $\operatorname{ord}_p(b)$  that hold for a full density subset of the primes? In [3], Erdős and Murty proved that if  $b \neq 0, \pm 1$ , then there exists a  $\delta > 0$  so that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(b)$  is at least  $p^{1/2} \exp((\log p)^{\delta})$  for a full density subset of the primes (2). However, we expect the typical order to be much larger. In [6] Hooley proved that the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH) implies Artin's conjecture. Moreover, if  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$  is an increasing function tending to infinity, Erdős and Murty [3] showed that GRH implies that the order of b modulo p is greater than p/f(p) for a full density subset of the primes.

It is also interesting to consider lower bounds for  $\operatorname{ord}_N(b)$  where N is an integer. It is easy to see that  $\operatorname{ord}_N(b)$  can be as small as  $\log N$  infinitely often (take  $N=b^k-1$ ), but we expect the typical order to be quite large. Assuming GRH, we can prove that the lower bound  $\operatorname{ord}_N(b) \gg N^{1-\varepsilon}$  holds for most integers.

THEOREM 1. Let  $b \neq 0, \pm 1$  be an integer. Assuming GRH, the number of  $N \leq x$  such that  $\operatorname{ord}_N(b) \ll N^{1-\varepsilon}$  is o(x). That is, the set of integers N such that  $\operatorname{ord}_N(b) \gg N^{1-\varepsilon}$  has density one.

However, the main focus of this paper is to investigate a related question, namely lower bounds on the order of unimodular matrices modulo  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

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<sup>(1)</sup> The constant is given by an Euler product that depends on b.

<sup>(</sup>²) Pappalardi has shown [9] that  $\delta$  can be taken to be approximately 0.15.

That is, if  $A \in SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$ , what can be said about lower bounds for  $\operatorname{ord}_N(A)$ , the order of A modulo N, that hold for most N? It is a natural generalization of the previous questions, but our main motivation comes from mathematical physics (quantum chaos): In [7] Rudnick and I proved that if A is hyperbolic (3), then a strong form of quantum ergodicity for toral automorphisms follows from  $\operatorname{ord}_N(A)$  being slightly larger than  $N^{1/2}$ , and we then showed that this condition holds for a full density subset of the integers (4). Again, we expect that the typical order is much larger. In order to give lower bounds on  $\operatorname{ord}_N(A)$ , it is essential to have good lower bounds on  $\operatorname{ord}_p(A)$  for p prime:

THEOREM 2. Let  $A \in \operatorname{SL}_2(\mathbb{Z})$  be hyperbolic, and let  $f : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$  be an increasing function tending to infinity more slowly than  $\log x$ . Assuming GRH, there are at most  $O\left(\frac{x}{f(x)^{1-\varepsilon}\log x}\right)$  primes  $p \le x$  such that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(A) < p/f(p)$ . In particular, the set of primes p such that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(A) \ge p/f(p)$  has density one.

Using this we obtain an improved lower bound on  $\operatorname{ord}_N(A)$  that is valid for most integers.

THEOREM 3. Let  $A \in SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$  be hyperbolic. Assuming GRH, the number of  $N \leq x$  such that  $\operatorname{ord}_N(A) \ll N^{1-\varepsilon}$  is o(x). That is, the set of integers N such that  $\operatorname{ord}_N(A) \gg N^{1-\varepsilon}$  has density one.

REMARKS. If A is elliptic ( $|\operatorname{tr}(A)| < 2$ ) then A has finite order (in fact, at most 6). If A is parabolic ( $|\operatorname{tr}(A)| = 2$ ), then  $\operatorname{ord}_p(A) = p$  unless A is congruent to the identity matrix modulo p, and hence there exists a constant  $c_A > 0$  so that  $\operatorname{ord}_N(A) > c_A N$ . Apart from the application in mind, it is thus natural to only treat the hyperbolic case.

As far as unconditional results for primes go, we note that the proof in [3] relies entirely on analyzing the divisor structure of p-1, and we expect that their method should give a similar lower bound on the order of A modulo p. An unconditional lower bound of the form

(1) 
$$\operatorname{ord}_{p}(b) \gg p^{\eta}$$

for a full proportion of the primes and  $\eta > 1/2$  would be quite interesting. In this direction, Goldfeld [5] proved that if  $\eta < 3/5$ , then (1) holds for a positive, but not full, proportion of the primes.

Clearly  $\operatorname{ord}_p(A)$  is related to  $\operatorname{ord}_p(\varepsilon)$ , where  $\varepsilon$  is one of the eigenvalues of A. Since A is assumed to be hyperbolic,  $\varepsilon$  is a power of a fundamental unit in a real quadratic field. The question of densities of primes p such

<sup>(3)</sup> A is hyperbolic if |tr(A)| > 2.

<sup>(4)</sup> More precisely: there exists  $\delta > 0$  so that  $\operatorname{ord}_N(A) \gg N^{1/2} \exp((\log N)^{\delta})$  for a full density subset of the integers.

that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(\lambda)$  is maximal, for  $\lambda$  a fundamental unit in a real quadratic field, does not seem to have received much attention until quite recently; in [10] Roskam proved that GRH implies that the set of primes p for which  $\operatorname{ord}_p(\lambda)$  is maximal has positive density. (The work of Weinberger [12], Cooke and Weinberger [2] and Lenstra [8] does treat the case  $\operatorname{ord}_p(\lambda) = p - 1$ , but not the case  $\operatorname{ord}_p(\lambda) = p + 1$ .)

## 2. Preliminaries

**2.1.** Notation. If  $\mathfrak{O}_F$  is the ring of integers in a number field F, we let  $\zeta_F(s) = \sum_{\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathfrak{O}_F} N(\mathfrak{a})^{-s}$  denote the zeta function of F. By GRH we mean that all nontrivial zeros of  $\zeta_F(s)$  lie on the line Re(s) = 1/2 for all number fields F.

Let  $\varepsilon$  be an eigenvalue of A, satisfying the equation

(2) 
$$\varepsilon^2 - \operatorname{tr}(A)\varepsilon + \det(A) = 0.$$

Since A is hyperbolic,  $K=\mathbb{Q}(\varepsilon)$  is a real quadratic field. Let  $\mathfrak{O}_K$  be the integers in K, and let  $D_K$  be the discriminant of K. Since A has determinant one,  $\varepsilon$  is a unit in  $\mathfrak{O}_K$ . For  $n\in\mathbb{Z}^+$  we let  $\zeta_n=e^{2\pi i/n}$  be a primitive nth root of unity, and  $\alpha_n=\varepsilon^{1/n}$  be an nth root of  $\varepsilon$ . Further, with  $Z_n=K(\zeta_n)$ ,  $K_n=K(\zeta_n,\alpha_n)$ , and  $L_n=K(\alpha_n)$ , we let  $\sigma_p$  denote the Frobenius element in  $\mathrm{Gal}(K_n/\mathbb{Q})$  associated with p. We let  $F_{p^k}$  denote the finite field with  $p^k$  elements, and we let  $F_{p^2}^1\subset F_{p^2}^\times$  be the norm one elements in  $F_{p^2}$ , i.e., the kernel of the norm map from  $F_{p^2}^\times$  to  $F_p^\times$ . Let  $\langle A\rangle_p$  be the group generated by A in  $\mathrm{SL}_2(F_p)$ . Then  $\langle A\rangle_p$  is contained in a maximal torus (of order p-1 or p+1), and we let  $i_p$  be the index of  $\langle A\rangle_p$  in this torus. Finally, let  $\pi(x)=|\{p\leq x: p \text{ is prime}\}|$  be the number of primes up to x.

**2.2.** Kummer extensions and Frobenius elements. We want to characterize primes p such that  $n \mid i_p$ , and we can relate this to primes splitting in certain Galois extensions as follows:

Reduce equation (2) modulo p and let  $\overline{\varepsilon}$  denote a solution to equation (2) in  $F_p$  or  $F_{p^2}$ . (Note that if p does not ramify in K then the order of A modulo p equals the order of  $\varepsilon$  modulo p.) If p splits in K then  $\overline{\varepsilon} \in F_p$ , and if p is inert, then  $\overline{\varepsilon} \in F_{p^2} \setminus F_p$ . In the latter case,  $\overline{\varepsilon} \in F_{p^2}^1$  since the norm one property is preserved when reducing modulo p. Now,  $F_p^{\times}$  and  $F_{p^2}^1$  are cyclic groups of order p-1 and p+1 respectively. Thus, if p splits in K then  $\operatorname{ord}_p(\varepsilon) \mid p-1$ , whereas if p is inert in K then  $\operatorname{ord}_p(\varepsilon) \mid p+1$ .

LEMMA 4. Let p be unramified in  $K_n$ , and let  $C_n = \{1, \gamma\} \subset \operatorname{Gal}(K_n/\mathbb{Q})$ , where  $\gamma$  is given by  $\gamma(\zeta_n) = \zeta_n^{-1}$  and  $\gamma(\alpha_n) = \alpha_n^{-1}$ . Then the condition that  $n \mid i_p$  is equivalent to  $\sigma_p \in C_n$ . Moreover,  $C_n$  is invariant under conjugation.

*Proof.* The split case: Since  $n \mid i_p$  and  $i_p \mid p-1$  we have  $\zeta_n \in F_p$ , i.e.  $F_p$  contains all nth roots of unity. Moreover,  $\overline{\varepsilon}$  is an nth power of some element in  $F_p$ , and thus the polynomial  $x^n - \varepsilon$  splits completely in  $F_p$ . In other words, p splits completely in  $K_n$  and  $\sigma_p$  is trivial.

The inert case: Since n divides  $i_p$ ,  $\overline{\varepsilon}$  is an nth power of some element in  $F_{p^2}^1$  and hence  $\alpha_n \in F_{p^2}$ . Moreover,  $n \mid p^2 - 1$  implies that  $\zeta_n \in F_{p^2}$ . Now,  $N_F^{F_{p^2}}(\alpha_n) = 1$  and  $N_F^{F_{p^2}}(\zeta_n) = \zeta_n^{p+1} = 1$  implies that

$$\sigma_p(\zeta_n) \equiv \zeta_n^{-1} \mod p, \quad \sigma_p(\alpha_n) \equiv \alpha_n^{-1} \mod p.$$

For p that does not ramify in  $K_n$  we thus have

(3) 
$$\sigma_p(\zeta_n) = \zeta_n^{-1}, \quad \sigma_p(\alpha_n) = \alpha_n^{-1}.$$

Now, an element  $\tau \in \operatorname{Gal}(K_n/\mathbb{Q})$  is of the form

$$\tau: \begin{cases} \zeta_n \mapsto \zeta_n^t, & t \in \mathbb{Z}, \\ \alpha_n \mapsto \alpha_n^u \zeta_n^s, & s \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad u \in \{1, -1\}. \end{cases}$$

Composing  $\gamma$  and  $\tau$  then gives

$$\tau \circ \gamma : \begin{cases} \zeta_n \mapsto \zeta_n^{-1} \mapsto \zeta_n^{-t}, \\ \alpha_n \mapsto \alpha_n^{-1} \mapsto \alpha_n^{-u} \zeta_n^{-s}, \end{cases}$$

and

$$\gamma \circ \tau : \begin{cases} \zeta_n \mapsto \zeta_n^t \mapsto \zeta_n^{-t}, \\ \alpha_n \mapsto \alpha_n^u \zeta_n^s \mapsto \alpha_n^{-u} \zeta_n^{-s}, \end{cases}$$

which shows that  $\gamma$  is invariant under conjugation.

**2.3.** The Chebotarev Density Theorem. In [11] Serre proved that the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis (GRH) implies the following version of the Chebotarev Density Theorem:

THEOREM 5. Let  $E/\mathbb{Q}$  be a finite Galois extension of degree  $[E:\mathbb{Q}]$  and discriminant  $D_E$ . For p a prime let  $\sigma_p \in G = \operatorname{Gal}(E/\mathbb{Q})$  denote the Frobenius conjugacy class, and let  $C \subset G$  be a union of conjugacy classes. If the nontrivial zeros of  $\zeta_E(s)$  lie on the line  $\operatorname{Re}(s) = 1/2$ , then for  $x \geq 2$ ,

$$|\{p \le x : \sigma_p \in C\}| = \frac{|C|}{|G|} \pi(x) + O\left(\frac{|C|}{|G|} x^{1/2} (\log D_E + [E : \mathbb{Q}] \log x)\right).$$

Now, primes that ramify in  $K_n$  divide  $nD_K$  (see Lemma 10), so as far as densities are concerned, ramified primes can be ignored. The bounds on the size of  $D_{K_n}$  (see Lemma 10) and Lemma 4 then give the following:

COROLLARY 6. If GRH is true then

(4) 
$$|\{p \le x : n \mid i_p\}| = \frac{2}{[K_n : \mathbb{Q}]} \pi(x) + O(x^{1/2}(\log(xn))).$$

REMARK. For Theorems 2 and 3 to be true, it is enough to assume that the Riemann hypothesis holds for all  $\zeta_{K_n}$ , n > 1.

**2.3.1.** Bounds on degrees. In order to apply the Chebotarev Density Theorem we need bounds on the degree  $[K_n : \mathbb{Q}]$ . We will first assume that  $\varepsilon$  is a fundamental unit.

LEMMA 7. If  $\varepsilon$  is a fundamental unit in K and if n=4 or n=q for q an odd prime, then  $Gal(K_n/K)$  is nonabelian.

*Proof.* We start by showing that  $[K_n:Z_n]=n$ . Consider first the case n=q. If  $\alpha_q\in Z_q$  then  $\beta=N_K^{Z_q}(\alpha_q)=\alpha_q^{[Z_q:K]}\zeta_q^t\in K\subset \mathbb{R}$  for some integer t. Since q is odd we may assume that  $\alpha_q\in \mathbb{R}$ , and this forces  $\zeta_q^t=1$ , which in turn implies that  $\alpha_q^{[Z_q:K]}\in K$ . Because  $\varepsilon$  is a fundamental unit this means that  $q\mid [Z_q:K]$ . On the other hand,  $[Z_q:K]\mid \phi(q)$ , a contradiction. Thus  $\alpha_q\not\in Z_q$ , and hence  $K_q/Z_q$  is a Kummer extension of degree q.

For n=4 we note that  $i \in Z_4 = K(i)$ . Thus  $\alpha_2 = \sqrt{\varepsilon} \in Z_4$  implies that  $\sqrt{-\varepsilon} \in Z_4$ . However, either  $\sqrt{\varepsilon}$  or  $\sqrt{-\varepsilon}$  is real and generates a *real* degree two extension of K, whereas K(i) is a nonreal quadratic extension of K, and hence  $\alpha_2 \notin Z_4$ . Now, if  $\alpha_4 \in Z_4(\alpha_2)$  then  $N_{Z_4}^{Z_4(\alpha_2)}(\alpha_4) = \alpha_4^2 i^t \in Z_4$  for some  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and thus  $\alpha_4^2 = \alpha_2 \in Z_4$ , which contradicts  $\alpha_2 \notin Z_4$ . Therefore,

$$[Z_4(\alpha_4):Z_4] = [Z_4(\alpha_4):Z_4(\alpha_2)][Z_4(\alpha_2):Z_4] = 4.$$

Finally, we note that the commutator of any nontrivial element  $\sigma_1 \in \operatorname{Gal}(K_n/Z_n)$  with any nontrivial element  $\sigma_2 \in \operatorname{Gal}(K_n/L_n)$  is nontrivial (we may regard  $\operatorname{Gal}(K_n/Z_n)$  and  $\operatorname{Gal}(K_n/L_n)$  as subgroups of  $\operatorname{Gal}(K_n/K)$ ). Hence  $\operatorname{Gal}(K_n/K)$  is nonabelian.  $\blacksquare$ 

Lemma 8. If  $\varepsilon$  is a fundamental unit then

$$[K_n: Z_n] \ge n/2.$$

*Proof.* Clearly  $Z_n(\alpha_{q^k}) \subset K_n$ , and since field extensions of relative prime degrees are disjoint, it is enough to show that if  $q^k \parallel n$  is a prime power then  $q^k \mid [Z_n(\alpha_{q^k}) : Z_n]$  if q is odd, and  $q^{k-1} \mid [Z_n(\alpha_{q^k}) : Z_n]$  if q = 2.

If q is odd then Lemma 7 implies that  $\alpha_q \notin Z_n$  since  $\operatorname{Gal}(Z_n/K)$  is abelian. Hence, if  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\alpha_{q^k}^m \in Z_n$ , we must have  $q^k \mid m$ . Now, if  $\sigma \in \operatorname{Gal}(Z_n(\alpha_{q^k})/Z_n)$  then  $\sigma(\alpha_{q^k}) = \alpha_{q^k} \zeta_{q^k}^{t_\sigma}$  for some integer  $t_\sigma$ . Thus there exists an integer t such that

$$\beta = N_{Z_n}^{Z_n(\alpha_{q^k})}(\alpha_{q^k}) = \alpha_{q^k}^{[Z_n(\alpha_{q^k}):Z_n]} \zeta_q^t \in Z_n.$$

Multiplying  $\beta$  by  $\zeta_q^{-t} \in Z_n$  we find that  $\alpha_{q^k}^{[Z_n(\alpha_{q^k}):Z_n]} \in Z_n$ , and hence  $q^k \mid [Z_n(\alpha_{q^k}):Z_n]$ .

For q=2 the proof is similar, except that a factor of two is lost if  $\alpha_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

REMARK.  $K_2/\mathbb{Q}$  is a Galois extension of degree four, hence abelian and therefore contained in some cyclotomic extension by the Kronecker–Weber Theorem, and it is thus possible that  $\alpha_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  for some values of n.

Lemma 9. We have

$$n\phi(n) \ll_K [K_n : \mathbb{Q}] \le 2n\phi(n).$$

*Proof.* We first observe that  $[Z_n : K]$  equals  $\phi(n)$  or  $\phi(n)/2$  depending on whether  $K \subset \mathbb{Q}(\zeta_n)$  or not. We also have the trivial upper bound  $[K_n : Z_n] \leq n$ .

For a lower bound of  $[K_n: Z_n]$  we argue as follows: Let  $\gamma \in K$  be a fundamental unit. Since the norm of  $\varepsilon$  is one we may write  $\varepsilon = \gamma^k$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . (Note that k does not depend on n.) As  $[Z_n(\gamma^{1/n}): Z_n(\varepsilon^{1/n})] \leq k$ , Lemma 8 gives  $[Z_n(\varepsilon^{1/n}): Z_n] \geq n/k$ . The upper and lower bounds now follow from

$$[K_n:\mathbb{Q}]=[K_n:Z_n][Z_n:K][K:\mathbb{Q}]. \blacksquare$$

**2.3.2.** Bounds on discriminants

LEMMA 10. If p ramifies in  $K_n$  then  $p \mid nD_K$ . Moreover,

$$\log(\operatorname{disc}(K_n/\mathbb{Q})) \ll_K [K_n : K] \log n.$$

*Proof.* First note that

$$\operatorname{disc}(K_n/\mathbb{Q}) = N_{\mathbb{Q}}^K(\operatorname{disc}(K_n/K)) \cdot \operatorname{disc}(K/\mathbb{Q})^{[K_n:K]}.$$

From the multiplicativity of the different we get

$$\operatorname{disc}(K_n/K) = \operatorname{disc}(Z_n/K)^{[K_n:Z_n]} \cdot N_K^{Z_n}(\operatorname{disc}(K_n/Z_n)).$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  is a unit, so is  $\varepsilon^{1/n}$ . Thus, if we let  $f(x) = x^n - \varepsilon$  then  $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$ , and therefore the principal ideal  $f'(\varepsilon^{1/n})\mathfrak{O}_{K_n}$  equals  $n\mathfrak{O}_{K_n}$ . In terms of discriminants this means that

$$\operatorname{disc}(K_n/Z_n) \mid N_{Z_n}^{K_n}(n\mathfrak{O}_{K_n})$$

and similarly it can be shown that

$$\operatorname{disc}(Z_n/K) \mid N_K^{Z_n}(n\mathfrak{O}_{Z_n}).$$

Thus  $\operatorname{disc}(K_n/\mathbb{Q})$  divides

$$N_{\mathbb{Q}}^{K}(N_{K}^{K_{n}}(n\mathfrak{O}_{K_{n}})\cdot N_{K}^{Z_{n}}(n\mathfrak{O}_{Z_{n}})^{[K_{n}:Z_{n}]})\cdot \operatorname{disc}(K/\mathbb{Q})^{[K_{n}:K]}$$

$$= n^{4[K_{n}:K]}\cdot \operatorname{disc}(K/\mathbb{Q})^{[K_{n}:K]},$$

which proves the two assertions.  $\blacksquare$ 

**3. Proof of Theorem 2.** In order to bound the number of primes p < x for which  $i_p > x^{1/2}$  we will need the following lemma:

LEMMA 11. The number of primes p such that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(A) \leq y$  is  $O(y^2)$ .

*Proof.* Given A there exists a constant  $C_A$  such that  $\det(A^n - I) = O(C_A^n)$ . Now, if the order of A modulo p is n, then certainly p divides  $\det(A^n - I) \neq 0$ . Putting  $M = \prod_{n=1}^y \det(A^n - I)$  we see that any prime p for which A has order  $n \leq y$  must divide M. Finally, the number of prime divisors of M is bounded by

$$\log M \ll \sum_{n=1}^{y} n \log C_A \ll y^2. \blacksquare$$

First step: We consider primes p such that  $i_p \in (x^{1/2} \log x, x)$ . By Lemma 11 the number of such primes is

(5) 
$$O\left(\left(\frac{x}{x^{1/2}\log x}\right)^2\right) = O\left(\frac{x}{\log^2 x}\right).$$

Second step: Consider p such that  $q \mid i_p$  for some prime  $q \in \left(\frac{x^{1/2}}{\log^3 x}, x^{1/2} \log x\right)$ . We may bound this by considering primes  $p \leq x$  such that  $p \equiv \pm 1 \bmod q$  for  $q \in \left(\frac{x^{1/2}}{\log^3 x}, x^{1/2} \log x\right)$ . Since  $q \leq x^{1/2} \log x$ , Brun's sieve gives (up to an absolute constant) the bound  $x/(\phi(q) \log x)$ , and the total contribution from these primes is at most

(6) 
$$\sum_{q \in (\frac{x^{1/2}}{\log^3 x}, x^{1/2} \log x)} \frac{x}{\phi(q) \log(x/q)} \ll \frac{x}{\log x} \sum_{q \in (\frac{x^{1/2}}{\log^3 x}, x^{1/2} \log x)} \frac{1}{q}.$$

Now, summing reciprocals of primes in a dyadic interval, we get

$$\sum_{q \in [M, 2M]} \frac{1}{q} \ll \frac{\pi(2M)}{M} \le \frac{1}{\log M}.$$

Hence

$$\sum_{q \in (\frac{x^{1/2}}{\log^3 x}, x^{1/2} \log x)} \frac{1}{q} \ll \frac{1}{\log x} \log_2 \left( \frac{x^{1/2} \log x}{x^{1/2} / \log^3 x} \right) \ll \frac{\log \log x}{\log x}$$

and the right hand side of (6) is  $O(\frac{x \log \log x}{\log^2 x})$ .

Third step: Now consider p such that  $q \mid i_p$  for some prime  $q \in (f(x)^2, \frac{x^{1/2}}{\log^3 x})$ . We are now in the range where GRH is applicable; by Corollary 6 and Lemma 9 we have

$$|\{p \le x : q \mid i_p\}| \ll \frac{x}{q\phi(q)\log x} + O(x^{1/2}\log(xq^2)).$$

Summing over  $q \in (f(x)^2, \frac{x^{1/2}}{\log^3 x})$  we find that the number of such  $p \le x$  is bounded by

(7) 
$$\sum_{q \in (f(x)^2, \frac{x^{1/2}}{\log^3 x})} \left( \frac{x}{q^2 \log x} + O(x^{1/2} \log(xq^2)) \right).$$

Now,

$$\sum_{q \in (f(x)^2, \frac{x^{1/2}}{\log^3 x})} \frac{1}{q^2} \ll \frac{1}{f(x)}$$

and thus (7) is

$$\ll \frac{x}{f(x)\log x} + \frac{x}{\log^2 x}.$$

Fourth step: For the remaining primes p, any prime divisor  $q \mid i_p$  is smaller than  $f(x)^2$ . Hence  $i_p$  must be divisible by some integer  $d \in (f(x), f(x)^3)$ . Again Lemmas 6 and 9 give

$$|\{p \le x : d \mid i_p\}| \ll \frac{x}{d\phi(d) \log x} + O(x^{1/2} \log(xd^2)).$$

Noting that  $\phi(d) \gg d^{1-\varepsilon}$  and summing over  $d \in (f(x), f(x)^3)$  we find that the number of such  $p \leq x$  is bounded by

(8) 
$$\sum_{d \in (f(x), f(x)^3)} \left( \frac{x}{d^{2-\varepsilon} \log x} + O(x^{1/2} \log(xd^2)) \right).$$

Now,

$$\sum_{d \in (f(x), f(x)^3)} \frac{1}{d^{2-\varepsilon}} \ll \frac{1}{f(x)^{1-\varepsilon}}$$

and

$$\sum_{d \in (f(x), f(x)^3)} x^{1/2} \log(xd^2) \ll f(x)^3 x^{1/2} \log(x^2),$$

therefore (8) is

$$\ll \frac{x}{f(x)^{1-\varepsilon}\log x}.$$

**4. Proof of Theorems 1 and 3.** Given a composite integer  $N = \prod_{p|N} p^{a_p}$  we wish to use the lower bounds on  $\operatorname{ord}_p(b)$  (or  $\operatorname{ord}_p(A)$ ) to obtain a lower bound on  $\operatorname{ord}_N(b)$ . The main obstacle is that  $\operatorname{ord}_N(b)$  can be much smaller than  $\prod_{p|N} \operatorname{ord}_{p^{a_p}}(b)$ . Let  $\lambda(N)$  be the Carmichael lambda function, i.e., the exponent of the multiplicative group  $(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^{\times}$ . Clearly  $\operatorname{ord}_N(b) \leq \lambda(N)$ , and it turns out that  $\lambda(N)$  can be much smaller than N. However,

 $\lambda(N) \gg N^{1-\varepsilon}$  for most N (see [4]), and since

$$\operatorname{ord}_N(b) \ge \frac{\lambda(N)}{N} \prod_{p|N} \operatorname{ord}_p(b)$$

it suffices to show that most integers are essentially given by a product of primes p such that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(b) \geq p/\log p$ . We will only give the details for Theorem 3 since the other case is very similar.

If p is prime such that  $\operatorname{ord}_p(A) \leq p/\log p$ , or p ramifies in K, we say that p is "bad". We let  $P_B$  denote the set of all bad primes, and we let  $P_B(z)$  be the set of primes  $p \in P_B$  such that  $p \geq z$ . Since only finitely many primes ramify in K, Theorem 2 implies that the number of bad primes  $p \leq x$  is  $O(x/\log^{2-\varepsilon} x)$ . A key observation is the following:

Lemma 12. We have

$$\sum_{p \in P_{\mathcal{P}}} \frac{1}{p} < \infty.$$

In particular, if we let

$$\beta(z) = \sum_{p \in P_B(z)} 1/p,$$

then  $\beta(z)$  tends to zero as z tends to infinity.

*Proof.* Immediate from partial summation and the  $O(x/\log^{2-\varepsilon} x)$  estimate in Theorem 2.  $\blacksquare$ 

Given  $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ , write  $N = s^2 N_G N_B$  where  $N_G N_B$  is square-free and  $N_B$  is the product of "bad" primes dividing N. By the following lemma, we find that few integers have a large square factor:

Lemma 13. We have

$$|\{N \le x : s^2 \mid N, \ s \ge y\}| = O(x/y).$$

*Proof.* The number of  $N \leq x$  such that  $s^2 \mid N$  for  $s \geq y$  is bounded by  $\sum_{s \geq y} x/s^2 \ll x/y$ .

Next we show that there are few N for which  $N_B$  is divisible by  $p \in P_B(z)$ . In other words, for most N,  $N_B$  is a product of small "bad" primes.

LEMMA 14. The number of  $N \leq x$  such that  $p \in P_B(z)$  divides  $N_B$  is  $O(x\beta(z))$ .

*Proof.* Let  $p \in P_B(z)$ . The number of  $N \leq x$  such that  $p \mid N$  is less than x/p. Thus, the total number of  $N \leq x$  such that some  $p \in P_B(z)$  divides N, is bounded by

$$\sum_{p \in P_B(z)} \frac{x}{p} = x \sum_{p \in P_B(z)} \frac{1}{p} = x\beta(z). \blacksquare$$

Combining the previous results we find that the number of  $N = s^2 N_G N_B \le x$  such that  $N_B$  is z-smooth and  $s \le y$  is

$$x(1 + O(\beta(z) + 1/y)).$$

For such N we have  $N_B \leq \prod_{p \leq z} p \ll e^z$ . Letting  $z = \log \log x$  and  $y = \log x$  we get

 $N_G = \frac{N}{s^2 N_B} \ge \frac{N}{\log^3 x}$ 

for  $N \leq x$  with at most  $O(x(\beta(\log \log x) + (\log x)^{-1})) = o(x)$  exceptions. Now, the following proposition shows that, for most N,  $\operatorname{ord}_N(A)$  is essentially given by  $\prod_{p|N} \operatorname{ord}_p(A)$ .

PROPOSITION ([7, Proposition 11]). Let  $D_A = 4(\operatorname{tr}(A)^2 - 4)$ . For almost all (5)  $N \leq x$ ,

$$\operatorname{ord}_N(A) \ge \frac{\prod_{p|d_0} \operatorname{ord}_p(A)}{\exp(3(\log\log x)^4)}$$

where  $d_0$  is given by writing  $N = ds^2$ , with  $d = d_0 \gcd(d, D_A)$  square-free.

Finally, since  $\operatorname{ord}_p(A) \geq p/\log p \geq p^{1-\varepsilon}$  for  $p \mid N_G$  and p sufficiently large, we find that

$$\operatorname{ord}_{N}(A) \gg \frac{\prod_{p|N_{G}} \operatorname{ord}_{p}(A)}{\exp(3(\log \log x)^{4})} \gg \frac{N_{G}^{1-\varepsilon}}{\exp(3(\log \log x)^{4})} \gg N^{1-2\varepsilon}$$

for all but o(x) integers  $N \leq x$ .

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<sup>(5)</sup> By "for almost all  $N \leq x$ " we mean that there are o(x) exceptional integers N that are smaller than x.

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