The Cubic Mapping Graph of the Residue Classes of Integers

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Abstract

In this paper, we study the connection of number theory with graph theory via investigating some uncharted properties of the directed graph $\Gamma(n)$ whose vertex set is $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$, and for which there is a directed edge from $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ to $b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ if and only if $a^3 \equiv b \pmod{n}$. For an arbitrary prime p, the formula for the decomposition of the graph $\Gamma(p)$ is established. We specify two subgraph $\Gamma_1(n)$ and $\Gamma_2(n)$ of $\Gamma(n)$. Let $\Gamma_1(n)$ be induced by the vertices which are coprime to n and $\Gamma_2(n)$ by induced by the set of vertices which are not coprime to n. We determine the level of every component of $\Gamma_1(n)$, and establish necessary and sufficient conditions when $\Gamma_1(n)$ or $\Gamma_2(n)$ has no cycles with length greater than 1, respectively. Moreover, the conditions for the semiregularity of $\Gamma_2(n)$ are presented.

Keywords: Cubic mapping graph, Carmichael λ -function, Chinese remainder theorem, Component of a graph

Mathematics Subject Classification: 05C05; 11A07;13M05.

1 Introduction

In this paper, we investigate some uncharted properties of the directed graph $\Gamma(n)$, whose vertex set is all the elements of $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$, the ring of integers modulo n, and for which there is a directed edge from $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ to $b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ if and only if $a^3 \equiv b \pmod{n}$. This graph $\Gamma(n)$ is called

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the cubic mapping graph of \mathbb{Z}_n and some properties of $\Gamma(n)$ were studied in [5] and [6]. Our study is motivated by some results of [4] and [7].

For n > 1, let $U(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ denote the unit group of \mathbb{Z}_n , $D(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ the zerodivisor set of \mathbb{Z}_n . For $b \in U(\mathbb{Z}_n)$, $\operatorname{ord}_n b$ denotes the multiplicative order of b modulo n. We specify two particular directed subgraphs $\Gamma_1(n)$ and $\Gamma_2(n)$ of $\Gamma(n)$, i.e., $\Gamma_1(n)$ is induced by all the vertices of $U(\mathbb{Z}_n)$, and $\Gamma_2(n)$ is induced by all the vertices of $D(\mathbb{Z}_n)$.

Let G be a finite abelian group of order $p_1^{t_1} \cdots p_m^{t_m}$, where p_1, \ldots, p_m are distinct primes and t_1, \ldots, t_m are positive integers. Then we can write $G = G_1 \times \cdots \times G_m$ with G_i is a group of order $p_i^{t_i}$ for $i = 1, \ldots, m$. Let g be an element of the group G, then we can write $g = (g_1, \ldots, g_m)$ where $g_i \in G_i$.

In $\Gamma(n)$, if a_1, \ldots, a_t are pairwise distinct vertices and $a_1^3 \equiv a_2 \pmod{n}$, $\ldots, a_{t-1}^3 \equiv a_t \pmod{n}$, $a_t^3 \equiv a_1 \pmod{n}$, then the elements a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_t constitute a cycle of length t, and such a cycle is called a t-cycle. Cycles are assumed to be oriented counterclockwise. It is obvious that α is a vertex of a t-cycle if and only if t is the least positive integer such that $\alpha^{3^t} \equiv \alpha \pmod{n}$. Let $A_t(\Gamma(n))$ and $A_t(\Gamma_1(n))$, $A_t(\Gamma_2(n))$ denote the number of t-cycles in $\Gamma(n)$ and $\Gamma_1(n)$, $\Gamma_2(n)$, respectively.

A component of $\Gamma(n)$ is a directed subgraph which is a maximal connected subgraph of the associated undirected graph of $\Gamma(n)$. The vertex set of $\Gamma(n)$ is denoted by $V(\Gamma(n))$. Suppose $\alpha \in V(\Gamma(n))$, if $\alpha^3 \equiv \alpha \pmod{n}$, then α is called a *fixed point*. For $\alpha \in V(\Gamma(n))$, let us denote $indeg(\alpha)$ the number of directed edges coming into α . If the in-degree $indeg(\alpha)$ of a fixed point α is equal to 1, then α is called an *isolated fixed point*. Clearly the number of components of $\Gamma(n)$ is equal to the number of all cycles in $\Gamma(n)$.

A vertex α of $\Gamma(n)$ is said to be at level k ($k \ge 1$), if there exists a directed path of maximum length k which terminates at α and contains no directed edge belonging to a cycle. If α is a vertex of a cycle, then we will call the vertex α to be at level 0. If the highest level of all vertices in a component is k, then we say that this component has level k+1.

Similarly, we can also assign to a cyclic group C_n of order n a cubic mapping graph whose vertex set is all the elements in C_n and for which there is a directed edge from $g \in C_n$ to $h \in C_n$ if and only if $g^3 = h$, and such a graph will be denoted by $\Gamma_c(n)$.

2 The cubic mapping graphs of cyclic groups

Theorem 2.1. Let C_n denote the cyclic group of order n.

(1) Suppose $n = 3^k$, $k \ge 1$. Then $\Gamma_c(n)$ is a ternary tree of height k with the root in 1 (for example, see Fig.1).

(2) Suppose $3 \nmid n$. Then $\Gamma_c(n)$ is the disjoint union

$$\Gamma_c(n) = \bigcup_{d \mid n} \underbrace{(\sigma(\operatorname{ord}_d 3) \cup \cdots \cup \sigma(\operatorname{ord}_d 3))}_{\varphi(d)/\operatorname{ord}_d 3}$$

where $\sigma(l)$ is the cycle of length l, $\varphi(d)$ is Euler totient function (for example, see Fig.2).

(3) Suppose $n = 3^k m$, $k \ge 1$, m > 1, $3 \nmid m$. Then

$$\Gamma_c(n) = \bigcup_{d|m} \underbrace{(\sigma(\operatorname{ord}_d 3, k) \cup \cdots \cup \sigma(\operatorname{ord}_d 3, k))}_{\varphi(d)/\operatorname{ord}_d 3}$$

where $\sigma(l,k)$ consists of a cycle of length l with a copy of the ternary tree of height k attached to each vertex (for example, see Fig.3).

- **Proof.** (1) Suppose that C_{3^k} is generated by a, i.e., $C_{3^k} = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{3^k} = 1$. First, for $b \in C_{3^k}$, it is obvious that the order of b is a power of 3. Hence, there exists a positive integer d such that $b^{3^d} = 1$. So $\Gamma_c(n)$ has exactly a component. On the other hand, it is not difficult to check that for $b \in C_{3^k}$, the number of solutions in C_{3^k} of $x^3 = b$ is 0 or 3. Therefore, we easily see that $\Gamma_c(n)$ is a ternary tree of height k with the root in 1.
- (2) Let $C_n = \bigcup_{d|n} G_d$, where G_d is the set of elements with order d in C_n . Since $3 \nmid n$, we have $3 \nmid d$ and $\operatorname{ord}_d 3 \geqslant 1$ for d|n. So for $g \in G_d$, $\operatorname{ord}_d 3$ is the least positive integer such that $g^{3^{\operatorname{ord}_d 3}} = g$. This implies that each G_d is the disjoint union of cycles of length $\operatorname{ord}_d 3$. Moreover, by $|G_d| = \varphi(d)$ we have the formula.
- (3) Since $3 \nmid m$, $C_n = C_{3^k} \times C_m$. Let $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$ be a vertex of a t-cycle in $\Gamma_c(n)$, where $\alpha_1 \in C_{3^k}$ and $\alpha_2 \in C_m$. Obviously, t is the least positive integer such that $\alpha^{3^i} = \alpha$, so $\alpha_i^{3^i} = \alpha_i$ for i = 1, 2. By the argument of (1), we have $\alpha_1 = 1$, and indeg(1) = 3 in $\Gamma_c(3^k)$. By (2), $indeg(\alpha_2) = 1$ in $\Gamma_c(m)$. So $indeg(\alpha) = 3 \times 1 = 3$ in $\Gamma_c(n)$. By the similar argument in (1), we have the formula.

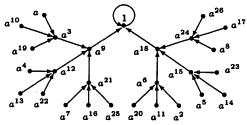


Fig.1. The cubic mapping graph of cyclic group $C_{27} = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{27} = 1$.

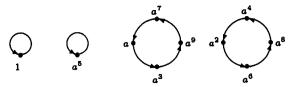


Fig.2. The cubic mapping graph of cyclic group $C_{10} = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{10} = 1$.

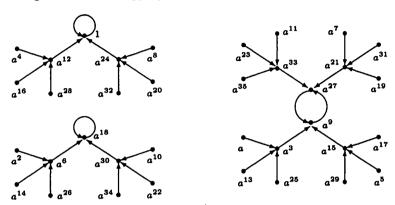


Fig.3. The cubic mapping graph of cyclic group $C_{36} = \langle a \rangle$, $a^{36} = 1$.

3 Structure of the directed graph $\Gamma(n)$

Let n be a positive integer, the Carmichael λ -function $\lambda(n)$, which was first defined in [1], is defined as follows.

$$\begin{split} &\lambda(1) = \varphi(1) = 1, \ \lambda(2) = \varphi(2) = 1, \ \lambda(4) = \varphi(4) = 2, \\ &\lambda(2^k) = \frac{1}{2}\varphi(2^k) = 2^{k-2} \ for \ k \geqslant 3, \\ &\lambda(p^k) = \varphi(p^k) = (p-1)p^{k-1} \ for \ any \ odd \ prime \ p \ and \ k \geqslant 1, \\ &\lambda(p_1^{k_1} \cdots p_r^{k_r}) = \operatorname{lcm}[\lambda(p_1^{k_1}), \dots, \lambda(p_r^{k_r})] \end{split}$$

where p_1, \ldots, p_r are distinct primes and $k_i \ge 1$ for all $i \in \{1, \ldots, r\}$. The following lemma is easy to check.

Lemma 3.1. Let $n = p_1^{t_1} \cdots p_s^{t_s}$, where $p_1 < \cdots < p_s$ are distinct primes, $t_i \ge 1$ and $s \ge 1$. Suppose $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, and $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{t_i}}$ such that $\alpha \equiv \alpha_i \pmod{p_s^{t_i}}$.

(1) If $indeg(\alpha) = k$ in $\Gamma(n)$, and $indeg(\alpha_i) = k_i$ in $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$, then $k = k_1 \cdots k_s$.

(2) The element α is a vertex of a cycle in $\Gamma(n)$ if and only if α_i is a vertex of a cycle in $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$ for $i \in \{1, \ldots, s\}$.

Theorem 3.2. Suppose n > 1, then each component of $\Gamma_1(n)$ has exactly level $\omega + 1$, where $3^{\omega} \parallel \lambda(n)$.

Proof. Let $n = p_1^{t_1} \cdots p_s^{t_s}$, where $p_1 < \cdots < p_s$ are distinct primes, $t_i \ge 1$ and $s \ge 1$. Clearly, $\mathrm{U}(\mathbb{Z}_n) = \mathrm{U}_1 \times \cdots \times \mathrm{U}_s$, where $\mathrm{U}_i = \mathrm{U}(\mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{t_i}})$ for $i = 1, \ldots, s$. For $\alpha \in \mathrm{U}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$, we have $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_s)$ with $\alpha_i \in \mathrm{U}_i$.

Case 1. Suppose $3 \nmid \varphi(n)$, then $3 \nmid \varphi(p_i^{t_i})$ for i = 1, ..., s. So $3 \nmid \lambda(n)$ and hence $\omega = 0$. If $p_1 = 2$, by [6, Theorem 4], each component of $\Gamma_1(p_1^{t_1})$ is exactly a cycle. If $p_i > 2$, then U_i is a cyclic group of order $\varphi(p_i^{t_i})$ ([2]). Since $3 \nmid \varphi(p_i^{t_i})$, by Theorem 2.1 (2), each component of $\Gamma_1(p_i^{t_i})$ is exactly a cycle. Hence, by Lemma 3.1 (1), for $\alpha \in V(\Gamma_1(n))$, we have $indeg(\alpha) = 1$. So each component of $\Gamma_1(n)$ is exactly a cycle and hence each component has level 1.

Case 2. Suppose $3|\varphi(n)$. Let $|\mathbf{U}_i| = \varphi(p_i^{t_i}) = 3^{k_i}m_i$, where $k_i \geq 0$ and $3 \nmid m_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, s$. If $k_i > 0$, then $p_i > 2$ and \mathbf{U}_i is a cyclic group, so by Theorem 2.1 (3), each component of $\Gamma_1(p_i^{t_i})$ has exactly level $k_i + 1$. Otherwise, if $k_i = 0$, then $3 \nmid \varphi(p_i^{t_i})$, by the argument of Case 1, each component of $\Gamma_1(p_i^{t_i})$ has exactly level 1. Now let $k_{\nu} = \max\{k_1, \ldots, k_s\}$, $1 \leq \nu \leq s$. Since $3|\varphi(n)$, we have $k_{\nu} \geq 1$.

Let \mathscr{A} be an arbitrary component of $\Gamma_1(n)$, and the unique cycle in \mathscr{A} is denoted by \mathscr{A}_c . Let $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \ldots, \gamma_s)$ be a vertex of the cycle \mathscr{A}_c , where $\gamma_i \in V(\Gamma_1(p_i^{t_i}))$. By Lemma 3.1 (2), γ_i is a vertex of a cycle which is denoted by \mathscr{B}_i , in $\Gamma_1(p_i^{t_i})$ for $i \in \{1, \ldots, s\}$. Since $k_{\nu} \geq 1$, it follows from Theorem 2.1 (3) that $indeg(\gamma_{\nu}) = 3$ in $\Gamma_1(p_{\nu}^{t_{\nu}})$. Hence, there exists $g_{\nu} \in V(\Gamma_1(p_{\nu}^{t_{\nu}}))$ such that $g_{\nu}^{3^{\mu}}$ does not belong to \mathscr{B}_{ν} for $0 \leq \mu < k_{\nu}$, and $g_{\nu}^{3^{k_{\nu}}} \equiv \gamma_{\nu} \pmod{p_{\nu}^{t_{\nu}}}$. In addition, let a_j be a vertex of \mathscr{B}_j such that $a_j^{3^{k_{\nu}}} \equiv \gamma_j \pmod{p_j^{t_j}}$ for $j \neq \nu$. Now, let $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_s)$ where $\alpha_{\nu} = g_{\nu}$ and $\alpha_j = a_j$ for $j \neq \nu$. Clearly, $\alpha \in V(\Gamma_1(n))$. By Lemma 3.1 (2), α does not belong to any cycle in $\Gamma_1(n)$ and k_{ν} is the least positive integer for which $\alpha^{3^{k_{\nu}}} \equiv \gamma \pmod{n}$. So α belongs to the component \mathscr{A} . Moreover, if there exists an integer k ($0 \leq k < k_{\nu}$) such that α^{3^k} belongs to the cycle \mathscr{A}_c , then $g_{\nu}^{3^k}$ is a vertex of the cycle \mathscr{B}_{ν} of $\Gamma_1(p_{\nu}^{t_{\nu}})$, a contradiction. So the level of component \mathscr{A} is at least $k_{\nu} + 1$.

Next, suppose that the component \mathscr{A} has exactly level l+1 with $l>k_{\nu}$. Then there exists $\beta=(\beta_1,\ldots,\beta_s)\in V(\mathscr{A})$ where $\beta_i\in V(\Gamma_1(p_i^{t_i}))$, such that l is the least nonnegative integer for which β^{3^l} belongs to the cycle \mathscr{A}_c . By Lemma 3.1 (2), $\beta_i^{3^l}$ is a vertex of a cycle in $\Gamma_1(p_i^{t_i})$ for $i\in\{1,\ldots,s\}$. We can check that there must exists $m\in\{1,\ldots,s\}$ such that $\beta_m^{3^{l-1}}$ does not belong to any cycle in $\Gamma_1(p_m^{t_m})$. Hence, the level of $\Gamma_1(p_m^{t_m})$ is at least l+1, which is impossible, for the level of $\Gamma_1(p_m^{t_m})$ is exactly $k_m+1\leqslant k_{\nu}+1< l+1$. So the component \mathscr{A} has exactly level $k_{\nu}+1$. Hence, each component of $\Gamma_1(R)$ has level $k_{\nu}+1$. Finally, notice that $3^{k_{\nu}} \parallel |U_{\nu}|$, i.e., $3^{k_{\nu}} \parallel \varphi(p_{\nu}^{t_{\nu}})$, thus $3^{k_{\nu}} \parallel \lambda(n)$, so $\omega=k_{\nu}$. This completes the proof.

By [5, Lemma 2, Theorem 3], we have the following lemma.

Lemma 3.3.

- (1) Suppose $\alpha \in V(\Gamma_1(n))$, then α is a vertex of a cycle in $\Gamma_1(n)$ if and only if $3 \nmid \operatorname{ord}_n \alpha$.
- (2) Suppose that α and β belong to one and the same cycle of $\Gamma_1(n)$, then $\operatorname{ord}_n \alpha = \operatorname{ord}_n \beta$.

Theorem 3.4.

- (1) Let n > 1, then $\Gamma_2(n)$ has exactly one component if and only if $n = p^t$ for some prime p and positive integer t.
 - (2) For $t \ge 1$, if $A_t(\Gamma_2(n)) \ge 1$, then $A_t(\Gamma_1(n)) \ge 1$.

Proof. (1) It is not difficult to check.

(2) Suppose $A_t(\Gamma_2(n)) \ge 1$. Let α be a vertex of a t-cycle in $\Gamma_2(n)$. Then t is the least positive integer such that

$$\alpha(\alpha^{3^t-1}-1) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}. \tag{3-1}$$

Let $n_1 = \gcd(\alpha, n)$, $\alpha = \alpha_0 n_1$, $n = n_0 n_1$. Then $\gcd(\alpha_0, n_0) = 1$. By (3-1), we have $n_0 n_1 | \alpha(\alpha^{3^t-1}-1)$. Hence, $n_0 | \alpha_0(\alpha^{3^t-1}-1)$. Since n_0 is coprime to α_0 , we have $n_0 | \alpha^{3^t-1}-1$. Moreover, by $n_1 | \alpha$ and $\gcd(\alpha, \alpha^{3^t-1}-1) = 1$, we have $\gcd(n_0, n_1) = 1$. Now, set $\beta = 1 + \alpha - \alpha^{3^t-1}$, then $\beta \equiv 1 \pmod{n_1}$, $\beta \equiv \alpha \pmod{n_0}$. Hence, $\beta^{3^t-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n_1}$ and $\beta^{3^t-1} \equiv \alpha^{3^t-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n_0}$. It follows from $\gcd(n_0, n_1) = 1$, $n = n_0 n_1$ and (3-1) that t is the least positive integer such that $\beta^{3^t-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. So β is a vertex of a t-cycle in $\Gamma_1(n)$. Thus, $A_t(\Gamma_1(n)) \geqslant 1$.

By inspection, we have the following lemma.

Lemma 3.5. Let n > 1. Then $\lambda(n) = 2 \cdot 3^m$ for some $m \ge 0$ if and only if $n = 2^s 3^t p_1 \cdots p_k$, where s = 0, 1, 2, 3 and $t \ge 0$, $k \ge 0$, p_i is a prime of the form $2 \cdot 3^{t_i} + 1$ for some $t_i \ge 1$, $i = 1, \ldots, k$.

Theorem 3.6.

- (1) Let n > 1. Then for t > 1, $A_t(\Gamma_1(n)) = 0$ if and only if $\lambda(n) = 1$ or $2 \cdot 3^m$ where $m \ge 0$.
- (2) Let n > 1. Then for t > 1, $A_t(\Gamma_2(n)) = 0$ if and only if n is a power of a prime, or $\lambda(n) = 2 \cdot 3^m$ where $m \ge 0$.

Proof. (1) Suppose $A_t(\Gamma_1(n)) = 0$ for t > 1. Clearly, if n = 2, then $\lambda(n) = 1$ and $A_t(\Gamma_1(2)) = 0$ for t > 1. Now we assume that n > 2. If $p \ge 5$ is a prime such that $p|\lambda(n)$, then by Lemma 3.3 (1), there exists a cycle with length larger than 1 in $\Gamma_1(n)$, a contradiction. So we have p < 5. Further, clearly $A_t(\Gamma_2(n)) = 0$ for t > 1 by Theorem 3.4 (2). This implies that $A_t(\Gamma(n)) = 0$ for t > 1. By [6, Theorem 2], for any even positive divisor d of $\lambda(n)$ with $3 \nmid d$, we must have $\operatorname{ord}_d 3 = 1$. So d = 2

and therefore $2 \parallel \lambda(n)$. By the argument above, we have $\lambda(n) = 1$ or $2 \cdot 3^m$ where $m \ge 0$, as desired.

The converse is easy to check by [6, Theorem 2].

(2) Suppose that $A_t(\Gamma_2(n)) = 0$ for t > 1. If n is not a power of a prime, let $n = p_1^{t_1} \cdots p_{\mu}^{t_{\mu}}$, where $\mu > 1$, $p_1 < \cdots < p_{\mu}$ are distinct primes and t_1, \ldots, t_{μ} are positive integers.

Case 1. Suppose $p_1=2$. If $t_1\geqslant 4$, then $t_1-2\geqslant 2$ and $\lambda(2^{t_1})=2^{t_1-2}$, so $4|\lambda(2^{t_1})$. Since $\operatorname{ord}_4 3=2$, by [6, Theorem 2], there exists a cycle of length 2 in $\Gamma(2^{t_1})$. Let α be a vertex of a 2-cycle in $\Gamma(2^{t_1})$. Then $\alpha^{3^2}\equiv\alpha\pmod{2^{t_1}}$ but $\alpha^3\not\equiv\alpha\pmod{2^{t_1}}$. By the Chinese remainder theorem, there exists an integer β such that $\beta\equiv\alpha\pmod{2^{t_1}}$ and $\beta\equiv0\pmod{p_i^{t_i}}$ for $i=2,\ldots,\mu$. Clearly, $\beta^{3^2}\equiv\beta\pmod{n}$ but $\beta^3\not\equiv\beta\pmod{n}$. So β is a vertex of a 2-cycle in $\Gamma_2(n)$, a contradiction. So $t_1\leqslant 3$.

Case 2. Suppose that $p_i \geq 5$ for some $i \in \{1, \ldots, \mu\}$. By the similar argument of Case 1, we can show that $t_i = 1$. So $\lambda(p_i^{t_i}) = \lambda(p_i) = p_i - 1 = 2^{k_i}q_i$, where $2 \nmid q_i$ and by the similar argument of Case 1, we have $k_i = 1$. Moreover, if there exists a prime $d_i > 3$ such that $d_i|q_i$, then $\operatorname{ord}_{2d_i} 3 > 2$, by [6, Theorem 2], there exists a cycle of length $\operatorname{ord}_{2d_i} 3 > 2$ in $\Gamma(p_i)$. By the similar argument of Case 1, we will also derive a contradiction. Hence, $q_i = 3^{m_i}$ for some positive integer m_i , and we have $p_i = 2 \cdot 3^{m_i} + 1$.

So we can conclude that n is a power of a prime, or by Lemma 3.5, $\lambda(n) = 2 \cdot 3^m$ for some $m \ge 0$.

The proof of converse is easy.

We call a directed graph semiregular if there exists a positive integer d such that the in-degree of each vertex is d or 0. Specially, if every component of the directed graph is a cycle, we also call this directed graph semiregular. For example, $\Gamma_2(3^4)$ (see Fig.4) is semiregular. By [5, Corollary 1], $\Gamma_1(n)$ is semiregular for n > 1. Now, we study the semiregularity of $\Gamma_2(n)$.

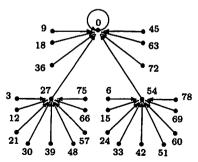


Fig.4. The subgraph $\Gamma_2(3^4)$.

Theorem 3.7.

- (1) $\Gamma_2(3^t)$ is semiregular if and only if t = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.
- (2) Suppose that p is a prime and $3 \mid p-1$. Then $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ is semiregular if and only if t = 1, 2, 3.
- (3) Suppose that p is a prime, $3 \nmid p-1$ and $p \neq 3$. Then $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ is semiregular if and only if t = 1, 2, 3, 4.
- (4) Suppose that $n = p_1^{t_1} \cdots p_s^{t_s}$ where s > 1, $p_1 < \cdots < p_s$ are distinct primes, t_1, \ldots, t_s are positive integers. Then the following statements are equivalent:
 - (a) $\Gamma(n)$ is semiregular.
 - (b) $\Gamma_2(n)$ is semiregular.
 - (c) $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$ is semiregular for $i \in \{1, \ldots, s\}$.
- (5) Suppose that n is not a power of a prime. Then $\Gamma_2(n)$ is semiregular if and only if $n = 3^t p_1 \cdots p_s$, where $p_1 < \cdots < p_s$ are distinct primes with $p_i \neq 3$ and $3 \nmid p_i 1$ for $i = \{1, \ldots, s\}$, $s \geqslant 1$, t = 0, 1, 2.

Proof. (1) If t = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, it is easy to inspect that $\Gamma_2(3^t)$ is semiregular. Now, let $t \ge 6$. Clearly $indeg(3^3) > 0$ and it is easily seen that $\alpha^3 \equiv 3^3 \pmod{3^t}$ if and only if $\alpha \equiv 3\beta \pmod{3^t}$ for some integer β such that

$$\beta^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{3^{t-3}} \tag{3-2}$$

Obviously $\beta=3k+1$ for some integer $k\geqslant 0$. By (3-2), we have $3^{t-3}\mid 9k(3k^2+3k+1)$. Hence, $3^{t-4}\mid 3k$. This implies that $\beta=3^{t-4}m+1$ for some integer $m\geqslant 0$. Moreover, $3(3^{t-4}m_1+1)\equiv 3(3^{t-4}m_2+1)\pmod{3^t}$ if and only if $m_1\equiv m_2\pmod{3^3}$. Thus, $indeg(3^3)=3^3$. On the other hand, by [6, Theorem 5], $indeg(0)=3^{t-\lceil\frac{t}{3}\rceil}$. It follows from $t\geqslant 6$ that $t-\lceil\frac{t}{3}\rceil\geqslant 4$, whereas $indeg(3^3)=3^3$ and hence $\Gamma_2(3^t)$ is not semiregular for $t\geqslant 6$.

(2) If t = 1, 2, 3, clearly $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ is semiregular.

Conversely, suppose that $t \ge 4$. Clearly $indeg(p^3) > 0$ and it is easily seen that $\alpha^3 \equiv p^3 \pmod{p^t}$ if and only if $\alpha \equiv p\beta \pmod{p^t}$ for some integer β such that

 $\beta^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{p^{t-3}} \tag{3-3}$

Since $3 \mid p-1$, by [3, p.231, 8(i)], there are exactly $\gcd(3, p-1) = 3$ solutions of (3-3), namely $\beta \equiv \beta_i \pmod{p^{t-3}}$, i=1,2,3, where β_1,β_2,β_3 are distinct positive integers less than p^{t-3} . Moreover, $p(\beta_i+k_1p^{t-3}) \equiv p(\beta_i+k_2p^{t-3}) \pmod{p^t}$ if and only if $k_1 \equiv k_2 \pmod{p^2}$. In addition, if $i \neq j$, then $p(\beta_i+k_1p^{t-3}) \not\equiv p(\beta_j+k_2p^{t-3}) \pmod{p^t}$ for $k_1,k_2 \geqslant 0$. Thus, $indeg(p^3) = 3p^2$. On the other hand, there are exactly $p^{t-\lceil \frac{1}{3} \rceil}$ elements in $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ namely $p^{\lceil \frac{1}{3} \rceil}$, $2 \cdot p^{\lceil \frac{1}{3} \rceil}$, ..., $p^{t-\lceil \frac{1}{3} \rceil} \cdot p^{\lceil \frac{1}{3} \rceil}$ which are mapped into 0. Hence, $indeg(0) = p^{t-\lceil \frac{1}{3} \rceil}$. Since p > 3 and $t \geqslant 4$, we have $indeg(0) \neq indeg(p^3)$ and hence $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ is not semiregular for $t \geqslant 4$.

(3) Suppose $t \ge 5$. Clearly $indeg(p^3) > 0$ and it is easily seen that $\alpha^3 \equiv p^3 \pmod{p^t}$ if and only if $\alpha \equiv p\beta \pmod{p^t}$ for some integer β such that the congruence (3-3) holds. Since $3 \nmid p-1$, by [3, p.231, 8(i)], the number of solutions of (3-3) is equal to $\gcd(3, p-1) = 1$, i.e., $\beta \equiv 1 \pmod{p^{t-3}}$. Moreover, $p(1+k_1p^{t-3}) \equiv p(1+k_2p^{t-3}) \pmod{p^t}$ if and only if $k_1 \equiv k_2 \pmod{p^2}$. So $indeg(p^3) = p^2$. Further, $indeg(0) = p^{t-\lceil \frac{t}{3} \rceil}$ and $t - \lceil \frac{t}{3} \rceil \ge 3$ for $t \ge 5$. Hence, $indeg(0) \ne indeg(p^3)$. So $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ is not semiregular for $t \ge 5$.

Conversely, let t=4. It is not difficult to show that for $\gamma \in \{1,\ldots,p-1\}$, there exists $\gamma_0 \in \{1,\ldots,p-1\}$ such that $\gamma \equiv \gamma_0^3 \pmod{p}$. So $\gamma p^3 \equiv \gamma_0^3 p^3 \pmod{p^4}$. Therefore, $indeg(\gamma p^3) > 0$. By the similar argument above, we have $indeg(\gamma p^3) = p^2$. Moreover, since t=4, $indeg(0) = p^{t-\lceil \frac{t}{3} \rceil} = p^2$. So we can conclude that there are p vertices in $\Gamma_2(p^t)$, namely $0, p^3, 2p^3, \ldots, (p-1)p^3$, with in-degree p^2 , and we have $p \times p^2 = p^3$. Since the number of vertices in $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ is p^3 , the in-degree of any vertex in $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ is p^2 or 0. Hence $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ is semiregular if t=4. Moreover, it is easy to see that $\Gamma_2(p^t)$ is semiregular for t=1,2,3.

- (4) (a) \Rightarrow (b) is clear.
- (b) \Rightarrow (c) Suppose that $\Gamma_2(n)$ is semiregular. In each $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$, set $indeg(0) = k_i \geqslant 1$. By Lemma 3.1 (1), $indeg(0) = k_1 \cdots k_s$ in $\Gamma(n)$. Let $i \in \{1, \ldots, s\}$. Suppose that β_i is an arbitrary vertex in $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$ with $indeg(\beta_i) = d_i \neq 0$. By the Chinese remainder theorem, there exists a positive integer β such that $\beta \equiv \beta_i \pmod{p_i^{t_i}}$ and $\beta \equiv 0 \pmod{p_j^{t_j}}$ for $j \in \{1, \ldots, s\}$ and $j \neq i$. Then by Lemma 3.1 (1), $indeg(\beta) = k_1 \cdots k_{i-1} d_i k_{i+1} \cdots k_s \neq 0$ in $\Gamma(n)$. Since $\Gamma_2(n)$ is semiregular, $indeg(0) = indeg(\beta)$ in $\Gamma_2(n)$, i.e., $k_1 \cdots k_s = k_1 \cdots k_{i-1} d_i k_{i+1} \cdots k_s$. Hence, $d_i = k_i$. Thus $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$ is semiregular for $i \in \{1, \ldots, s\}$.
- (c) \Rightarrow (a) Suppose that $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$ is semiregular for each i. In every $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$, let $indeg(0) = indeg(1) = k_i \geqslant 1$. Obviously, $indeg(0) = indeg(1) = k_1 \cdots k_s$ in $\Gamma(n)$. Assume $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ and $\alpha \equiv \alpha_i \pmod{p_i^{t_i}}$, then $indeg(\alpha) = indeg(\alpha_1) \times \cdots \times indeg(\alpha_s)$. Since $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$ is semiregular, we have either $indeg(\alpha_i) = 0$ or $indeg(\alpha_i) = indeg(0) = k_i$ in $\Gamma(p_i^{t_i})$. So $indeg(\alpha) = 0$ or $indeg(\alpha) = k_1 \cdots k_s = indeg(0) = indeg(1)$ in $\Gamma(n)$. Moreover, by [6, Lemma 2], $\Gamma_1(n)$ is semiregular for n > 1, so $\Gamma(n)$ is semiregular.
- (5) By (1), (2) and (3) above, we have $\Gamma(p^t)$ is semiregular if and only if $p^t = 3^2$ or $3 \nmid p 1$ with t = 1. Therefore, by (4), the result holds. \square

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