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# On the multiplicative order of $a^{n}$ modulo $n$ 

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#### Abstract

Let $n$ be a positive integer and $\alpha_{n}$ be the arithmetic function which assigns the multiplicative order of $a^{n}$ modulo $n$ to every integer $a$ coprime to $n$ and vanishes elsewhere. Similarly, let $\beta_{n}$ assign the projective multiplicative order of $a^{n} \bmod -$ ulo $n$ to every integer $a$ coprime to $n$ and vanishes elsewhere. In this paper, we present a study of these two arithmetic functions. In particular, we prove that for positive integers $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ with the same square-free part, there exists an exact relationship between the functions $\alpha_{n_{1}}$ and $\alpha_{n_{2}}$ and between the functions $\beta_{n_{1}}$ and $\beta_{n_{2}}$. This allows us to reduce the determination of $\alpha_{n}$ and $\beta_{n}$ to the case where $n$ is square-free. These arithmetic functions recently appeared in the context of an old problem of Molluzzo, and more precisely in the study of which arithmetic progressions yield a balanced Steinhaus triangle in $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ for $n$ odd.


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## 1 Introduction

We start by introducing some notation relating to the order of certain elements modulo $n$. For every positive integer $n$ and every prime number $p$, we denote by $v_{p}(n)$ the $p$ adic valuation of $n$, i.e., the greatest exponent $e \geqslant 0$ for which $p^{e}$ divides $n$. The prime factorization of $n$ may then be written as

$$
n=\prod_{p \in \mathbb{P}} p^{v_{p}(n)}
$$

where $\mathbb{P}$ denotes the set of all prime numbers. We denote by $\operatorname{rad}(n)$ the radical of $n$, i.e., the largest square-free divisor of $n$, namely

$$
\operatorname{rad}(n)=\prod_{\substack{p \in \mathbb{P} \\ p \mid n}} p
$$

For every positive integer $n$ and every integer $a$ coprime to $n$, we denote by $\mathcal{O}_{n}(a)$ the multiplicative order of a modulo $n$, i.e., the smallest positive integer $e$ such that $a^{e} \equiv 1$ $(\bmod n)$, namely

$$
\mathcal{O}_{n}(a)=\min \left\{e \in \mathbb{N}^{*} \mid a^{e} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod n)\right\}
$$

and we denote by $\mathcal{R}_{n}(a)$ the multiplicative remainder of $a$ modulo $n$, i.e., the multiple of $n$ defined by

$$
\mathcal{R}_{n}(a)=a^{\mathcal{O}_{n}(a)}-1 .
$$

The multiplicative order of $a$ modulo $n$ also corresponds with the order of the element $\pi_{n}(a)$, where $\pi_{n}: \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ is the canonical surjective morphism, in the multiplicative group $(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{*}$, the group of units of $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$. Note that $\mathcal{O}_{n}(a)$ divides $\varphi(n), \varphi$ being the Euler's totient function.

For every positive integer $n$, we define and denote by $\alpha_{n}$ the arithmetic function

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha_{n}: \mathbb{Z} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{N} \\
a & \longmapsto\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\mathcal{O}_{n}\left(a^{n}\right), & \text { for all } \operatorname{gcd}(a, n)=1 ; \\
0, & \text { otherwise },
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\operatorname{gcd}(a, n)$ denotes the greatest common divisor of $a$ and $n$, with the convention that $\operatorname{gcd}(0, n)=n$. Observe that, for every $a$ coprime to $n$, the integer $\alpha_{n}(a)$ divides $\varphi(n) / \operatorname{gcd}(\varphi(n), n)$. This follows from the previous remark on $\mathcal{O}_{n}(a)$ and the equality $\alpha_{n}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{n}\left(a^{n}\right)=\mathcal{O}_{n}(a) / \operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n}(a), n\right)$.

For every positive integer $n$ and every integer $a$ coprime to $n$, we denote by $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{O}_{n}(a)$ the projective multiplicative order of a modulo $n$, i.e., the smallest positive integer $e$ such that $a^{e} \equiv \pm 1(\bmod n)$, namely

$$
\mathcal{P} \mathcal{O}_{n}(a)=\min \left\{e \in \mathbb{N}^{*} \mid a^{e} \equiv \pm 1 \quad(\bmod n)\right\} .
$$

The projective multiplicative order of $a$ modulo $n$ also corresponds with the order of the element $\pi_{n}(a)$ in the multiplicative quotient group $(\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z})^{*} /\{-1,1\}$.

For every positive integer $n$, we define and denote by $\beta_{n}$ the arithmetic function

$$
\begin{aligned}
\beta_{n}: \mathbb{Z} & \longrightarrow \mathbb{N} \\
a & \longmapsto\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
\mathcal{P} \mathcal{O}_{n}\left(a^{n}\right), & \text { for all } \operatorname{gcd}(a, n)=1 ; \\
0, & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Observe that we have the alternative $\alpha_{n}=\beta_{n}$ or $\alpha_{n}=2 \beta_{n}$.
In this paper, we study in detail these two arithmetic functions. In particular, we prove that, for every positive integers $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ such that

$$
\begin{cases}\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1 \\ 2 \operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2,\end{cases}
$$

the integer $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)$ (respectively $\beta_{n_{1}}(a)$ ) divides $\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)$ (resp. $\beta_{n_{2}}(a)$ ), for every integer $a$. More precisely, we determine the exact relationship between the functions $\alpha_{n_{1}}$ and $\alpha_{n_{2}}$ and between $\beta_{n_{1}}$ and $\beta_{n_{2}}$. We prove that we have

$$
\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)=\frac{\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha_{n_{2}}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right)} \text { for all } \operatorname{gcd}\left(a, n_{1}\right)=1
$$

in Theorem 2.5 of Section 2 and that we have

$$
\beta_{n_{1}}(a)=\frac{\beta_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\beta_{n_{2}}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right)} \text { for all } \operatorname{gcd}\left(a, n_{1}\right)=1
$$

in Theorem 3.3 of Section 3. Thus, for every integer $a$ coprime to $n$, the determination of $\alpha_{n}(a)$ is reduced to the computation of $\alpha_{\operatorname{rad}(n)}(a)$ and $\mathcal{R}_{\operatorname{rad}(n)}(a)$ if $v_{2}(n) \leqslant 1$ and of $\alpha_{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}(a)$ and $\mathcal{R}_{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}(a)$ if $v_{2}(n) \geqslant 2$. These theorems on the functions $\alpha_{n}$ and $\beta_{n}$ are derived from Theorem 2.6 of Section 2, which states that

$$
\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)},
$$

for all integers $a$ coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$. This result generalizes the following theorem of Nathanson which, in the above notation, states that for every odd prime number $p$ and for every positive integer $k$, we have the equality

$$
\mathcal{O}_{p^{k}}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{p}(a) \cdot \frac{p^{k}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(p^{k}, \mathcal{R}_{p}(a)\right)}
$$

for all integers $a$ not divisible by $p$.
Theorem 3.6 of [3]. Let $p$ be an odd prime, and let $a \neq \pm 1$ be an integer not divisible by $p$. Let d be the order of a modulo $p$. Let $k_{0}$ be the largest integer such that $a^{d} \equiv 1$ $\left(\bmod p^{k_{0}}\right)$. Then the order of a modulo $p^{k}$ is $d$ for $k=1, \ldots, k_{0}$ and $d p^{k-k_{0}}$ for $k \geqslant k_{0}$.

For every finite sequence $S=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m}\right)$ of length $m \geqslant 1$ in $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, we denote by $\Delta S$ the Steinhaus triangle of $S$, that is the finite multiset of cardinality $\binom{m+1}{2}$ in $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ defined by

$$
\Delta S=\left\{\left.\sum_{k=0}^{i}\binom{i}{k} a_{j+k} \right\rvert\, 0 \leqslant i \leqslant m-1,1 \leqslant j \leqslant m-i\right\} .
$$

A finite sequence $S$ in $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ is said to be balanced if each element of $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ occurs in its Steinhaus triangle $\Delta S$ with the same multiplicity. For instance, the sequence $(2,2,3,3)$ of length 4 is balanced in $\mathbb{Z} / 5 \mathbb{Z}$. Indeed, as depicted in Figure 1, its Steinhaus triangle is composed by each element of $\mathbb{Z} / 5 \mathbb{Z}$ occuring twice.


Figure 1: The Steinhaus triangle of a balanced sequence in $\mathbb{Z} / 5 \mathbb{Z}$
Note that, for a sequence $S$ of length $m \geqslant 1$ in $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, a necessary condition on $m$ for $S$ to be balanced is that the integer $n$ divides the binomial coefficient $\binom{m+1}{2}$. In 1976, John C. Molluzzo [2] posed the problem to determine whether this necessary condition on $m$ is also sufficient to guarantee the existence of a balanced sequence. In [1], it was proved that, for each odd number $n$, there exists a balanced sequence of length $m$ for every $m \equiv 0$ or $-1\left(\bmod \alpha_{n}(2) \cdot n\right)$ and for every $m \equiv 0$ or $-1\left(\bmod \beta_{n}(2) \cdot n\right)$. This was achieved by analyzing the Steinhaus triangles generated by arithmetic progressions. In particular, since $\beta_{3^{k}}(2)=1$ for all $k \geqslant 1$, the above result implies a complete and positive solution of Molluzzo's Problem in $\mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$ for all $n=3^{k}$.

## 2 The arithmetic function $\alpha_{n}$

The table depicted in Figure 2 gives us the first values of $\alpha_{n}(a)$ for every positive integer $n, 1 \leqslant n \leqslant 20$, and for every integer $a,-20 \leqslant a \leqslant 20$.

| $n \backslash a$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 4 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 5 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 0 |
| 6 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 7 | 1 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 6 | 3 | 6 | 2 |
| 8 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 9 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| 10 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 11 | 1 | 10 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 5 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 10 | 10 | 10 | 5 |
| 12 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 13 | 1 | 12 | 3 | 6 | 4 | 12 | 12 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 12 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 12 | 3 | 6 | 4 | 12 | 12 |
| 14 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| 15 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 4 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| 16 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 17 | 1 | 8 | 16 | 4 | 16 | 16 | 16 | 8 | 8 | 16 | 16 | 16 | 4 | 16 | 8 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 16 |
| 18 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 19 | 1 | 18 | 18 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 3 | 6 | 9 | 18 | 3 | 6 | 18 | 18 | 18 | 9 | 9 | 2 | 0 | 1 |
| 20 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

Figure 2: The first values of $\alpha_{n}(a)$
The positive integer $\alpha_{n}(a)$ seems to be difficult to determine. Indeed, there is no general formula known to compute the multiplicative order of an integer modulo $n$ but, however, we get the following helpful propositions.

Lemma 2.1. Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be two positive integers such that $\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right)=\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{2}\right)$. Then, an integer $a$ is coprime to $n_{1}$ if, and only if, it is also coprime to $n_{2}$.

Proof. This follows from the definition of the greatest common divisor of two integers and from the definition of the radical of an integer.

Proposition 2.2. Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be two positive integers such that $\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2}$ and $n_{2} \mid n_{1}$. Then, for every integer $a$, the integer $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)$ divides $\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)$.

Proof. If $a$ is not coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$, then, by definition of the functions $\alpha_{n_{1}}$ and $\alpha_{n_{2}}$ and by Lemma 2.1, we have

$$
\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)=\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)=0 .
$$

Suppose that $a$ is coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$. If $v_{p}\left(n_{1}\right)=1$ for all prime factors $p$ of $n_{1}$, then $n_{2}=n_{1}$. Otherwise, let $p$ be a prime factor of $n_{1}$ such that $v_{p}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$. We shall show that $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)$ divides $\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a)$. By definition of $\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a)$, there exists an integer $u$ such that

$$
a^{\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p}}=1+u \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p} .
$$

Therefore, by the binomial theorem, we have

$$
a^{\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot n_{1}}=\left(a^{\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p}}\right)^{p}=\left(1+u \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p}\right)^{p}=1+u \cdot n_{1}+\sum_{k=2}^{p}\binom{p}{k} \cdot u^{k} \cdot\left(\frac{n_{1}}{p}\right)^{k} .
$$

Since $v_{p}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$, it follows that $\left(n_{1} / p\right)^{k}$ is divisible by $n_{1}$ for every integer $k \geqslant 2$ and so

$$
a^{\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot n_{1}} \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod n_{1}\right) .
$$

Hence $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)$ divides $\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a)$. This completes the proof.
An exact relationship between $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)$ and $\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)$, for every integer $a$ coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$, is determined at the end of this section. We first settle the easy prime power case.

Proposition 2.3. Let $p$ be a prime number and let a be an integer. Then we have

$$
\alpha_{p^{k}}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{p}(a)
$$

for every positive integer $k$.
Proof. Let $k$ be a positive integer. If $a$ is not coprime to $p$, then we have $\alpha_{p^{k}}(a)=\alpha_{p}(a)=$ 0 . Suppose now that $a$ is coprime to $p$. By Proposition 2.2, the integer $\alpha_{p^{k}}(a)$ divides $\alpha_{p}(a)$. It remains to prove that $\alpha_{p}(a)$ divides $\alpha_{p^{k}}(a)$. The congruence

$$
a^{\alpha_{p k}(a) \cdot p^{k}} \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod p^{k}\right)
$$

implies that

$$
a^{\alpha_{p^{k}}(a) \cdot p^{k}} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod p),
$$

and hence, by Fermat's Little Theorem, it follows that

$$
a^{\alpha_{p^{k}}(a) \cdot p} \equiv a^{\alpha_{p^{k}}(a) \cdot p^{k}} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod p) .
$$

Therefore $\alpha_{p}(a)$ divides $\alpha_{p^{k}}(a)$. Finally, we have

$$
\alpha_{p^{k}}(a)=\alpha_{p}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{p}\left(a^{p}\right)=\mathcal{O}_{p}(a) .
$$

This completes the proof.
Remark. If $p=2$, then, for every positive integer $k$, we obtain

$$
\alpha_{2^{k}}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{2}(a)= \begin{cases}0, & \text { for } a \text { even } \\ 1, & \text { for } a \text { odd }\end{cases}
$$

Proposition 2.4. Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be two coprime numbers and let a be an integer. Then $\alpha_{n_{1} n_{2}}(a)$ divides $\operatorname{lcm}\left(\alpha_{n_{1}}(a), \alpha_{n_{2}}(a)\right)$, the least common multiple of $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)$ and $\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)$.
Proof. If $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a, n_{1} n_{2}\right) \neq 1$, then $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a, n_{1}\right) \neq 1$ or $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a, n_{2}\right) \neq 1$ and so

$$
\alpha_{n_{1} n_{2}}(a)=\operatorname{lcm}\left(\alpha_{n_{1}}(a), \alpha_{n_{2}}(a)\right)=0 .
$$

Suppose now that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a, n_{1} n_{2}\right)=1$ and hence that the integers $a, n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ are coprime pairwise. Let $i \in\{1,2\}$. The congruences

$$
a^{\alpha_{n_{i}}(a) \cdot n_{i}} \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod n_{i}\right)
$$

imply that

$$
a^{n_{1} n_{2} \operatorname{lcm}\left(\alpha_{n_{1}}(a), \alpha_{n_{2}}(a)\right)} \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod n_{i}\right) .
$$

Therefore $\alpha_{n_{1} n_{2}}(a)$ divides $\operatorname{lcm}\left(\alpha_{n_{1}}(a), \alpha_{n_{2}}(a)\right)$ by the Chinese remainder theorem.
Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be two positive integers such that

$$
\begin{cases}\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1 ; \\ 2 \operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2 .\end{cases}
$$

By definition, we know that $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)=\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)=0$ for every integer $a$ not coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$. We end this section by determining the exact relationship between $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)$ and $\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)$ for every integer $a$ coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$.

Theorem 2.5. Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be two positive integers such that

$$
\begin{cases}\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1 ; \\ 2 \operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2 .\end{cases}
$$

Then, for every integer a coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$, we have

$$
\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)=\frac{\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha_{n_{2}}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right)}
$$

This result is a corollary of the following theorem.
Theorem 2.6. Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be two positive integers such that

$$
\begin{cases}\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1 ; \\ 2 \operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2 .\end{cases}
$$

Then, for every integer a coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$, we have

$$
\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}
$$

The proof of this theorem is based on the following lemma.
Lemma 2.7. Let $n$ be a positive integer and let $a$ be an integer coprime to $n$. Let $m$ be an integer such that $\operatorname{rad}(m) \mid \operatorname{rad} n$. Then, there exists an integer $u_{m}$, coprime to $n$ if $m$ is odd, or coprime to $n / 2$ if $m$ is even, such that

$$
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n}(a) \cdot m}=1+u_{m} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot m .
$$

Proof. We distinguish different cases based upon the parity of $m$. First, we prove the odd case by induction on $m$. If $m=1$, then, by definition of the integer $\mathcal{R}_{n}(a)$, we have

$$
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n}(a)}=1+\mathcal{R}_{n}(a) .
$$

Therefore the assertion is true for $m=1$.
Now, let $p$ be a prime factor of $m$ and suppose that the assertion is true for the odd number $m / p$, i.e., there exists an integer $u_{m / p}$, coprime to $n$, such that

$$
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n}(a) \cdot \frac{m}{p}}=1+u_{m / p} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot \frac{m}{p} .
$$

Then, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n}(a) \cdot m}= & \left(a^{\mathcal{O}_{n}(a) \cdot \frac{m}{p}}\right)^{p}=\left(1+u_{m / p} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot \frac{m}{p}\right)^{p} \\
= & 1+u_{m / p} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot m+\sum_{k=2}^{p-1}\binom{p}{k}\left(u_{m / p} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot \frac{m}{p}\right)^{k}+\left(u_{m / p} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot \frac{m}{p}\right)^{p} \\
= & 1+\left(u_{m / p}+\sum_{k=2}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{p}{k}}{p} \cdot\left(u_{m / p}\right)^{k} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a)^{k-1} \cdot\left(\frac{m}{p}\right)^{k-1}+\right. \\
& \left.+\left(u_{m / p}\right)^{p} \cdot \frac{\mathcal{R}_{n}(a)^{p-1}}{p} \cdot\left(\frac{m}{p}\right)^{p-1}\right) \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot m \\
= & 1+u_{m} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot m .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $n$ divides $\mathcal{R}_{n}(a)$ which divides

$$
u_{m}-u_{m / p}=\sum_{k=2}^{p-1} \frac{\binom{p}{k}}{p} \cdot\left(u_{m / p}\right)^{k} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a)^{k-1} \cdot\left(\frac{m}{p}\right)^{k-1}+\left(u_{m / p}\right)^{p} \cdot \frac{\mathcal{R}_{n}(a)^{p-1}}{p} \cdot\left(\frac{m}{p}\right)^{p-1}
$$

it follows that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(u_{m}, n\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(u_{m / p}, n\right)=1$. This completes the proof for the odd case.
Suppose now that $n$ and $m$ are even. We proceed by induction on $v_{2}(m)$. If $v_{2}(m)=1$, then $m / 2$ is odd and by the first part of this proof,

$$
a^{\frac{m}{2} \cdot \mathcal{O}_{n}(a)}=1+u_{m / 2} \cdot \frac{m}{2} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a)
$$

where $u_{m / 2}$ is coprime to $n$ and hence to $n / 2$. Now assume that $v_{2}(m)>1$ and that

$$
a^{\frac{m}{2} \cdot \mathcal{O}_{n}(a)}=1+u_{m / 2} \cdot \frac{m}{2} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a)
$$

with $u_{m / 2}$ coprime to $n / 2$. Then, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n}(a) \cdot m} & =\left(a^{\mathcal{O}_{n}(a) \cdot \frac{m}{2}}\right)^{2}=\left(1+u_{m / 2} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot \frac{m}{2}\right)^{2} \\
& =1+u_{m / 2} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot m+\left(u_{m / 2} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot \frac{m}{2}\right)^{2} \\
& =1+\left(u_{m / 2}+\left(u_{m / 2}\right)^{2} \cdot \frac{\mathcal{R}_{n}(a)}{2} \cdot \frac{m}{2}\right) \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) m \\
& =1+u_{m} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n}(a) \cdot m .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $n / 2$ divides $\mathcal{R}_{n}(a) / 2$ which divides $u_{m}-u_{m / 2}$, it follows that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(u_{m}, n / 2\right)=$ $\operatorname{gcd}\left(u_{m / 2}, n / 2\right)=1$. This completes the proof.

We are now ready to prove Theorem 2.6.
Proof of Theorem 2.6. The proof is by induction on the integer $n_{1} / n_{2}$. If $n_{1}=n_{2}$, then we have

$$
\frac{n_{1}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}=\frac{n_{1}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{1}}(a)\right)}=\frac{n_{1}}{n_{1}}=1,
$$

since $\mathcal{R}_{n_{1}}(a)$ is divisible by $n_{1}$, and thus the statement is true. Let $p$ be a prime factor of $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ such that $n_{2}$ divides $n_{1} / p$ and suppose that

$$
\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1} / p}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1} / p, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}
$$

First, the congruence

$$
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)} \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod n_{1}\right)
$$

implies that

$$
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)} \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod \frac{n_{1}}{p}\right)
$$

and so $\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)$ divides $\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)$. We consider two cases.
First Case: $v_{p}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant v_{p}\left(\mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)$.
Since $n_{2}$ divides $n_{1} / p$, it follows that $\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)$ divides $\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)$. Let $r=\frac{\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)}{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}$. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{R}_{n_{1} / p}(a) & =a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)}-1=a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot r}-1=\left(a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}-1\right)\left(\sum_{k=0}^{r-1} a^{k \mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}\right) \\
& =\mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\left(\sum_{k=0}^{r-1} a^{k \mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and so $\mathcal{R}_{n_{1} / p}(a)$ is divisible by $\mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)$. This leads to

$$
v_{p}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant v_{p}\left(\mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right) \leqslant v_{p}\left(\mathcal{R}_{n_{1} / p}(a)\right) .
$$

Therefore $\mathcal{R}_{n_{1} / p}(a)$ is divisible by $n_{1}$ and hence we have

$$
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)}=1+\mathcal{R}_{n_{1} / p}(a) \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod n_{1}\right) .
$$

This implies that $\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)$. Moreover, the hypothesis $v_{p}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant v_{p}\left(\mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)$ implies that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1} / p, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right) / p$. Finally, we obtain

$$
\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1} / p}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1} / p, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}=\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}
$$

Second Case: $v_{p}\left(n_{1}\right)>v_{p}\left(\mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)$.
If $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1$, then $\left(n_{1} / p\right) / \operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1} / p, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)$ is odd. Otherwise, if $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$, then $v_{2}\left(n_{2}\right) \geqslant 2$ and every integer coprime to $n_{2} / 2$ is also coprime to $n_{2}$. In both cases,
$v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1$ or $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$, we know, by Lemma 2.7, that there exists an integer $u$, coprime to $n_{2}$, such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)} & =a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1} / p}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1} / p, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}}=1+u \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1} / p}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1} / p, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)} \\
& =1+u \cdot \frac{\mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1} / p, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)} \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p} .
\end{aligned}
$$

As $v_{p}\left(\mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right) \leqslant v_{p}\left(n_{1} / p\right)$, it follows that $\mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a) / \operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1} / p, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)$ is coprime to $p$, and hence $\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)$ is a proper divisor of $\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)$ since

$$
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a)} \not \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod n_{1}\right) .
$$

Moreover, by Lemma 2.7 again, there exists an integer $u_{p}$ such that

$$
a^{\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot p}=1+u_{p} \cdot \mathcal{R}_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot p \equiv 1 \quad\left(\bmod n_{1}\right) .
$$

This leads to

$$
\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)=\mathcal{O}_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot p=\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1} / p, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}=\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}
$$

This completes the proof of Theorem 2.6.
We may view Theorem 2.6 as a generalization of Theorem 3.6 of [3], where $n_{2}=p$ is an odd prime number and $n_{1}=p^{k}$ for some positive integer $k$. Note that the conclusion of Theorem 2.6 fails in general in the case where $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$ and $n_{2}=\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right)$. For instance, for $n_{1}=24=3 \cdot 2^{3}, n_{2}=6=3 \cdot 2$ and $a=7$, we obtain that $\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)=2$ while $\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) n_{1} / \operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)=24 / \operatorname{gcd}(24,6)=4$.

We now turn to the proof of the main result of this paper.
Proof of Theorem 2.5. From Theorem 2.6, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha_{n_{1}}(a) & =\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}\left(a^{n_{1}}\right)=\frac{\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{1}}(a), n_{1}\right)}=\frac{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}, n_{1}\right)} \\
& =\frac{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)}{\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)} & =\frac{\frac{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{2}\right)}}{\frac{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}}=\frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{2}\right)} \\
& =\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{2}\right)}, \frac{n_{2}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{2}\right)} \cdot \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, since we have

$$
\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{2}\right)}, \frac{n_{2}}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{2}\right)}\right)=\frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{2}\right)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{2}\right)}=1,
$$

it follows that

$$
\frac{\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)}{\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\frac{\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\mathcal{O}_{n_{2}}(a), n_{2}\right)}, \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha_{n_{2}}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right) .
$$

Thus, the determination of $\alpha_{n}$ is reduced to the case where $n$ is square-free.
Corollary 2.8. Let $n$ be a positive integer such that $v_{2}(n) \leqslant 1$. Then, for every integer a, coprime to $n$, we have

$$
\alpha_{n}(a)=\frac{\alpha_{\mathrm{rad}(n)}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha_{\mathrm{rad}(n)}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n, \mathcal{R}_{\mathrm{rad}(n)}(a)\right)}{\operatorname{rad}(n)}\right)} .
$$

Corollary 2.9. Let $n$ be a positive integer such that $v_{2}(n) \geqslant 2$. Then, for every integer a, coprime to $n$, we have

$$
\alpha_{n}(a)=\frac{\alpha_{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha_{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n, \mathcal{R}_{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}(a)\right)}{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}\right)} .
$$

## 3 The arithmetic function $\beta_{n}$

First, we can observe that, by definition of the functions $\alpha_{n}$ and $\beta_{n}$, we have

$$
\alpha_{n}(a)=\beta_{n}(a)=0
$$

for every integer $a$ not coprime to $n$ and

$$
\frac{\alpha_{n}(a)}{\beta_{n}(a)} \in\{1,2\}
$$

for every integer $a$ coprime to $n$. There is no general formula known to compute $\alpha_{n}(a) / \beta_{n}(a)$ but, however, we get the following proposition.

Proposition 3.1. Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be two positive integers such that $\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right)=\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{2}\right)$. Let $a$ be an integer coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$. If $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1$, then we have

$$
\frac{\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)}{\beta_{n_{1}}(a)}=\frac{\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)}{\beta_{n_{2}}(a)} .
$$

If $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$, then we have

$$
\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)=\beta_{n_{1}}(a) .
$$

Proof. Let $n_{1}$ be a positive integer such that $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1$ and $a$ be an integer coprime to $n_{1}$. Let $p$ be an odd prime factor of $n_{1}$ such that $v_{p}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$. We will prove that

$$
\frac{\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)}{\beta_{n_{1}}(a)}=\frac{\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a)}{\beta_{n_{1} / p}(a)} .
$$

If $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)=2 \beta_{n_{1}}(a)$, then

$$
a^{\beta_{n_{1}}(a) \cdot n_{1}} \equiv-1 \quad\left(\bmod n_{1}\right)
$$

and thus

$$
a^{\beta_{n_{1}}(a) \cdot p \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p}} \equiv-1 \quad\left(\bmod \frac{n_{1}}{p}\right) .
$$

This implies that $\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a)=2 \beta_{n_{1} / p}(a)$. Conversely, if $\alpha_{n_{1} / p}(a)=2 \beta_{n_{1} / p}(a)$, then we have

$$
a^{\beta_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p}} \equiv-1 \quad\left(\bmod \frac{n_{1}}{p}\right) .
$$

Since $v_{p}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$, it follows that

$$
a^{\beta_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p}} \equiv-1 \quad(\bmod p)
$$

and thus
$a^{\beta_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot n_{1}}+1=1-\left(-a^{\beta_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p}}\right)^{p}=\left(1+a^{\beta_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p}}\right) \sum_{k=0}^{p-1}\left(-a^{\beta_{n_{1} / p}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{p}}\right)^{k} \equiv 0 \quad\left(\bmod n_{1}\right)$.
This implies that $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)=2 \beta_{n_{1}}(a)$. Continuing this process we have

$$
\frac{\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)}{\beta_{n_{1}}(a)}=\frac{\alpha_{\mathrm{rad}\left(n_{1}\right)}(a)}{\beta_{\mathrm{rad}\left(n_{1}\right)}(a)}
$$

and since $\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right)=\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{2}\right)$,

$$
\frac{\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)}{\beta_{n_{1}}(a)}=\frac{\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)}{\beta_{n_{2}}(a)}
$$

Now, let $n_{1}$ be a positive integer such that $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$, and let $a$ be a non-zero integer. Suppose that we have $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)=2 \beta_{n_{1}}(a)$. Since

$$
a^{\beta_{n_{1}}(a) \cdot n_{1}} \equiv-1 \quad\left(\bmod n_{1}\right)
$$

it follows that

$$
\left(a^{\beta_{n_{1}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{4}}\right)^{4} \equiv-1 \quad(\bmod 4)
$$

in contradiction with

$$
\left(a^{\beta_{n_{1}}(a) \cdot \frac{n_{1}}{4}}\right)^{4} \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod 4)
$$

Thus $\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)=\beta_{n_{1}}(a)$.
If $n$ is a prime power, then $\beta_{n}=\beta_{\operatorname{rad}(n)}$, in analogy with Proposition 2.3 for $\alpha_{n}$.
Proposition 3.2. Let p be a prime number and let $a$ be an integer. Then we have

$$
\beta_{p^{k}}(a)=\beta_{p}(a)
$$

for every positive integer $k$.

Proof. This result is trivial for every integer $a$ not coprime to $p$. Suppose now that $a$ is coprime to $p$. For $p=2$, then, by Proposition 3.1, we have

$$
\beta_{2^{k}}(a)=\alpha_{2^{k}}(a)=1
$$

for every positive integer $k$. For an odd prime number $p \geqslant 3$, Proposition 3.1 and Proposition 2.3 lead to

$$
\beta_{p^{k}}(a)=\frac{\alpha_{p^{k}}(a)}{\alpha_{p}(a)} \cdot \beta_{p}(a)=\beta_{p}(a)
$$

for every positive integer $k$. This completes the proof.
Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be two positive integers such that

$$
\begin{cases}\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1 ; \\ 2 \operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2 .\end{cases}
$$

It immediately follows that $\beta_{n_{1}}(a)=\beta_{n_{2}}(a)=0$ for every integer $a$ not coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$. Finally, we determine the relationship between $\beta_{n_{1}}(a)$ and $\beta_{n_{2}}(a)$ for every integer $a$ coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$.
Theorem 3.3. Let $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ be two positive integers such that

$$
\begin{cases}\operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1 ; \\ 2 \operatorname{rad}\left(n_{1}\right) \mid n_{2} \text { and } n_{2} \mid n_{1}, & \text { if } v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2 .\end{cases}
$$

Let a be an integer coprime to $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$. Then, we have

$$
\beta_{n_{1}}(a)=\frac{\beta_{n_{2}}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\beta_{n_{2}}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right)}
$$

Proof. If $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1$, then Theorem 2.5 and Proposition 3.1 lead to

$$
\frac{\beta_{n_{2}}(a)}{\beta_{n_{1}}(a)}=\frac{\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)}{\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha_{n_{2}}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right) .
$$

Since $v_{2}\left(n_{2}\right)=v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \leqslant 1$, it follows that $\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right) / n_{2}$ is odd and hence, we have

$$
\frac{\beta_{n_{2}}(a)}{\beta_{n_{1}}(a)}=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\alpha_{n_{2}}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\beta_{n_{2}}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n_{1}, \mathcal{R}_{n_{2}}(a)\right)}{n_{2}}\right) .
$$

If $v_{2}\left(n_{1}\right) \geqslant 2$, then $\beta_{n_{1}}(a)=\alpha_{n_{1}}(a)$ and $\beta_{n_{2}}(a)=\alpha_{n_{2}}(a)$ by Proposition 3.1 and the result follows from Theorem 2.5.

Thus, as for $\alpha_{n}$, the determination of $\beta_{n}$ is reduced to the case where $n$ is square-free.
Corollary 3.4. Let $n$ be a positive integer such that $v_{2}(n) \leqslant 1$. Then, for every integer a, coprime to $n$, we have

$$
\beta_{n}(a)=\frac{\beta_{\mathrm{rad}(n)}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\beta_{\mathrm{rad}(n)}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n, \mathcal{R}_{\mathrm{rad}(n)}(a)\right)}{\operatorname{rad}(n)}\right)}
$$

Corollary 3.5. Let $n$ be a positive integer such that $v_{2}(n) \geqslant 2$. Then, for every integer a, coprime to $n$, we have

$$
\beta_{n}(a)=\frac{\beta_{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}(a)}{\operatorname{gcd}\left(\beta_{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}(a), \frac{\operatorname{gcd}\left(n, \mathcal{R}_{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}(a)\right)}{2 \operatorname{rad}(n)}\right)}
$$

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