

## On the Power Graph of a Finite Group

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**Abstract.** The power graph  $P(G)$  of a group  $G$  is the graph whose vertex set is the group elements and two elements are adjacent if one is a power of the other. In this paper, we consider some graph theoretical properties of a power graph  $P(G)$  that can be related to its group theoretical properties. As consequences of our results, simple proofs for some earlier results are presented.

### 1. Introduction

All groups and graphs in this paper are finite. Throughout the paper, we follow the terminology and notation of [11, 12] for groups and [18] for graphs.

Groups are the main mathematical tools for studying symmetries of an object and symmetries are usually related to graph automorphisms, when a graph is related to our object. Groups linked with graphs have been arguably the most famous and productive area of algebraic graph theory, see [1, 11] for details. The power graphs is a new representation of groups by graphs. These graphs were first used by Chakrabarty et al. [4] by using semigroups. It must be mentioned that the authors of [4] were motivated by some papers of Kelarev and Quinn [8–10] regarding digraphs constructed from semigroups. We also encourage interested readers to consult papers by Cameron and his co-workers on power graphs constructed from finite groups [2, 3].

Suppose  $G$  is a finite group. The *power graph*  $P(G)$  is a graph in which  $V(P(G)) = G$  and two distinct elements  $x$  and  $y$  are adjacent if and only if one of them is a power of the other. If  $G$  is a finite group then it can be easily seen that the power graph  $P(G)$  is a connected graph of diameter 2. In [4], it is proved that for a finite group  $G$ ,  $P(G)$  is complete if and only if  $G$  is a cyclic group of order 1 or  $p^m$ , for some prime number  $p$  and positive integer  $m$ .

Following [12, 13], two finite groups  $G$  and  $H$  are said to be conformal if and only if they have the same number of elements of each order. In [13], the following question was investigated:

**Question:** *For which natural numbers  $n$  are any two conformal groups of order  $n$  isomorphic?*

Let  $G$  be a group and  $x \in G$ . We denote by  $o(x)$  the order of  $x$  and  $G$  is said to be EPO–group, if all non-trivial element orders of  $G$  are prime. An EPPO–group is that its element orders are prime power.

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The set of all elements order of  $G$  is called its *spectrum*, denoted by  $\pi_e(G)$ , A maximal subgroup  $H$  of  $G$  is denoted by  $H < \cdot G$  and the set of all elements of  $G$  of order  $k$  is denoted by  $\Omega_k(G)$ .

Suppose  $\Gamma$  is a graph. A subset  $X$  of the vertices of  $\Gamma$  is called a *clique* if the induced subgraph on  $X$  is a complete graph. The maximum size of a clique in  $\Gamma$  is called the *clique number* of  $\Gamma$  and denoted by  $\omega(\Gamma)$ . A subset  $Y$  of  $V(\Gamma)$  is an *independent set* if the induced subgraph on  $X$  has no edges. The maximum size of an independent set is called the *independence number* of  $G$  and denoted by  $\alpha(G)$ . The *chromatic number* of  $\Gamma$  is the smallest number of colors needed to color the vertices of  $\Gamma$  so that no two adjacent vertices share the same color. This number is denoted by  $\chi(\Gamma)$ .

Throughout this paper our notation is standard and they are taken from the standard books on graph theory and group theory such as [12, 18].

## 2. Main Results

Suppose  $G$  is a finite group of order  $n$ . Chakrabarty, Ghosh and Sen [4] proved that the number of edges of  $P(G)$  can be computed by the following formula:

$$e = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{a \in G} \{2o(a) - \phi(o(a)) - 1\},$$

where  $\phi$  is the Euler's totient function. In the case that  $G$  is cyclic, we have:

$$e = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d|n} \{2d - \phi(d) - 1\}\phi(d).$$

Moreover,  $P(Z_n)$  is nonplanar when  $\phi(n) > 7$  or  $n = 2^m$ ,  $m \geq 3$ . Finally, if  $n \geq 3$  then  $P(Z_n)$  is Hamiltonian.

Suppose  $D(n)$  denotes the set of all positive divisors of  $n$ . It is well-known that  $(D(n), |)$  is a distributive lattice.  $D(n)$  is a Boolean algebra if and only if  $n$  is square-free. In the following theorem we apply the structure of this lattice to compute the clique and chromatic number of  $P(Z_n)$ .

**Lemma 1** Suppose  $G$  is a group and  $A \subseteq G$ . The vertices of  $A$  constitute a complete subgraph in  $P(G)$  if and only if  $\{\langle x \rangle \mid x \in A\}$  is a chain.

*Proof* Suppose  $C$  is a clique in  $P(G)$ . To prove that  $\{\langle x \rangle \mid x \in C\}$  is a chain, we proceed by induction on  $|V(C)|$ . If  $|C| = 2$  the result is obvious. If  $V(C) = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  then by induction hypothesis,  $\{\langle x_i \rangle \mid 1 \leq i \leq n - 1\}$  is a chain in  $P(G)$ . Without loss of generality we can assume that  $1 \subseteq \langle x_1 \rangle \subseteq \langle x_2 \rangle \subseteq \dots \subseteq \langle x_{n-1} \rangle$ . Consider  $t = \max\{i \mid \langle x_i \rangle \subseteq \langle x_n \rangle\}$ . If  $t = n - 1$  then the result is proved. Otherwise,  $\langle x_t \rangle \subseteq \langle x_n \rangle \subseteq \langle x_{t+1} \rangle$ , as desired. Conversely, by definition of power graph, every chain of cyclic subgroups is a clique.  $\square$

**Theorem 2** Suppose  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$ , where  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_r$  are prime numbers. Then

$$\omega(P(Z_n)) = \chi(P(Z_n)) = p_r^{\alpha_r} + \sum_{j=0}^{r-2} (p_{r-j-1}^{\alpha_{r-j-1}} - 1) \left( \prod_{i=0}^j \phi(p_{r-i}^{\alpha_{r-i}}) \right).$$

*Proof* Define the relation  $\sim$  on  $Z_n$  by  $a \sim b$  if and only if they have the same order. Then it can easily seen that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation on  $Z_n$  and  $\frac{Z_n}{\sim}$  can be equipped with an order such that  $\frac{Z_n}{\sim} \cong D(n)$ . Here  $\frac{a}{\sim} \leq \frac{b}{\sim}$  if and only if  $o(a)|o(b)$ . Choose an element  $a \in Z_n$ . By our definition, the elements of  $\frac{a}{\sim}$  are adjacent in  $P(Z_n)$ . Moreover, for each chain  $\frac{v_1}{\sim}, \frac{v_2}{\sim}, \dots, \frac{v_t}{\sim}$  of elements in  $\frac{Z_n}{\sim}, \cup_{i=1}^t \frac{v_i}{\sim}$  is a complete subgraph of  $P(Z_n)$ . For an arbitrary element  $\frac{u}{\sim} \in \frac{Z_n}{\sim}$ , define  $d(\frac{a}{\sim}, \frac{u}{\sim})$  to be the same as distance between corresponding elements of  $D(n)$ .

To find a maximal complete subgraph of  $P(Z_n)$ , by Lemma 1 it is enough to obtain a maximal chain

$$Q : \frac{a_0}{\sim} = \frac{0}{\sim}, \frac{a_1}{\sim}, \frac{a_2}{\sim}, \dots, \frac{a_l}{\sim}, \frac{n}{\sim} = \frac{a_{l+1}}{\sim} \tag{1}$$

such that  $Q$  has the maximum length,  $\frac{a_1}{\sim} \cup \frac{a_2}{\sim} \cup \dots \cup \frac{a_l}{\sim}$  has the maximum possible size and  $l + 1 = \alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_r$ . To do this, it is enough to choose  $a_1$  to be an element of order  $p_r$ ,  $a_2$  to be an element of order  $p_r^2, \dots, a_{\alpha_r}$  to be an element of order  $p_r^{\alpha_r}$ ,  $a_{\alpha_r+1}$  to be an element of order  $p_r^{\alpha_r} p_{r-1}$  and so on. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(P(Z_n)) &= \left| \frac{a_0}{\sim} \right| + \left| \frac{a_1}{\sim} \right| + \dots + \left| \frac{a_{l+1}}{\sim} \right| \\ &= (\phi(p_r) + \phi(p_r^2) + \dots + \phi(p_r^{\alpha_r})) \\ &+ \phi(p_r^{\alpha_r})(\phi(p_{r-1}) + \dots + \phi(p_{r-1}^{\alpha_{r-1}})) \\ &+ \dots \\ &+ \phi(p_r^{\alpha_r}) \dots \phi(p_2^{\alpha_2})(\phi(p_1) + \dots + \phi(p_1^{\alpha_1})) + 1 \\ &= p_r^{\alpha_r} + \sum_{j=0}^{r-2} (p_{r-j-1}^{\alpha_{r-j-1}} - 1) \left( \prod_{i=0}^j \phi(p_{r-i}^{\alpha_{r-i}}) \right). \end{aligned}$$

To complete the proof we have to prove that  $\omega(P(Z_n)) = \chi(P(Z_n))$  and this is a direct consequence of the strong perfect graph theorem [5].  $\square$

The *exponent* of a finite group  $G$  is defined as the least common multiple of all elements of  $G$ , denoted by  $Exp(G)$ . It is easy to see that if  $G$  is nilpotent then there exists an element  $a \in G$  such that  $o(a) = Exp(G)$ . Such groups are said to be *full exponent*.

**Theorem 3** Suppose that  $G$  is a full exponent group and  $n = Exp(G) = p_1^{\beta_1} p_2^{\beta_2} \dots p_r^{\beta_r}$ , where  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_r$  are prime numbers. If  $x$  is an element of order  $n$  then

$$\omega(P(G)) = \chi(P(G)) = p_r^{\beta_r} + \sum_{j=0}^{r-2} (p_{r-j-1}^{\beta_{r-j-1}} - 1) \left( \prod_{i=0}^j \phi(p_{r-i}^{\beta_{r-i}}) \right).$$

*Proof* By Lemma 1, a subset  $A$  of  $G$  constitutes a clique in  $P(G)$  if and only if  $\{\langle x \rangle \mid x \in A\}$  is a chain. To obtain a maximal clique in  $P(G)$ , we have to choose a chain  $1 \subseteq \langle x_1 \rangle \subseteq \langle x_2 \rangle \subseteq \dots \subseteq \langle x_t \rangle$  such that  $o(x_t) = o(x)$  and  $1 + \sum_{i=1}^t \phi(o(x_i))$  has maximum value among all possible chains of subgroups of  $\langle x \rangle$ . Now a similar argument as given in the proof of Theorem 2, completes the proof.  $\square$

Our calculations on the small group library of GAP [15] suggest the following conjecture:

**Conjecture 1:** The Theorem 3 is correct in general.

**Corollary 4** Let  $G$  be a finite group. Then the power graph  $P(G)$  is planar if and only if  $\pi_e(G) \subseteq \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ .

*Proof* Suppose  $P(G)$  is planar. Then  $P(G)$  does not have the complete graph  $K_5$  as its induced subgraph and the Theorem 3 concludes the result. Conversely, if  $\pi_e(G) \subseteq \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  then it can easily be seen that  $P(G)$  can be embedded into sphere, as desired.  $\square$

In [4, Lemma 4.7], the authors proved that if  $G$  is a cyclic group of order  $n$ ,  $n \geq 3$  and  $\phi(n) > n$  then  $P(G)$  is not planar. Also, in [4, Lemma 4.8] it is proved that a cyclic group of order  $2^n$ ,  $n \geq 3$ , is not planar. In the following corollary we apply Corollary 4 to find a simple classification for planarity of the power graph of cyclic groups.

**Corollary 5** The power graph of a cyclic group of order  $n$  is planar if and only if  $n = 2, 3, 4$ .

In what follows,  $U_n$  denotes the groups of units in the ring  $Z_n$ . In the following corollary a new simple proof for [4, Lemma 4.10] is presented.

**Corollary 6** The power graph of  $U_n$  is planar if and only if  $n|240$ .

*Proof* Suppose  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$ , where  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$  are distinct primes. Then by [7, Theorems 6.11, 6.13 and Corollary 6.14],  $U_{p^e}$  is cyclic for odd  $p$ ,  $U_2 \cong 1$ ,  $U_4 \cong Z_2$ ,  $U_{2^n} \cong Z_2 \times Z_{2^{n-2}}$  and  $U_n \cong U_{p_1^{e_1}} \times \cdots \times U_{p_k^{e_k}}$ . Therefore, by Corollary 4,  $n|240$ .  $\square$

Consider the dihedral group  $D_{2n}$  presented by

$$D_{2n} = \langle x, y \mid x^n = y^2 = e \ \& \ y^{-1}xy = x^{-1} \rangle.$$

From [4, Corollary 4.3], we can deduce that the number of edges of  $P(D_{2n})$  is given by  $e = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d|n} \{2d\phi(d) - \phi(d)^2\} + n$ . This graph is neither Eulerian nor hamiltonian, since the group has elements of order 2.

By corollary 5, it is easy to prove the power graph of a dihedral group of order  $2n$  is planar if and only if  $n = 2, 3, 4$ .

**Corollary 7**  $\chi(P(D_{2n})) = \omega(P(D_{2n})) = \chi(P(Z_n))$ .

*Proof* Notice that the power graph  $P(D_{2n})$  is a union of  $P(Z_n)$  and  $n$  copy of  $K_2$  that share in the identity element of  $D_{2n}$ .  $\square$

The semi-dihedral group  $SD_{2^n}$  is presented by

$$SD_{2^n} = \langle x, y \mid x^{2^{n-1}} = y^2 = 1, yxy = r^{2^{n-2}-1} \rangle.$$

**Corollary 8** The power graph  $P(SD_{2^n})$  is a union of a complete graph of order  $2^n$  and  $2^n$  copies of  $K_2$  that share in the identity vertex. This graph is non-Eulerian, non-hamiltonian and nonplanar, for  $n \geq 3$ . Moreover,  $\chi(P(SD_{2^n})) = \omega(P(SD_{2^n})) = \alpha(P(SD_{2^n})) = 2^n$ .

Following [6] we assume that  $P$  is a finite partially ordered set (poset for short) which possesses a rank function  $r : P \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  with the property that  $r(p) = 0$ , for some minimal element  $p$  of  $P$  and  $r(q) = r(p) + 1$  whenever  $q$  covers  $p$ . Let  $N_k := \{p \in P : r(p) = k\}$  be its  $k^{\text{th}}$  level and let  $r(P) := \max\{r(p) : p \in P\}$  be the rank of  $P$ . An antichain or Sperner family in  $P$  is a subset of pairwise incomparable elements of  $P$ . It is clear that each level is an antichain. The width (Dilworth or Sperner number) of  $P$  is the maximum size  $d(P)$  of an antichain of  $P$ . The poset  $P$  is said to have the Sperner property if  $d(P) = \max_k |N_k|$ . A  $k$ -family in  $P$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq r(P)$ , is a subset of  $P$  containing no  $(k + 1)$ -chain in  $P$ , and  $P$  has the strong Sperner property if for each  $k$  the largest size of a  $k$ -family in  $P$  equals the largest size of a union of  $k$  levels.

**Theorem 9** Suppose that  $n = p_1^{\beta_1} \cdots p_r^{\beta_r}$  is the prime decomposition of  $n$  and  $m = \beta_1 + \cdots + \beta_r$ . Then  $\alpha(P(Z_n))$  is the coefficient of the middle or the two middle term of  $\prod_{j=1}^m (1 + x + \cdots + x^{\beta_j})$ .

*Proof* It is well-known that the lattice of divisors of a natural number, ordered by divisibility, has strong Sperner property and so its largest antichain is its largest rank level.  $\square$

Let  $\Gamma$  be a graph. The minimum number of vertices of  $\Gamma$  which need to be removed to disconnect the remaining vertices of  $\Gamma$  from each other is called the connectivity of  $\Gamma$ , denoted by  $\kappa(\Gamma)$ . If  $G$  is finite group then we define:

$$M(G) = \{x \in G ; \langle x \rangle < \cdot G\}.$$

**Theorem 10** Suppose  $G$  is a non-cyclic group and  $x \in G$  such that  $\langle x \rangle < \cdot G$ . Define  $r(x) = \cup_{y \in M(G) - \langle x \rangle} (\langle x \rangle \cap \langle y \rangle)$ . Then,

$$\kappa(P(G)) \leq \text{Min}\{|r(x)| ; \langle x \rangle < \cdot G\}.$$

*Proof* Suppose  $\langle x \rangle$  is a maximal cyclic subgroup of  $G$ . We claim that  $r(x)$  is a cut set of  $P(G)$ . Since  $G$  is noncyclic, there exists another maximal cyclic subgroup  $\langle y \rangle$  different from  $\langle x \rangle$ . If  $r(x)$  is not a cut set of  $P(G)$  then there exists a shortest path  $Q : x = x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n = y$  in  $P(G)$  connecting  $x$  and  $y$ . Without loss of generality we can assume that  $x_{2k}, 0 \leq k \leq \lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$ , are generators of maximal cyclic subgroups of  $G$ . Thus,  $x_1 \in \langle x \rangle \cap \langle x_2 \rangle \subseteq r(x)$  contradict by our assumption. This completes the proof.  $\square$

For a finite group  $G$ , the set of all maximal cyclic subgroups of  $G$  is denoted by  $MaxCyc(G)$ .

**Lemma 11** Suppose  $G$  is a non-cyclic finite group,  $S \subseteq G - M(G)$ ,  $MaxCyc(G) = \{\langle x_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle x_r \rangle\}$  and  $A = \{x_1, \dots, x_r\}$ .  $S$  is a minimal cut set with this property that each component of  $P(G) - S$  has exactly one element of  $A$  if and only if  $S = \cup_{x \in M(G)} r(x)$ .

*Proof* If  $S = \cup_{x \in M(G)} r(x)$  then by an argument similar to the proof of Theorem 10, one can see that if  $x, y \in M(G)$  and  $\langle x \rangle \neq \langle y \rangle$  then  $\{x_1, x_3, \dots\} \subseteq S$ , where  $x = x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n = y$  is a shortest path in  $P(G)$  connecting  $x$  and  $y$ . Therefore, if  $x, y \in M(G)$ ,  $\langle x \rangle \neq \langle y \rangle$  then  $x$  and  $y$  are not in the same component of  $P(G) - S$ .

Conversely, we assume that  $S$  is a cut set with this property that each component of  $P(G) - S$  has exactly one element of  $A$  and  $x, y \in A$ . Suppose  $t \in \langle x \rangle \cap \langle y \rangle$  and  $t \notin S$ . Then  $t$  is adjacent to  $x$  and  $y$  and so there exists a component of  $P(G) - S$  containing both of  $x$  and  $y$ , a contradiction. Therefore,  $\cup_{x \in M(G)} r(x) \subseteq S$ . On the other hand, we assume that  $z \in S$  and  $\langle t \rangle$  is a maximal cyclic subgroup of  $G$  containing  $z$ . By minimality of  $S$ , there are at least two components  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  of  $P(G) - S$  such that  $z$  is adjacent to a vertex  $v_1 \in X_1$  and a vertex  $v_2 \in X_2$ . Without loss of generality, we can assume that  $X_1$  is the component containing  $t$  and  $v_1 = t$ . Obviously,  $\langle v_2 \rangle \not\subseteq \langle t \rangle$  and so there exists a vertex  $t' \in A \cap X_2$  such that  $\langle v_2 \rangle \subseteq \langle t' \rangle$ . Since  $z$  is adjacent to  $v_2$ ,  $\langle z \rangle \subseteq \langle v_2 \rangle$  or  $\langle v_2 \rangle \subseteq \langle z \rangle$ . If  $\langle z \rangle \subseteq \langle v_2 \rangle$  then  $z \in \langle t \rangle \cap \langle t' \rangle$ , as desired. If  $\langle v_2 \rangle \subseteq \langle z \rangle$  then  $v_2$  is adjacent to  $t$  which is impossible. This completes our argument.  $\square$

It is easily seen that the power graph of a  $p$ -group  $Q$  is a union of some complete graphs of order  $p$  which share in identity vertex if and only if  $Q$  has exponent  $p$ . In the following theorem we investigate the same problem for an arbitrary group.

**Theorem 12**  $P(G)$  is a union of complete graphs which share the identity element of  $G$  if and only if  $G$  is an EPPO-group and for every maximal cyclic subgroup  $A$  and  $B$  with  $A \neq B$ ,  $A \cap B = \{e\}$ .

*Proof* Suppose there exist  $x \in G$  and prime numbers  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  such that  $p_1, p_2 | o(x)$ . Then the cyclic subgroup  $\langle x \rangle$  is containing non-adjacent elements  $x_1$  of order  $p_1$  and  $x_2$  of order  $p_2$ . Since  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are adjacent to  $x$ , they are in the same block of  $P(G)$ , a contradiction. If  $A = \langle a \rangle$  and  $B = \langle b \rangle$  are maximal cyclic subgroup of  $G$  such that  $e \neq x \in A \cap B$  then  $x, a$  and  $b$  are mutually adjacent and so  $A \subseteq B$  or  $B \subseteq A$ , which is impossible. Conversely, we assume that maximal cyclic subgroups of  $G$  have prime power order and for every maximal cyclic subgroup  $A$  and  $B$  with  $A \neq B$ ,  $A \cap B = \{e\}$ . By Lemma 11,  $S = \cup_{x \in M(G)} r(x) = \{e\}$ . On the other hand, if  $MaxCyc(G) = \{\langle x_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle x_r \rangle\}$  and  $A = \{x_1, \dots, x_r\}$  then by Lemma 11, each component of  $P(G) - \{e\}$  is of form  $\langle x_i \rangle - \{e\}$ , for some  $i, 1 \leq i \leq r$ , which is a complete subgraph of  $P(G)$ . This completes the proof.  $\square$

**Corollary 13** If  $G$  is an EPO-group then  $P(G)$  is a union of some complete graphs which share in the identity element of  $G$ .

**Lemma 14** A finite group  $G$  is EPPO if and only if the vertices of every maximal clique of  $P(G)$  is a maximal cyclic subgroup of  $G$ .

*Proof* ( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose  $H$  is a maximal clique in  $P(G)$  and  $x \in H$ . If  $o(x)$  has at least two prime divisors  $p$  and  $q$  then there are elements of these orders in  $H$  which is impossible.

( $\Rightarrow$ ) By Lemma 1, we map the maximal clique  $H$  in  $P(G)$  to the chain  $1 \subseteq \langle x_1 \rangle \subseteq \langle x_2 \rangle \subseteq \dots \subseteq \langle x_t \rangle$ . Then  $x_t$  has prime power order  $p^\alpha$  and since  $G$  is EPPO group,  $p^\alpha = 1 + \varphi(p) + \dots + \varphi(p^\alpha)$ . This implies that  $H = \langle x_t \rangle$ .  $\square$

A Chinese group theorist Wujie Shi [14] conjectured that a finite group and a finite simple group are

isomorphic if they have the same orders and sets of element orders, see also [16, Question 12.39]. Vasiliev, Grechkoseeva and Mazurov gave an affirmative answer to this question in [17]. In the following theorem this result is applied to obtain a new characterization of finite simple groups by their power graphs.

**Theorem 15** If  $G_1$  is one of the following finite groups

- a) A simple group,
- b) A cyclic group,
- c) A symmetric group,
- d) A dihedral group,
- e) A generalised quaternion group,

and  $G_2$  is a finite group such that  $P(G_1) \cong P(G_2)$  then  $G_1 \cong G_2$ .

*Proof* Since  $P(G_1) \cong P(G_2)$ , by [3, Corollary 3]  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  have the same numbers of elements of each order. To prove (a) it is enough to use this corollary and the main result of [17] mentioned in Introduction.

b) If  $P(G_2) \cong P(Z_n)$  then by the mentioned result of Cameron,  $G_2$  have to exists an element of order  $n$ .

c) By [14],  $G_2 \cong S_n$  if and only if  $\pi_e(G_2) = \pi_e(S_n)$  and  $|G_2| = |S_n|$ , proving the part (c).

d) Suppose  $P(G_2) \cong P(D_{2n})$  then  $|G_2| = 2n$  and  $G_2$  has an element  $a$  of order  $n$ . Since  $G$  has the same number of elements of order 2 as the dihedral group  $D_{2n}$ , we can choose an element  $b$  of order 2 in  $G_2$  such that  $\langle a \rangle \cap \langle b \rangle = 1$ . This implies that  $G_2$  is a semi-direct product of the cyclic group  $Z_n$  by  $Z_2$ . Therefore,  $G_2 \cong D_{2n}$ .

e) Suppose  $Q_{4n}$  denotes the generalized quaternion group of order  $4n$  and  $P(G_2) \cong P(Q_{4n})$ . Then  $|S| > 1$ , where  $S$  is the set of vertices of the power graph  $P(G_2)$  which are joined to all other vertices. We now apply [3, Proposition 4] to deduce that  $G_2$  is isomorphic to  $Q_{4n}$ .  $\square$

Let  $p$  be an odd prime number. Two groups of order  $2p^2$  have isomorphic power graph if and only if they are isomorphic. This is a direct consequence of [13, Lemma 1]. In [2, Theorem 1], Peter Cameron characterized abelian groups by their power graphs. In the following theorem a simple proof for this result is presented.

**Theorem 16** If  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are finite abelian groups such that  $P(G_1) \cong P(G_2)$  then  $G_1 \cong G_2$ .

*Proof* Suppose  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are finite abelian groups such that  $P(G_1) \cong P(G_2)$ . Then by [3, Corollary 3],  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are conformal. On the other hand, by [12, pp 107-109], finite abelian conformal groups are isomorphic. Therefore,  $G_1 \cong G_2$ .  $\square$

Suppose  $p$  is prime. Then there are five groups of order  $p^3$  up to isomorphism. From the cyclic decomposition of finite abelian groups, there are three abelian groups isomorphic to  $G_1 \cong Z_p \times Z_p \times Z_p$ ,  $G_2 \cong Z_p \times Z_{p^2}$ ,  $G_3 \cong Z_{p^3}$ . There are also two non-abelian groups,  $G_4$  and  $G_5$ , of order  $p^3$ . If  $p = 2$  then these groups are isomorphic to  $D_8$  and  $Q_8$ , respectively. If  $p$  is odd then

$$G_4 \cong \langle a, b | a^{p^2} = b^p = b a b^{p-1} a^{p^2-p-1} = e \rangle,$$

is a non-abelian group of order  $p^3$ . It has  $p^2 - 1$  elements of order  $p$ , which fall into two conjugacy classes, of sizes  $p - 1$  and  $p^2 - p$ ; and  $p^3 - p^2$  elements of order  $p^2$ , forming a single conjugacy class. There is also another group isomorphic to semi-direct product  $Z_{p^2} \rtimes Z_p$ . It has  $p^3 - 1$  elements of order  $p$  falling into three conjugacy classes of sizes  $p - 1$ ,  $p^2 - p$  and  $p^3 - p^2$ . Suppose  $G = G_1$  and  $H = G_4$ . An easy calculation shows that  $P(G) \cong P(H)$ . Therefore, non-cyclic abelian groups cannot be characterized by their power graphs.

**Theorem 17** Let  $G$  be a finite group. The power graph  $P(G)$  is bipartite if and only if  $G$  is an elementary abelian group of even order.

*Proof* Suppose  $P(G)$  is bipartite. If an odd prime  $p$  divides  $|G|$  then the complete graph  $K_p$  can be embedded into  $P(G)$ , a contradiction. On the other hand, if  $G$  has an element of order 4 then  $P(G)$  is containing a copy

of  $K_4$  which is impossible. Therefore,  $G$  is an elementary abelian group of even order. The converse is trivial.  $\square$

A matching on a graph  $G$  is a set of edges of  $G$  such that no two of them share a vertex in common. A maximum matching of  $G$  is a matching with the largest size among all matchings in  $G$ . A vertex cover of  $G$  is a subset  $Q \subseteq V(G)$  that contains at least one end point of each edge. The König-Egerváry theorem [18, Theorem 3.1.16], states that in any bipartite graph, the number of edges in a maximum matching equals the number of vertices in a minimum vertex cover.

**Theorem 18** The power graph  $P(Z_{p^n})$  has the maximum number of edges among all power graphs of  $p$ -groups of order  $p^n$ .

*Proof* Suppose  $G$  is a non-cyclic  $p$ -groups of order  $p^n$ . We construct a bipartite graph  $\Gamma = (X, Y)$  as follows:

$$X = G, Y = Z_{p^n} \text{ and } E(\Gamma) = \{ab \mid a \in X, b \in Y \text{ and } o(a) \leq o(b)\}.$$

We first assume that  $\Gamma$  has a perfect matching  $M$  and  $f : G \rightarrow Z_{p^n}$  is a bijective mapping such that for each  $a \in G$ ,  $a$  and  $f(a)$  are saturated by  $M$ . Thus,  $o(a) - \varphi(o(a)) \leq o(f(a)) - \varphi(o(f(a)))$  and since  $G$  is not cyclic,

$$\sum_{a \in G} [2o(a) - \varphi(o(a))] < \sum_{a \in G} [2o(f(a)) - \varphi(o(f(a)))].$$

But  $\frac{1}{2} [\sum_{a \in G} [2o(a) - \varphi(o(a))] - 1]$  and  $\frac{1}{2} [\sum_{a \in G} [2o(f(a)) - \varphi(o(f(a))) - 1]$  are the number of edges in  $P(G)$  and  $P(Z_{p^n})$ , respectively. So, it is enough to prove that  $\Gamma$  has a perfect matching. By König-Egerváry theorem we have to show that a minimum vertex cover of  $\Gamma$  has exactly  $p^n$  elements. Suppose that  $A$  is a minimum vertex cover of  $\Gamma$  and  $p^\gamma = \max\{o(x) \mid x \in G\}$ . If  $A = X$  then there is nothing to prove that  $|A| = p^n$ . Otherwise, elements of orders  $p^\gamma + 1, p^{\gamma+2}, \dots, p^n$  of  $Y$  are adjacent to all elements of  $G$  and so these elements are in  $A$ . We claim that  $A$  contains all elements of  $Y$  of order  $p^k, k \leq \gamma$ . Define,

$$L_k = \{(x, y) \in X \times Y \mid o(x) = o(y) = p^k\},$$

where  $k \leq \gamma$ . By our definition, if  $(x, y) \in L_k$  then  $x$  is adjacent to  $y$  and so if  $(x, y) \in L_k$  then  $x \in A$  or  $y \in A$ . One can easily seen that  $L_k$  induces a complete bipartite induced subgraph of  $\Gamma$  and hence  $\Omega_{p^k}(G) \subseteq A$  or  $\Omega_{p^k}(Z_{p^n}) \subseteq A$ . Since  $|\Omega_{p^k}(G)| \leq |\Omega_{p^k}(Z_{p^n})|$ , by minimality we can assume that  $\Omega_{p^k}(Z_{p^n}) \subseteq A$ , where  $1 \leq k \leq \gamma$ . Therefore,  $A = Y$  and  $\Gamma$  has a perfect matching. This completes the proof.  $\square$

**Corollary 19** If  $G$  is a non-cyclic  $p$ -group of order  $p^n$  then  $\sum_{x \in G} o(x) < \sum_{x \in Z_{p^n}} o(x)$ .

Our calculations with groups of small order suggest the following conjecture:

**Conjecture 2:** The power graph  $P(Z_n)$  has the maximum number of edges among all power graphs of groups of order  $n$ .

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