# THE MIYAZAWA POLYNOMIAL OF PERIODIC VIRTUAL LINKS

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# Abstract

In this paper, we investigate the behavior of the Miyazawa polynomial of periodic virtual links. As applications, we give some criteria to detect possible periods of a given oriented virtual link.

### 1. Introduction

A classical link L in  $S^3$  is called a *p*-periodic link  $(p \ge 2$  an integer) if there exists an orientation preserving auto-homeomorphism h of  $S^3$  such that h(L) = L, h is of order p and the set of fixed points of h is a circle disjoint from L. In this case,  $L_* = L/\langle h \rangle$  is called the *factor link* of L. A link diagram D in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$  is said to have period p if there exists a rotation  $\phi$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  about the origin **0** through  $2\pi/p$  such that  $\phi(D) = D$ . It is well known that every p-periodic link has a diagram of period p.

In 1988, Murasugi [10] found some relationships between the Jones polynomials of a periodic link and its factor link and showed that the knot  $10_{105}$  has no period. In 1990, Traczyk [13] gave a periodicity criterion for links in  $S^3$  by mapping Kauffman's bracket polynomial homomorphically into the group ring over  $Z_p$  of a cyclic group  $C_{p^n}$  of order  $p^n$  (p a prime), and proved that the knots  $10_{101}$  and  $10_{105}$  have no period seven. In addition, several people found criteria to detect possible periods for an oriented link by using polynomial invariants [1, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16].

In 1996, Kauffman introduced the concept of a virtual link [5]. A virtual link diagram is a link diagram in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  possibly with some encircled crossings without over/under information. Such an encircled crossing is called a virtual crossing. Fig. 1 shows an example of a virtual link diagram. If two virtual link diagrams are related by a finite sequence of generalized Reidemeister moves as described in Fig. 2, they are said to be equivalent. A virtual link is defined to be an equivalence class of virtual link diagrams.

In [5], Kauffman defined a polynomial invariant  $f_L \in \mathbb{Z}[A^{\pm 2}]$  for a virtual link L which we call the *Jones-Kauffman polynomial*. For a classical link L, it is equal to the Jones polynomial  $V_L(t)$  after substituting  $\sqrt{t}$  for  $A^2$ . In 2005, Kamada and Miyazawa [4] introduced the concept of virtual magnetic graph diagrams and defined a 2-variable polynomial invariant for a virtual link derived from virtual magnetic graph diagrams. In [8], Miyazawa defined a virtual link invariant, which generalizes the Jones-Kauffman

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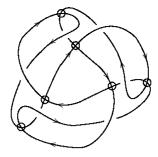
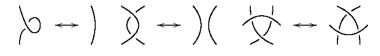
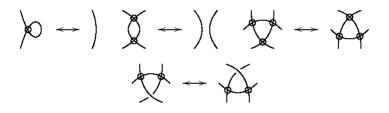


Fig. 1. A virtual link diagram.



Classical Reidemeister moves



Virtual Reidemeister moves

Fig. 2. Generalized Reidemeister moves.

polynomial and the 2-variable polynomial invariant. In [3], Kamada gave some relations of the 2-variable polynomial invariant for a virtual skein triple.

In this paper, we investigate the behavior of the Miyazawa polynomial of periodic virtual links. As applications, we give some criteria to detect possible periods of a given oriented virtual link.

# 2. The Miyazawa polynomial

In this section, we review the Miyazawa polynomial of a virtual link [3, 4, 8].

Let G be an oriented 2-valent graph in  $S^3$ . G is called *magnetic* if the edges of G are oriented alternately as in Fig. 3. We allow G to have components consisting of closed edges without vertices. A *magnetic graph diagram* of a magnetic graph G is a projection image of G on a plane equipped with over/under information on each crossing as in Fig. 4. A *virtual magnetic graph diagram* (or shortly *VMG diagram*) is a magnetic graph diagram possibly with some virtual crossings as in Fig. 5. Two VMG

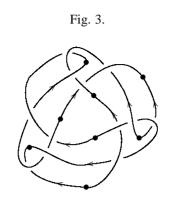


Fig. 4. A magnetic graph diagram.

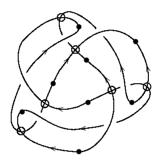


Fig. 5. A virtual magnetic graph diagram.

diagrams are said to be *equivalent* if they are related by a finite sequence of generalized Reidemeister moves. We note that virtual link diagrams are VMG diagrams without vertices. For a VMG diagram D, we denote the sum of the signs of real crossings of D by w(D). It is called the *writhe* of D. A *pure VMG diagram* is a VMG diagram whose crossings are all virtual.

Let D be a pure VMG diagram and E(D) the set of edges of D. A weight map of D is a map  $f: E(D) \rightarrow \{+1, -1\}$  such that the product of images of two adjacent edges by f is -1. We denote the set of weight maps of D by WM(D). For a weight map f of D, we denote  $D_f$  a pure VMG diagram of which each edge is labeled its weight as in Fig. 6. It is called a weighted diagram corresponding to f. If c is a virtual crossing of a weighted diagram  $D_f$ , there exist two types of virtual crossings on  $D_f$ . If the product of weights of two edges which intersect at c is +1 (resp. -1), c is called a regular crossing (resp. irregular crossing).

Let D be a pure VMG diagram and f a weight map of D. Let c be an irregular virtual crossing of  $D_f$ . Suppose that c is formed with two edges  $e_1$  and  $e_{-1}$  whose

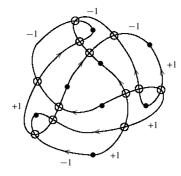


Fig. 6. A weighted pure VMG diagram.

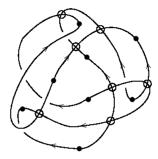


Fig. 7. The raised diagram of the diagram in Fig. 6.

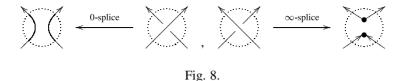
weights are +1 and -1, respectively. Then *c* can be replaced with a real crossing  $\hat{c}$  so that the edges  $e_1$  and  $e_{-1}$  are changed into the overpath and the underpath at  $\hat{c}$ , respectively. Such a replacement is called a *raise* of an irregular crossing. The *raised diagram* of *D* with respect to *f*, which is denoted by  $\hat{D}_f$ , is defined to be the VMG diagram obtained from the weighted diagram  $D_f$  by doing raises of all irregular crossings of  $D_f$ . For example, the raised diagram derived from the weighted diagram in Fig. 6 is given in Fig. 7.

For a pure VMG diagram D, let  $F_D$  be a map from WM(D) to  $\mathbb{Z}$  defined by  $F_D(f) = w(\hat{D}_f)$  for all weight map f of D. If we put WM<sub>n</sub>(D) = { $f \in WM(D) | F_D(f) = n$ } for any integer n, then we have

**Lemma 2.1.** For a pure VMG diagram D and an integer n, there exists a oneto-one correspondence between  $WM_n(D)$  and  $WM_{-n}(D)$ .

Proof. For a weight map f of D, we define a map  $\tilde{f}$  from E(D) to  $\{+1, -1\}$  by

$$\tilde{f}(e) = -f(e)$$
, for all  $e \in E(D)$ .



Then  $\tilde{f}$  is also a weight map of D. Let c be a real crossing of the raised diagram  $\hat{D}_f$ and  $\tilde{c}$  the real crossing of the raised diagram  $\hat{D}_{\tilde{f}}$  corresponding to c. Then  $\operatorname{sign}(\tilde{c}) = -\operatorname{sign}(c)$  and hence  $w(\hat{D}_{\tilde{f}}) = -w(\hat{D}_f)$ . It follows that  $\tilde{f} \in WM_{-n}(D)$  if  $f \in WM_n(D)$ . Now we define a map  $\phi_n$  from  $WM_n(D)$  to  $WM_{-n}(D)$  by

$$\phi_n(f) = \hat{f}$$
, for all  $f \in WM_n(D)$ .

Then  $\phi_n$  is well-defined. Since  $\phi_{-n} \circ \phi_n$  and  $\phi_n \circ \phi_{-n}$  are the identity maps,  $\phi_n$  is a one-to-one correspondence between WM<sub>n</sub>(D) and WM<sub>-n</sub>(D).

Let g be a map from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to a Laurent polynomial ring  $\mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$ . The *double bracket* polynomial  $\langle\!\langle D \rangle\!\rangle_g$  of a pure VMG diagram D associated to g is a Laurent polynomial in  $\mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}, h^{\pm 1}]$  defined by

$$\langle\!\langle D \rangle\!\rangle_g = 2^{-\mu(D)} \sum_{f \in \mathrm{WM}(D)} (g \circ F_D)(f).$$

If c is a real crossing of D, then there are two kinds of splices at c, which are called 0-splice and  $\infty$ -splice at c as in Fig. 8. A state of D is a pure VMG diagram obtained from D by doing 0-splice or  $\infty$ -splice at each real crossing of D. We denote the set of states of D by S(D). For a state s of D, let  $C_0(D; s)$  (resp.  $C_\infty(D; s)$ ) be the set of real crossings of D where 0-splices (resp.  $\infty$ -splices) are applied to obtain s from D. We put

$$P(D; s) = \sum_{c \in C_0(D; s)} \operatorname{sign}(c) - \sum_{c \in C_\infty(D; s)} \operatorname{sign}(c),$$

where sign(c) is the crossing sign of c.

Let *D* be a virtual link diagram of a virtual link *L* and  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$ . In [8], Miyazawa gave a Laurent polynomial  $H_{D,g}(A, h)$  (or briefly, H(D, g)) of *D* associated with *g* in  $\mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}, A^{\pm 1}, h^{\pm 1}]$  defined by

$$H_{D,g}(A, h) = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}(D)} A^{P(D;s)} d^{\mu(s)-1} \langle\!\langle s \rangle\!\rangle,$$

where  $d = -A^2 - A^{-2}$  and  $\mu(s)$  is the number of components of *s*. The *Miyazawa polynomial*  $R_{L,g}(A, h)$  (or briefly, R(L, g)) of *L* associated with *g* is a Laurent polynomial

in  $\mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}, A^{\pm 1}, h^{\pm 1}]$  defined by

$$R_{L,g}(A, h) = R_{D,g}(A, h) = (-A^3)^{-w(D)} H_{D,g}(A, h).$$

In [8], Miyazawa showed that  $R_{L,g}(A,h)$  is a virtual link invariant and gave some properties.

**Proposition 2.2** ([8]). (1) If  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$  is defined by g(n) = 1, then R(L, g) is identical with the Jones-Kauffman polynomial of L. (2) If  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$  is defined by g(n) = |n| and L is a classical link, then R(L, g)

(2) If  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[n^{-1}]$  is defined by g(n) = |n| and L is a classical link, then R(L, g) is equal to zero.

(3) If  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$  is defined by  $g(n) = h^{(1-(-1)^n)/2}$ , then R(L, g) coincides with the 2-variable polynomial defined by Kamada and Miyazawa.

(4) If  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$  is defined by  $g(n) = h^n$  and v(L) is the virtual crossing number of L, then  $v(L) \ge \max \deg_h R(L, g)$ .

REMARK 2.3. In [8], Miyazawa used an arbitrary Laurent polynomial ring  $\Gamma$  over  $\mathbb{Q}$  as the range of g. If  $\Gamma = \mathbb{Q}[h^{\pm 1}]$ , then  $\langle\!\langle D \rangle\!\rangle_g \in \mathbb{Q}[h^{\pm 1}]$  and  $R(L, g) \in \mathbb{Q}[h^{\pm 1}, A^{\pm 1}]$ . Since the ideal of  $\mathbb{Q}[h^{\pm 1}, A^{\pm 1}]$  generated by a non-zero integer is itself, our theorems in Section 3 are meaningless for  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}[h^{\pm 1}]$ . On the other hand, the rage of g in propositions of [8] can be restricted in  $\mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$ . Thus we can use the Laurent polynomial ring  $\mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$  as the range of g. Since the ideals in Section 3 are proper, our theorems are meaningful.

### 3. Periodic virtual links

An oriented virtual link L is said to have period  $p \ge 2$  if it admits an oriented virtual link diagram D in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$  that invariant under the rotation  $\zeta$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  about the origin **0** through  $2\pi/p$ . The virtual link  $L_*$  represented by the quotient  $D/\langle \zeta \rangle$  is called the *factor link* of L. The diagram described in Fig. 1 is a virtual link diagram of a virtual link having period 3.

**Theorem 3.1** (Fermat's little theorem, [2]). If p is a prime and a an integer relatively prime to p, then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p.$$

**Theorem 3.2.** Let p be an odd prime and L a virtual link that has period  $p^r$   $(r \ge 1)$ . Let g be a map from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$ . (1) If  $g: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \to (\mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}], \cdot)$  is a homomorphism, then

$$R(L, g) \equiv [R(L_*, g)]^{p^r} \mod (p, (-A^2 - A^{-2})^{p-1} - 1).$$

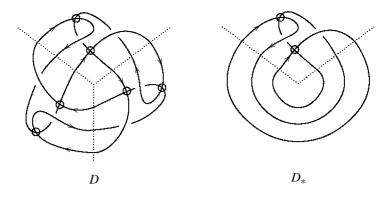


Fig. 9.

(2) If 
$$g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$$
 is defined by  $g(n) = h^{(1-(-1)^n)/2}$ , then

$$R(L, g) \equiv [R(L_*, g)]^{p^r} \mod (p, (-A^2 - A^{-2})^{p-1} - 1, h^{p-1} - 1)$$

Proof. It suffices to prove the theorem for r = 1 (the theorem for r > 1 is proved by applying the argument for r = 1 repeatedly). Let D be a virtual link diagram of Lin  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$  that invariant under the rotation  $\zeta$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  about the origin  $\mathbf{0}$  through  $2\pi/p$ . Then D can be divided into p pieces  $D_0, D_1, \ldots, D_{p-1}$  such that  $\zeta(D_i) = D_{i+1}$  ( $i = 0, 1, \ldots, p - 1$ ) and  $D_p = D_0$ . Let  $I(0, 2\pi/p)$  be the closed domain bounded by two half lines  $\theta = 0$  and  $\theta = 2\pi/p$  in the polar coordinate system. We may assume that  $D_0 = D \cap I(0, 2\pi/p)$ . Let  $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_l$  be the points of intersection of  $D_0$  and the line  $\theta = 0$  and let  $\zeta(A_i) = B_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \ldots, l$ ). By joining  $A_i$  and  $B_i$  on  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus I(0, 2\pi/p)$ by circle  $C_i$  centered 0, we obtain a diagram  $D_*$  of the factor link  $L_*$ . For example, see Fig. 9. For simplicity, we write  $D_* = D/\zeta$ . We note that the rotation  $\zeta : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ maps D onto itself preserving the sign of each crossing. If s is a state in S(D), then either  $\zeta(s) \neq s$  or  $\zeta(s) = s$ .

If  $\zeta(s) \neq s$ , then  $s, \zeta(s), \zeta^2(s), \ldots, \zeta^{p-1}(s)$  are all distinct. Since any two of these are isomorphic, we have p identical terms in H(D, g), and they vanish by reducing modulo p.

If  $\zeta(s) = s$ , then *s* defines a unique quotient state  $s_* (= s/\zeta)$ . Let  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha_*$  be the terms in H(D, g) and  $H(D_*, g)$  which are associated with *s* and  $s_*$ , respectively. Since  $\sum_{C_0(D;s)} \operatorname{sign}(c) = p \cdot \sum_{C_0(D_*;s_*)} \operatorname{sign}(c)$  and  $\sum_{C_\infty(D;s)} \operatorname{sign}(c) = p \cdot \sum_{C_\infty(D_*;s_*)} \operatorname{sign}(c)$ , we have

$$P(D;s) = p \cdot P(D_*;s_*).$$

Then we have that

(3.1) 
$$\alpha = A^{p \cdot P(D_*;s_*)} d^{\mu(s)-1} \langle\!\langle s \rangle\!\rangle, \quad \alpha_* = A^{P(D_*;s_*)} d^{\mu(s_*)-1} \langle\!\langle s_* \rangle\!\rangle.$$

We will compare  $\mu(s) - 1$  and  $\mu(s_*) - 1$ . Let  $G = \{id, \zeta, \dots, \zeta^{p-1}\}$  and  $\mathcal{C} = \{C \mid C \text{ is a component of } s\}$ , where *id* is the identity of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ . Then *G* acts on *C* by  $\zeta^i \cdot C = \zeta^i(C)$ . We put  $\mathcal{C}_G = \{C \in \mathcal{C} \mid gC = C, \forall g \in G\}$  and  $\mathcal{C}/G = \{G(C) \mid G(C) \text{ is the orbit of } C \in \mathcal{C}\}$ . For a set *S*, we denote by |S| the number of elements in *S*. If  $\zeta^i(C) = C$  for some *i*  $(1 \le i \le p - 1)$ , then  $\zeta^j(C) = C$  for all *j* because *p* is prime. Thus |G(C)| = p or 1. We note that |G(C)| = 1 if and only if  $C \in \mathcal{C}_G$ . Since  $\mu(s_*) = |\mathcal{C}/G|$ , we calculate that

(3.2) 
$$\mu(s) = |\mathcal{C}| = |\mathcal{C}_G| + p(|\mathcal{C}/G| - |\mathcal{C}_G|) = p \cdot \mu(s_*) - (p-1)|\mathcal{C}_G|.$$

Since  $\mu(s) - 1 = p(\mu(s_*) - 1) - (p - 1)(|\mathcal{C}_G| - 1)$ , we have that

(3.3) 
$$d^{\mu(s)-1} \equiv d^{p \cdot (\mu(s_*)-1)} \mod (d^{p-1}-1).$$

By Theorem 3.1 and (3.2), it follows that

(3.4) 
$$2^{-\mu(s)} \equiv 2^{p \cdot (-\mu(s_*))} \mod p$$

Let f be a wight map of s. We define a weight map  $\zeta(f)$  of s by, for each edge e of s,

$$\zeta(f)(e) = f(e')$$
 whenever  $\zeta(e') = e$ .

If  $\zeta(f) \neq f$ , then  $f, \zeta(f), \ldots, \zeta^{p-1}(f)$  are all distinct but  $\widehat{s_f}, \widehat{s_{\zeta(f)}}, \ldots, \widehat{s_{\zeta^{p-1}(f)}}$  are equivalent. Thus  $w(\widehat{s_f}) = w(\widehat{s_{\zeta(f)}}) = \cdots = w(\widehat{s_{\zeta^{p-1}(f)}})$ . If  $\zeta(f) = f$ , then f defines a unique weight map  $f_* (= f/\zeta)$  of  $s_*$ . Let WD(s) denote the set of weighted diagram of s, that is, WD(s) = { $s_f \mid f \in WM(s)$ }. Then G acts on WD(s) by

$$\zeta(s_f) = s_{\zeta(f)}.$$

We can put that WD(s) =  $\{s_{f_1}, s_{f_2}, \ldots, s_{f_m}\} \cup \{s_{f_{1,0}}, s_{f_{1,1}}, \ldots, s_{f_{1,p-1}}\} \cup \cdots \cup \{s_{f_{n,0}}, s_{f_{n,1}}, \ldots, s_{f_{n,p-1}}\}$  where  $\zeta(s_{f_i}) = s_{f_i}$  for all i  $(1 \le i \le m)$  and  $f_{j,k} = \zeta^k(f_{j,0})$  for each  $k = 1, 2, \ldots, p-1, j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ . We set that  $w_i = w(\widehat{s_{f_i}})$  and  $w_{j,k} = w(\widehat{s_{f_{j,k}}})$  for each  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m, k = 1, 2, \ldots, p-1, j = 1, 2, \ldots, n$  and set  $w_i^* = w(\widehat{(s_*)_{(f_i)_*}})$  for each  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$ . For each  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, m$ , we have

$$(3.5) w_i = p \cdot w_i^*.$$

For any map  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$ , we have that

$$\langle\!\langle s_* \rangle\!\rangle = 2^{-\mu(s_*)} [g(w_1^*) + \cdots + g(w_m^*)]$$

and

$$\langle\!\langle s \rangle\!\rangle = 2^{-\mu(s)} [g(w_1) + \dots + g(w_m) + p \cdot g(w_{1,0}) + \dots + p \cdot g(w_{m,0})].$$

By (3.4) and (3.5), it follows that

$$\langle\!\langle s \rangle\!\rangle \equiv 2^{p \cdot (-\mu(s_*))} [g(p \cdot w_1^*) + \dots + g(p \cdot w_m^*)] \mod p.$$

(1) If  $g: (Z, +) \to (\mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}], \cdot)$  is a homomorphism, then

(3.6)  

$$\langle\!\langle s_* \rangle\!\rangle^p = 2^{p \cdot (-\mu(s_*))} [g(w_1^*) + \dots + g(w_m^*)]^p \\
\equiv 2^{p \cdot (-\mu(s_*))} [g(w_1^*)^p + \dots + g(w_m^*)^p] \mod p \\
\equiv 2^{p \cdot (-\mu(s_*))} [g(p \cdot w_1^*) + \dots + g(p \cdot w_m^*)] \mod p \\
\equiv \langle\!\langle s \rangle\!\rangle \mod p.$$

By (3.1), (3.3) and (3.6), it follows that

$$\alpha_*^p \equiv \alpha \mod (p, (-A^2 - A^{-2})^{p-1} - 1).$$

Hence we have

$$H(D, g) \equiv [H(D_*, g)]^p \mod (p, (-A^2 - A^{-2})^{p-1} - 1).$$

Since  $w(D) = p \cdot w(D_*)$ ,  $(-A^3)^{-w(D)} = [(-A^3)^{-w(D_*)}]^p$ . Therefore we have

$$R(L, g) \equiv [R(L_*, g)]^p \mod (p, (-A^2 - A^{-2})^{p-1} - 1).$$

(2) Suppose that  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$  is defined by  $g(n) = h^{(1-(-1)^n)/2}$ . Since  $w_i = p \cdot w_i^*$  and p is an odd prime,  $w_i$  and  $w_i^*$  have the same parity and hence  $g(w_i) = g(w_i^*)$ . Since  $g(w_i^*)$  is either h or 1, we have

$$g(w_i^*)^p \equiv g(w_i^*) \mod (h^{p-1} - 1).$$

Then we know that

(3.7)  

$$\langle \langle s_* \rangle \rangle^p = 2^{p \cdot (-\mu(s_*))} [g(w_1^*) + \dots + g(w_m^*)]^p \\
\equiv 2^{p \cdot (-\mu(s_*))} [g(w_1^*)^p + \dots + g(w_m^*)^p] \mod p \\
\equiv 2^{p \cdot (-\mu(s_*))} [g(w_1^*) + \dots + g(w_m^*)] \mod (p, h^{p-1} - 1) \\
\equiv 2^{p \cdot (-\mu(s_*))} [g(w_1) + \dots + g(w_m)] \mod (p, h^{p-1} - 1) \\
\equiv \langle \langle s \rangle \rangle \mod (p, h^{p-1} - 1).$$

By (3.1), (3.3) and (3.7), it follows that

$$\alpha_*^p \equiv \alpha \mod (p, (-A^2 - A^{-2})^{p-1} - 1, h^{p-1} - 1).$$

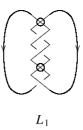


Fig. 10.

Thus we have

$$H(D, g) \equiv [H(D_*, g)]^p \mod (p, (-A^2 - A^{-2})^{p-1} - 1, h^{p-1} - 1).$$

Hence we get

$$R(L, g) \equiv [R(L_*, g)]^p \mod (p, (-A^2 - A^{-2})^{p-1} - 1, h^{p-1} - 1).$$

This completes the proof.

EXAMPLE 3.3. Let  $L_1$  be a virtual knot as in Fig. 10. Then the Jones-Kauffman polynomial of  $L_1$  is equal to 1 [8]. Let  $g: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$  be a map given by  $g(n) = h^n$ . It is known [8] that

$$R_{L_1}^g = \frac{1}{2}(1+A^{-8}) + \frac{1}{4}(1-A^{-8})(h^2+h^{-2}).$$

Suppose that  $L_1$  has period 3. From Theorem 3.2, it follows that

$$\frac{1}{4}(1 - A^{-8}) \equiv 0 \mod (3, (-A^2 - A^{-2})^2 - 1).$$

Since  $(-A^2 - A^{-2})^2 - 1 = A^4 + 1 + A^{-4} = A^{-4}(A^8 + A^4 + 1)$  and  $1 - A^{-8} = (A^{-4} - A^{-8})(A^8 + A^4 + 1) + (1 - A^4)$ ,

$$\frac{1}{4}(1 - A^{-8}) \equiv 1 + 2A^4 \mod (3, A^8 + A^4 + 1).$$

Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be the ideal of  $\mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}, A^{\pm 1}]$  generated by 3. We note that the quotient ring of  $\mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}, A^{\pm 1}]$  by  $\mathcal{I}$  is isomorphic to the ring  $\mathbb{Z}_3[A^{\pm 1}]$ . So it is not true that  $1+2A^4 \equiv 0 \mod (3, A^8 + A^4 + 1)$ . Hence  $L_1$  does not have period 3.

**Theorem 3.4.** Let p be a prime and L a virtual link that has period  $p^r$   $(r \ge 1)$ . Let g be a map from  $\mathbb{Z}$  to  $\mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}]$ . Then

$$R_{L,g}(A, h) \equiv R_{L,g}(A^{-1}, h) \mod (p, A^{p'} - 1).$$

Proof. Let *D* be a virtual link diagram of *L* in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$  that invariant under the rotation  $\zeta$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  about the origin **0** through  $2\pi/p^r$  and  $D_* = D/\zeta$ . Let *s* be a state of *D*.

If  $\zeta(s) \neq s$ , then there exist  $p^n$  distinct but equivalent states  $s, \zeta(s), \ldots, \zeta^{p^n-1}(s)$  for some  $n \ (1 \leq n \leq r)$ . Contribution of these states to the polynomial vanishes by reducing modulo p.

If  $\zeta(s) = s$ , then s defines a unique quotient states  $s_*$   $(= s/\zeta)$ . Since  $P(D; s) = p^r \cdot P(D_*; s_*)$ , we get

$$A^{P(D;s)} = A^{p^r \cdot P(D_*;s_*)} \equiv 1 \mod (A^{p^r} - 1).$$

Since  $d = -A^2 - A^{-2}$  is symmetric and  $\langle \langle s \rangle \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}[2^{-1}, h^{\pm 1}]$ , we obtain

$$H_{D,g}(A, h) \equiv H_{D,g}(A^{-1}, h) \mod (p, A^{p^r} - 1).$$

Since  $w(D) = p^r \cdot w(D_*)$ ,

$$(-A^3)^{-w(D)} \equiv (-A^{-3})^{-w(D)} \mod (A^{p^r} - 1).$$

Hence we have

$$R_{L,g}(A, h) \equiv R_{L,g}(A^{-1}, h) \mod (p, A^{p^r} - 1).$$

This completes the proof.

**Corollary 3.5.** Let p be a prime and L a virtual link that has period  $p^r$ . Let  $g: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \to (\mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}], \cdot)$  be a homomorphism. Then

$$R_{L,g}(A, h) \equiv R_{L,g}(A^{-1}, h^{-1}) \mod (p, A^{p'} - 1).$$

Proof. Let D a virtual link diagram of L in  $\mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{0\}$  that invariant under the rotation  $\zeta$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  about the origin **0** through  $2\pi/p^r$  and  $D_* = D/\zeta$ .

Let s be a state of D. Since  $g: (\mathbb{Z}, +) \to (\mathbb{Z}[h^{\pm 1}], \cdot)$  is a homomorphism, we have  $\langle \langle s \rangle \rangle (h) = \langle \langle s \rangle \rangle (h^{-1})$  by Lemma 2.1. By the similar argument to Theorem 3.4, we have

$$R_{L,g}(A, h) \equiv R_{L,g}(A^{-1}, h^{-1}) \mod (p, A^{p^r} - 1).$$

This completes the proof.

EXAMPLE 3.6. Let  $L_1$  be a virtual knot as in Fig. 10. Then

$$R^{g}_{L_{1}}(A, h) - R^{g}_{L_{1}}(A^{-1}, h) = \frac{1}{2}(A^{-8} - A^{8}) + \frac{1}{4}(A^{8} - A^{-8})(h^{2} + h^{-2}).$$

We observe that

$$\frac{1}{2}(A^{-8} - A^8) \equiv 2A + A^2 \neq 0 \mod (3, A^3 - 1).$$

Hence this is an another proof to show that  $L_1$  does not have period 3.

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