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# THE CUBIC MAPPING GRAPH FOR THE RING <br> OF GAUSSIAN INTEGERS MODULO $n$ 

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#### Abstract

The article studies the cubic mapping graph $\Gamma(n)$ of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$, the ring of Gaussian integers modulo $n$. For each positive integer $n>1$, the number of fixed points and the in-degree of the elements $\overline{1}$ and $\overline{0}$ in $\Gamma(n)$ are found. Moreover, complete characterizations in terms of $n$ are given in which $\Gamma_{2}(n)$ is semiregular, where $\Gamma_{2}(n)$ is induced by all the zero-divisors of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$.


Keywords: Gaussian integers modulo $n$, cubic mapping graph, fixed point, semiregularity
MSC 2010: 05C05, 11A07, 13M05

## 1. Introduction

The set of all complex number $a+b \mathrm{i}$, where $a$ and $b$ are integers, forms a Euclidean domain which is denoted by $\mathbb{Z}[\mathrm{i}]$, with the usual complex number operations. Let $n>1$ be an integer and $\langle n\rangle$ the principal idea generated by $n$ in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$, and $\mathbb{Z}_{n}=$ $\{\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \ldots, \overline{n-1}\}$ the ring of integers modulo $n$. Then the factor ring $\mathbb{Z}[\mathrm{i}] /\langle n\rangle$ is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]=\left\{\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i}: \bar{a}, \bar{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}\right\}$. The ring $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$ is called the ring of Gaussian integers modulo $n$.

In this paper, we investigate some properties of the digraph $\Gamma(n)$, whose vertex set consists of all elements of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$, and for which there is a directed edge from $\alpha=\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$ to $\beta=\bar{x}+\bar{y} \mathrm{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$ if and only if $\alpha^{3}=\beta$. This digraph $\Gamma(n)$

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is called the cubic mapping graph of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$. In [4], [5] and [9], some properties of the cubic mapping graph of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$ were investigated.

Let $R$ be a commutative ring, let $\mathrm{U}(R)$ denote the unit group of $R, \mathrm{D}(R)$ the zero-divisor set of $R$. For $\alpha \in \mathrm{U}(R), o(\alpha)$ denotes the multiplicative order of $\alpha$ in $R$. If $R=\mathbb{Z}_{n}$, then we write $\operatorname{ord}_{n} \alpha$ instead of $o(\alpha)$. We specify two particular subdigraphs $\Gamma_{1}(n)$ and $\Gamma_{2}(n)$ of $\Gamma(n)$, i.e., $\Gamma_{1}(n)$ induced by all the vertices of $\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$, and $\Gamma_{2}(n)$ induced by all the vertices of $\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$.

Let $G$ be a finite abelian group of order $p_{1}^{t_{1}} \ldots p_{m}^{t_{m}}$, where $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are distinct primes and $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{m}$ are positive integers. Then we can write $G=G_{1} \times \ldots \times G_{m}$ where $G_{k}$ is a group of order $p_{k}^{t_{k}}$ for $k=1, \ldots, m$. Furthermore, for an arbitrary element $g$ of the group $G$, we can write $g=\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m}\right)$ with $g_{k} \in G_{k}$.

In $\Gamma(n)$, if $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{t}$ are pairwise distinct vertices and $\alpha_{1}^{3}=\alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{t-1}^{3}=\alpha_{t}$, $\alpha_{t}^{3}=\alpha_{1}$, then the elements $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \ldots, \alpha_{t}$ 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 $\alpha$ is a vertex of a $t$-cycle if and only if $t$ is the least positive integer such that $\alpha^{3^{t}}=\alpha$. Let $A_{t}(\Gamma(n)), A_{t}\left(\Gamma_{1}(n)\right)$, and $A_{t}\left(\Gamma_{2}(n)\right)$ denote the number of $t$-cycles in $\Gamma(n), \Gamma_{1}(n)$, and $\Gamma_{2}(n)$, respectively.

A component of $\Gamma(n)$ is a subdigraph which is a maximal connected subgraph of the associated nondirected graph of $\Gamma(n)$. Clearly, the number of components in $\Gamma(n)$ is equal to the number of all cycles in $\Gamma(n)$. If $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{k}(k \geqslant 1)$ are distinct components of $\Gamma(n)$ (i.e., there exist no common vertices between $\sigma_{t}$ and $\sigma_{j}$ whenever $t \neq j, 1 \leqslant t, j \leqslant k)$, then the disjoint union $\sigma_{1} \cup \ldots \cup \sigma_{k}$ denotes a subdigraph of $\Gamma(n)$, such a subdigraph contains precisely $k$ components, namely, $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{k}$. Let $\operatorname{Com}(\alpha)$ denote the component containing the element $\alpha$. The vertex set of $\Gamma(n)$ is denoted by $V(\Gamma(n))$. Suppose $\alpha \in V(\Gamma(n))$, if $\alpha^{3}=\alpha$, then $\alpha$ is called a fixed point. For $\alpha \in V(\Gamma(n))$, the in-degree indeg $(\alpha)$ of $\alpha$ denotes the number of directed edges coming into $\alpha$. If $\alpha$ is a fixed point and $\operatorname{indeg}(\alpha)=1$, then $\alpha$ is called an isolated fixed point.

We call a digraph semiregular if there exists a positive integer $d$ such that the in-degree of each vertex is either $d$ or 0 ([6]). In particular, if every component of the digraph is exactly a cycle, we also call this digraph semiregular.

Similarly, we can assign to a cyclic group $C_{n}$ of order $n$ a cubic mapping graph whose vertex set consists of all 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 digraph will be denoted by $\Gamma_{c}(n)$.

## 2. Some lemmas

Lemma 2.1 (9, Theorem 2.1). Let $C_{n}$ denote the cyclic group of order $n$, and let 1 be the identity of $C_{n}$.
(1) Suppose $n=3^{k}, k \geqslant 1$. Then $\Gamma_{c}(n)$ is a ternary tree of height $k$ with the root in 1.
(2) Suppose $3 \nmid n$. Then $\Gamma_{c}(n)$ is the disjoint union

$$
\Gamma_{c}(n)=\bigcup_{d \mid n} \underbrace{\left(\sigma\left(\operatorname{ord}_{d} 3\right) \cup \ldots \cup \sigma\left(\operatorname{ord}_{d} 3\right)\right)}_{\varphi(d) / \operatorname{ord}_{d} 3}
$$

where $\sigma(l)$ is the cycle of length $l$, and $\varphi(d)$ is the Euler totient function.
(3) Suppose $n=3^{k} m, k \geqslant 1, m>1,3 \nmid m$. Then

$$
\Gamma_{c}(n)=\bigcup_{d \mid m} \underbrace{\left(\sigma\left(\operatorname{ord}_{d} 3, k\right) \cup \ldots \cup \sigma\left(\operatorname{ord}_{d} 3, k\right)\right)}_{\varphi(d) / \operatorname{ord}_{d} 3}
$$

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.

The following results were shown in [1] and [7].
Lemma 2.2. Let $n>1$.
(1) The element $\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i}$ is a unit of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$ if and only if $\bar{a}^{2}+\bar{b}^{2}$ is a unit of $\mathbb{Z}_{n}$.
(2) If $n=\prod_{j=1}^{s} p_{j}^{k_{j}}$ is the prime power decomposition of $n$, then the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta: \mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}] \rightarrow \bigoplus_{j=1}^{s} \mathbb{Z}_{p_{j}^{k_{j}}}[\mathrm{i}] \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that $\theta(\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i})=\left(\left(a \bmod p_{j}^{k_{j}}\right)+\left(b \bmod p_{j}^{k_{j}}\right) \mathrm{i}\right)_{j=1}^{s}$ is an isomorphism.
(3) $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$ is a local ring if and only if $n=p^{t}$, where $p=2$ or $p$ is a prime congruent to 3 modulo $4, t \geqslant 1$.
(4) $\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$ is a field if and only if $n$ is a prime congruent to 3 modulo 4 .

According to papers [2] and [8], we have the following lemma.

## Lemma 2.3.

(1) $\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}[\mathrm{i}]\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2}, \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2^{2}}[\mathrm{i}]\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^{2}}, \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{2^{2}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^{t-1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^{t-2}}$ for $t>2$. Hence, $\left|\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=2^{2 t-1},\left|\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=2^{2 t-1}$.
(2) Let $q$ be a prime congruent to 3 modulo 4. Then $\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{q^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{q^{t-1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q^{t-1}} \times$ $\mathbb{Z}_{q^{2}-1}$ for $t \geqslant 1$. Hence, $\left|\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{q^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=q^{2 t}-q^{2 t-2},\left|\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{q^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=q^{2 t-2}$.
(3) Let $p$ be a prime congruent to 1 modulo 4. Then $\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right) \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^{t-1}} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p^{t-1}} \times$ $\mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$ for $t \geqslant 1$. Hence, $\left|\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=\left(p^{t}-p^{t-1}\right)^{2},\left|\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=2 p^{2 t-1}-$ $p^{2 t-2}$.

By Lemma 2.2 (2), we have the following lemma concerning the in-degree of an arbitrary vertex in $\Gamma(n)$.

Lemma 2.4. Suppose $\alpha=\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$, and let $n=\prod_{j=1}^{s} p_{j}^{k_{j}}$ be the prime power decomposition of $n$. Then $\operatorname{indeg}(\alpha)=\operatorname{indeg}\left(\alpha_{1}\right) \times \ldots \times \operatorname{indeg}\left(\alpha_{s}\right)$, where $\alpha_{j}=\left(a \bmod p_{j}^{k_{j}}\right)+\left(b \bmod p_{j}^{k_{j}}\right) \mathrm{i}$ and $\operatorname{indeg}\left(\alpha_{j}\right)$ is the in-degree of $\alpha_{j}$ in $\Gamma\left(p_{j}^{k_{j}}\right)$, $j=1, \ldots, s$.

## 3. Structure of the digraph $\Gamma(n)$

Let $\alpha=\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i} \in V(\Gamma(n))$. Then $\alpha$ is a fixed point of $\Gamma(n)$ if and only if $\alpha^{3}=\alpha$, i.e., the following system of equations holds

$$
\begin{align*}
a^{3}-3 a b^{2} & \equiv a(\bmod n),  \tag{3.1}\\
3 a^{2} b-b^{3} & \equiv b(\bmod n) . \tag{3.2}
\end{align*}
$$

Now, let

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=2^{k} \times \prod_{j=1}^{m} q_{j}^{t_{j}} \times \prod_{s=1}^{l} p_{s}^{\lambda_{s}} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

be the prime power factorization of $n$, where $k, m, l \geqslant 0, t_{j}, \lambda_{s} \geqslant 1, q_{1}, \ldots, q_{m}$ are distinct primes congruent to 3 modulo 4 , and $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{l}$ are distinct primes congruent to 1 modulo 4 . The following theorem gives the formula for the number of fixed points in $\Gamma(n)$.

Theorem 3.1. Let $n$ be as in (3.3). The number $L(n)$ of fixed points in $\Gamma(n)$ equals

$$
L(n)= \begin{cases}3^{k} \times 3^{m} \times 9^{l}, & k=0,1, \\ 5 \times 3^{m} \times 9^{l}, & k=2 \\ 9 \times 3^{m} \times 9^{l}, & k \geqslant 3\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Let $\alpha=\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$ and $\alpha^{3}=\alpha$. By Lemma 2.4, it suffices to consider the cases of $n$ being a power of a prime.
(1) Suppose $n=2^{k}(k \geqslant 1)$. By inspection, $L(2)=3$ and $L\left(2^{2}\right)=5$.

Now, let $k \geqslant 3$. Then by Lemma $2.2(3), \mathbb{Z}_{2^{k}}[\mathrm{i}]$ is a local ring. If $\alpha \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2^{k}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$, then clearly $\alpha$ is a vertex of $\operatorname{Com}(\overline{0})$. Note that $\alpha^{3}=\alpha$, therefore $\alpha=\overline{0}$.

Now suppose $\alpha \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2^{k}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$. Since $\alpha^{3}=\alpha$, we have $\alpha^{2}=\overline{1}$, and the following system of equations holds

$$
\begin{align*}
a^{2}-b^{2} & \equiv 1(\bmod n),  \tag{3.4}\\
2 a b & \equiv 0(\bmod n) . \tag{3.5}
\end{align*}
$$

Clearly, $a$ and $b$ have different parity. First, if $a$ is even while $b$ is odd, then it follows from (3.5) that $2^{k-1} \mid a$. Hence, we derive from (3.4) that $b^{2} \equiv-1\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)$, which is impossible because $k>2$. So $a$ must be odd while $b$ is even. In this case we have $2^{k-1} \mid b$ and $a^{2} \equiv 1\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)$. By $[6$, Lemma 2.5$]$ and since $k>2$, the number of solutions of $a^{2} \equiv 1\left(\bmod 2^{k}\right)$ is $2^{2}$. Therefore, the number of solutions of the system of equations (3.4) and (3.5) is $2^{3}$.

Hence, we can conclude that $L\left(2^{k}\right)=1+2^{3}=9$ for $k \geqslant 3$.
(2) Suppose $n=q^{t}(t \geqslant 1)$, where $q$ is a prime congruent to 3 modulo 4. Then by Lemma $2.2(3), \mathbb{Z}_{q^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]$ is a local ring. If $\alpha \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{q^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$, then clearly $\alpha$ is a vertex of $\operatorname{Com}(\overline{0})$. Therefore, $\alpha=\overline{0}$.

Now suppose $\alpha \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{q^{t}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$. By Lemma 2.2 (1) we have $q \nmid a^{2}+b^{2}$. It follows from (3.5) that $q^{t} \mid a$ while $q \nmid b$, or $q^{t} \mid b$ while $q \nmid a$. First, if $q^{t} \mid a, q \nmid b$, by (3.4), we have $b^{2} \equiv-1\left(\bmod q^{t}\right)$ and this equation has no solutions because $q \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. So we have $q^{t} \mid b$ and $q \nmid a$. By $(3.4), a^{2} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{t}\right)$ and the number of solutions of this equation is 2 ( $\left[6\right.$, Lemma 2.5]). Therefore, we can conclude that $L\left(q^{t}\right)=1+2=3$.
(3) Suppose $n=p^{\lambda}(\lambda \geqslant 1)$, where $p$ is a prime congruent to 1 modulo 4. If $\alpha \in$ $\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\lambda}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ with $\alpha \neq \overline{0}$, by Lemma $2.2(1)$ we have $p \mid a^{2}+b^{2}$. It follows immediately from (3.1) and (3.2) that $p \nmid a$ and $p \nmid b$. Hence, $a^{2}-3 b^{2} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{\lambda}\right), 3 a^{2}-b^{2} \equiv 1$ $\left(\bmod p^{\lambda}\right)$. Thus, $4 a^{2} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{\lambda}\right)$ and $4 b^{2} \equiv-1\left(\bmod p^{\lambda}\right)$. Clearly, each of the last two equations has exactly 2 solutions. Moreover, note that $\overline{0}^{3}=\overline{0}$, so the system of equations (3.1) and (3.2) has exactly $2 \times 2+1=5$ solutions.

Now suppose $\alpha \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\lambda}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ and by Lemma 2.2 (1), we have $p \nmid a^{2}+b^{2}$. It can be derived from (3.5) that exactly one of $a$ and $b$ must be divisible by $p^{\lambda}$. First, if $p^{\lambda} \mid a$ and $p \nmid b$, then the number of solutions of equation (3.2) is 2 . Secondly, if $p^{\lambda} \mid b$ and $p \nmid a$, then the number of solutions of equation (3.1) is 2 . Therefore, if $\alpha \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\lambda}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ with $\alpha^{3}=\alpha$, then the system of equations (3.1) and (3.2) has exactly $2+2=4$ solutions.

Therefore, we can conclude that $L\left(p^{\lambda}\right)=5+4=9$.

For example, $\Gamma\left(2^{2}\right)$ has exactly 5 fixed points, see Figure 1.


Figure 1. The cubic mapping graph of $\mathbb{Z}_{2^{2}}[\mathrm{i}]$.
Theorem 3.2. For $n>1, \Gamma_{1}(n)$ is semiregular.
Proof. Suppose $\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]\right)=U_{1} \times \ldots \times U_{t}, t \geqslant 1, U_{1}, \ldots, U_{t}$ being cyclic groups.
If $3 \nmid\left|\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|$, then $3 \nmid\left|U_{s}\right|$ for $s=1, \ldots, t$. By Lemma $2.1(2)$, $\operatorname{indeg}\left(\alpha_{s}\right)=1$ for $\alpha_{s} \in U_{s}$. Therefore by Lemma 2.4, indeg $(\alpha)=1$ for $\alpha \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$.

Now suppose $3\left|\left|\mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|\right.$. Without loss of generality, we can assume that 3$|$ $\left|U_{1}\right|, \ldots, 3| | U_{v} \mid$ with $1 \leqslant v \leqslant t$, and $3 \nmid\left|U_{v+1}\right|, \ldots, 3 \nmid\left|U_{t}\right|$. By Lemma 2.1 and Lemma 2.4, $\operatorname{indeg}(\alpha)=3^{v}$ or 0 for $\alpha \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$.

So we conclude that $\Gamma_{1}(n)$ is semiregular.
Theorem 3.3. Let $n=2^{v} 3^{k} \times \prod_{j=1}^{m} q_{j}^{\alpha_{j}} \times \prod_{s=1}^{h} p_{s}^{\beta_{s}} \times \prod_{\lambda=1}^{l} g_{\lambda}^{\gamma_{\lambda}}$, where $v, k, m, h, l \geqslant 0$, $\alpha_{j}, \beta_{s}, \gamma_{\lambda} \geqslant 1,3<q_{1}<\ldots<q_{m}$ are primes congruent to 3 modulo $4, p_{1}, \ldots, p_{h}$ are distinct primes congruent to 1 modulo 12 , and $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{l}$ are distinct primes congruent to 5 modulo 12. Then the in-degree of $\overline{1}$ in $\Gamma(n)$ is

$$
\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{1})= \begin{cases}3^{m+2 h}, & k=0,1, \\ 3^{m+2 h+2}, & k \geqslant 2 .\end{cases}
$$

Proof. By Lemma 2.4, it suffices to consider the cases of $n$ being a power of a prime.
(1) Suppose $n=2^{v}(v \geqslant 1)$. By Lemma $2.1(2)$, the in-degree of the identity 1 of a cyclic group $C_{m}$ with $3 \nmid m$ is equal to 1 . Therefore, by Lemma $2.3(1)$ and Lemma 2.4, the in-degree of $\overline{1}$ in $\Gamma(n)$ is equal to 1 .
(2) Suppose $n=3^{k}$. If $k=1$, then by an argument similar to (1), we have $\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{1})=1$. If $k \geqslant 2$, by Lemma 2.1, $2.3(2)$ and Lemma 2.4, $\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{1})=3^{2}$.
(3) Suppose $n=q^{j}$, where $q>3$ is a prime congruent to 3 modulo $4, j \geqslant 1$. Since $3 \nmid q$, exactly one of $q-1, q+1$ is divisible by 3 . It follows from Lemma 2.1 (3) and Lemma 2.3 (2), 2.4 that $\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{1})=3$.
(4) Suppose $n=p^{s}$, where $p$ is a prime congruent to 1 modulo $4, s \geqslant 1$. Clearly, $4 \mid p-1$ and $3 \mid p-1$ if and only if $12 \mid p-1$. So by Lemma 2.1 and $2.3(3)$, if $p \equiv 1$ $(\bmod 12)$, then indeg $(\overline{1})=3^{2}$. If $p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)$, then $\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{1})=1$.

Theorem 3.4. Let $n=2^{m} \times \prod_{j=1}^{s} p_{j}^{t_{j}}$, where $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{s}$ are distinct odd primes, $m, s \geqslant 0, t_{j} \geqslant 1$. Then the in-degree of $\overline{0}$ in $\Gamma(n)$ is

$$
\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})= \begin{cases}2^{2(m-\lceil m / 3\rceil)} \times \prod_{j=1}^{s} p_{j}^{2\left(t_{j}-\left\lceil t_{j} / 3\right\rceil\right)}, & m \equiv 0,2(\bmod 3) \\ 2^{2(m-\lceil m / 3\rceil)+1} \times \prod_{j=1}^{s} p_{j}^{2\left(t_{j}-\left\lceil t_{j} / 3\right\rceil\right)}, & m \equiv 1(\bmod 3)\end{cases}
$$

Proof. By Lemma 2.4, it suffices to consider the cases of $n$ being a power of a prime, i.e., $n=p^{m}$, where $p$ is a prime, $m \geqslant 1$.

First, let $m=1$, then clearly $\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})=2$ if $p=2$, and $\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})=1$ if $p$ is an odd prime.

Now, let $m>1$. Assume that $\alpha=\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$ with $\alpha^{3}=\overline{0}$. Clearly $p \mid a$ and $p \mid b$. Let $a=p^{u} a_{1}, b=p^{v} b_{1}$, where $u, v$ are positive integers, $p \nmid a_{1}$ and $p \nmid b_{1}$. Set $k=\min \{u, v\}$. Then $\alpha=p^{k} \beta$, where $\beta=p^{u-k} \overline{a_{1}}+p^{v-k} \overline{b_{1}}$ i.

On the one hand, it is clear that if $k \geqslant\lceil m / 3\rceil$, then $\alpha^{3}=\overline{0}$.
Conversely, suppose $1 \leqslant k \leqslant\lceil m / 3\rceil-1$. If $u \neq v$, then $\beta \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$, which implies that $\beta^{3} \neq \overline{0}$. So $\alpha^{3} \neq \overline{0}$. If $u=v$, then $\alpha=p^{k}\left(\overline{a_{1}}+\overline{b_{1}} \mathrm{i}\right)$. Hence, $\alpha^{3}=\overline{0}$ if and only if $a_{1}^{3}-3 a_{1} b_{1}^{2} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{m-3 k}\right)$ and $3 a_{1}^{2} b_{1}-b_{1}^{3} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{m-3 k}\right)$, if and only if $a_{1}^{2}-3 b_{1}^{2} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{m-3 k}\right)$ and $3 a_{1}^{2}-b_{1}^{2} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{m-3 k}\right)$. Now there are two cases to consider.

First, if $p$ is an odd prime with $m>1$, or $p=2$ with $m \equiv 0$ or $2(\bmod 3)$, then it is not difficult to show that $\alpha^{3} \neq \overline{0}$. So $\alpha^{3}=\overline{0}$ if and only if $p^{\lceil m / 3\rceil} \mid a$ and $p^{\lceil m / 3\rceil} \mid b$. So we have indeg $(\overline{0})=p^{2 m-2\lceil m / 3\rceil}$.

Secondly, assume that $p=2$ and $m \equiv 1(\bmod 3), \alpha=2^{k}\left(\overline{a_{1}}+\overline{b_{1}} \mathrm{i}\right)$. Since $2 \|$ $a_{1}^{2}-3 b_{1}^{2}$, we have $2^{m-3 k} \mid a_{1}^{2}-3 b_{1}^{2}$ if and only if $m-3 k=1$, if and only if $k=\lceil m / 3\rceil-1$. Similarly, $2^{m-3 k} \mid 3 a_{1}^{2}-b_{1}^{2}$ if and only if $k=\lceil m / 3\rceil-1$. Therefore, $\alpha^{3}=\overline{0}$ if and only if $2^{\lceil m / 3\rceil} \mid a$ and $2^{\lceil m / 3\rceil} \mid b$, or $2^{\lceil m / 3\rceil-1} \| a$ and $2^{\lceil m / 3\rceil-1} \| b$. So we have $\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})=2^{2 m-2\lceil m / 3\rceil+1}$.

Theorem 3.5. Suppose $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ is a prime. Let $\alpha \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ with $\alpha \neq \overline{0}$. If indeg $(\alpha)>0$, then

$$
\operatorname{indeg}(\alpha)= \begin{cases}3, & p \equiv 1(\bmod 12) \\ 1, & p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Since $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, by Lemma $2.2(3), \mathbb{Z}_{p}[\mathrm{i}]$ is not local. Therefore, there exists $\alpha=\bar{c}+\bar{d} \mathrm{i} \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ and $\alpha \neq \overline{0}$ such that indeg $(\alpha)>0$. We readily see
that $p \nmid c$ and $p \nmid d$. Let $\beta=\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i}$ be such that $\beta^{3}=\alpha$. Then we have

$$
\begin{align*}
a^{3}-3 a b^{2} & \equiv c(\bmod p)  \tag{3.6}\\
3 a^{2} b-b^{3} & \equiv d(\bmod p) \tag{3.7}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $p \mid a^{2}+b^{2}$, by (3.6) and (3.7) we have $4 a^{3} \equiv c(\bmod p)$ and $4 b^{3} \equiv-d(\bmod p)$, i.e., $a^{3} \equiv c_{0}(\bmod p)$ and $b^{3} \equiv d_{0}(\bmod p)$ for some integers $c_{0}$ and $d_{0}$ because $p$ is odd. By [3, p. 228, Theorem 8], each of the last two equations has precisely $\operatorname{gcd}(3, p-1)$ solutions. Therefore, if $p \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$ then $\operatorname{gcd}(3, p-1)=1$ and hence $\operatorname{indeg}(\alpha)=1$. If $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$ then $\operatorname{gcd}(3, p-1)=3$ and we can claim $\operatorname{indeg}(\alpha)=3$. In fact, assume that $a^{3}-3 a b_{1}^{2} \equiv a^{3}-3 a b_{2}^{2} \equiv c(\bmod p)$, then $b_{1}^{2} \equiv b_{2}^{2}$ $(\bmod p)$. If $b_{1} \equiv-b_{2}(\bmod p)$, then it follows from $b_{1}^{3} \equiv b_{2}^{3} \equiv d_{0}(\bmod p)$ that $d_{0} \equiv-d_{0}(\bmod p)$, i.e., $p \mid 2 d_{0}$. Thus $p \mid d_{0}$, which is impossible. Therefore, $b_{1} \equiv b_{2}$ $(\bmod p)$. So we can conclude that $\operatorname{indeg}(\alpha)=3$ if $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$.

For example, see Figure 2 , where $n=37$, $\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})=1$, while indeg $(\alpha)=3$ if $\alpha \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{37}[\mathrm{i}]\right), \alpha \neq \overline{0}$ and $\operatorname{indeg}(\alpha)>0$.




Figure 2. The subdigraph $\Gamma_{2}(37)$.

Theorem 3.6. Let $n>1$.
(1) The identity $\overline{1}$ is an isolated fixed point in $\Gamma(n)$ if and only if $n=2^{v} 3^{k} \prod_{\lambda=1}^{l} g_{\lambda}^{\gamma_{\lambda}}$, where $v, l \geqslant 0, k=0,1, \gamma_{\lambda} \geqslant 1$, and $g_{1}<\ldots<g_{l}$ are primes congruent to 5 modulo 12.
(2) The element $\overline{0}$ is an isolated fixed point in $\Gamma(n)$ if and only if $n$ is odd and $n$ is square-free.

Proof. Since $\overline{1}$ or $\overline{0}$ is an isolated fixed point if and only if $\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{1})=1$ or indeg $(\overline{0})=1$, the result follows by Theorem 3.3 or 3.4 , respectively.

Theorem 3.7. Let $n>1$.
(1) Each component in $\Gamma_{1}(n)$ is exactly a cycle if and only if $n=2^{v} 3^{k} \prod_{\lambda=1}^{l} g_{\lambda}^{\gamma_{\lambda}}$, where $v, l \geqslant 0, k=0,1, \gamma_{\lambda} \geqslant 1$, and $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{l}$ are distinct primes congruent to 5 modulo 12.
(2) Each component in $\Gamma_{2}(n)$ is exactly a cycle if and only if $n=\prod_{s=1}^{m} p_{s}$, where $m \geqslant 1$, and $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are distinct primes congruent to 3 modulo 4 or congruent to 5 modulo 12 .
(3) Each component in $\Gamma(n)$ is exactly a cycle if and only if $n=3^{k} \prod_{s=1}^{m} p_{s}$, where $k=0,1, m \geqslant 0$, and $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are distinct primes congruent to 5 modulo 12.

Proof. (1) By Theorem 3.2, each component in $\Gamma_{1}(n)$ is exactly a cycle if and only if $\overline{1}$ is an isolated fixed point. So by Theorem $3.6(1)$, the result follows.
(2) On the one hand, suppose that each component in $\Gamma_{2}(n)$ is exactly a cycle. Then $\overline{0}$ is an isolated fixed point, hence $n$ is odd and $n$ is square-free due to Theorem $3.6(2)$. First, let $n$ be an odd prime, say $p$. If $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$, then by Lemma $2.2(4), \mathbb{Z}_{p}[\mathrm{i}]$ is a field, hence $\overline{0}$ is the unique zero-divisor of $\mathbb{Z}_{p}[\mathrm{i}]$ and $\operatorname{Com}(\overline{0})$ is a cycle. If $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, by Theorem 3.5 , then each component in $\Gamma_{2}(p)$ is exactly a cycle if and only if $p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)$. Secondly, let $n=\prod_{s=1}^{m} g_{s}$, where $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m}$ are distinct odd primes, $m>1$. By Lemma 2.4 and the above argument, we have that each component in $\Gamma_{2}(n)$ is exactly a cycle if and only if $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{m}$ are distinct primes congruent to 3 modulo 4 or congruent to 5 modulo 12, as desired.
(3) It follows directly from (1) and (2).

It is easy to show that the following theorem holds.

Theorem 3.8. Suppose $\alpha \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$. Then $\alpha$ is a vertex of a $t$-cycle if and only if $t=\operatorname{ord}_{o(\alpha)} 3$.

Theorem 3.9. Let $n>1$.
(1) For $t>1, A_{t}\left(\Gamma_{1}(n)\right)=0$ if and only if $n=2$.
(2) For $t>1, A_{t}\left(\Gamma_{2}(n)\right)=0$ if and only if $n=q^{m}$, where $m \geqslant 1, q=2$ or $q$ is a prime congruent to 3 modulo 4 .

Proof. (1) If $n=2$, we readily see that each component of $\Gamma_{1}(n)$ is a 1-cycle. On the other hand, if $n>2$, then $o(\mathrm{i})=4$. Hence, $\operatorname{ord}_{o(\mathrm{i})} 3=2$. By Theorem 3.8, i is a vertex of a 2-cycle.
(2) Suppose that $A_{t}\left(\Gamma_{2}(n)\right)=0$ for $t>1$. If $n$ has at least two distinct prime factors, let $n=g^{d} n_{1}$, where $g$ is an odd prime, $d \geqslant 1, g \nmid n_{1}$. Then clearly i is a vertex of a 2-cycle in $\Gamma_{1}\left(g^{d}\right)$. By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, there exists a positive integer $b$ such that $b \equiv 1\left(\bmod g^{d}\right)$ and $b \equiv 0\left(\bmod n_{1}\right)$. Since $\bar{b} \mathrm{i}$ is equal to i in $\mathbb{Z}_{g^{d}}[\mathrm{i}]$ while $\bar{b} \mathrm{i}$ is equal to $\overline{0}$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{n_{1}}[\mathrm{i}]$, we have that $\alpha=\bar{b} \mathrm{i}$ is a vertex of a 2 -cycle in $\Gamma_{2}(n)$. This is a contradiction. So we can conclude that if $A_{t}\left(\Gamma_{2}(n)\right)=0$ for $t>1$, then $n$ must be a power of a prime.

Now let $n=p^{m}$, where $p$ is a prime congruent to 1 modulo $4, m \geqslant 1$. Let $p^{m}=4 k+1$ for some positive integer $k$. Then by [3, p. 211, Exercises 12], there exits a positive integer $x$ such that $x^{2} \equiv k\left(\bmod p^{m}\right)$. Set $\beta=\bar{x}+\bar{y}$ i, where $y=\frac{1}{2}\left(p^{m}+1\right)$. We can show that $x^{2}+y^{2} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{m}\right)$, and by computation, we readily see that $\beta^{3} \neq \beta$, while $\beta^{3^{2}}=\beta$. This implies that $\beta$ is a vertex of a 2 -cycle in $\Gamma_{2}(n)$.

Conversely, let $n$ be a power of 2 or $q$, where $q$ is a prime congruent to 3 modulo 4 . Then by Lemma $2.2(3), \mathbb{Z}_{n}[\mathrm{i}]$ is local. It is not difficult to show that $\operatorname{Com}(\overline{0})$ is the unique component in $\Gamma_{2}(n)$. Hence, the result follows.

## 4. The semiregularity of $\Gamma_{2}(n)$

By Theorem 3.2, we know that for $n>1, \Gamma_{1}(n)$ is semiregular. Now, we study the semiregularity of $\Gamma_{2}(n)$. In the sequel we need the following lemma which is proved similarly to [9, Theorem 3.7].

Lemma 4.1. Let $n=p_{1}^{t_{1}} \ldots p_{s}^{t_{s}}$, where $s>1, p_{1}<\ldots<p_{s}$ are distinct primes, $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{s}$ are positive integers. Then the following statements are equivalent:
(1) $\Gamma(n)$ is semiregular.
(2) $\Gamma_{2}(n)$ is semiregular.
(3) $\Gamma\left(p_{j}^{t_{j}}\right)$ is semiregular for $j=1, \ldots, s$.

## Theorem 4.2.

(1) $\Gamma_{2}\left(2^{m}\right)$ is semiregular if and only if $m=1,2$.
(2) $\Gamma_{2}\left(3^{m}\right)$ is semiregular if and only if $m=1,2,3,4,5$.
(3) Suppose $p$ is a prime congruent to 7 modulo 12. Then $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is semiregular if and only if $m=1,2,3$.
(4) Suppose $p$ is a prime congruent to 11 modulo 12. Then $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is semiregular if and only if $m=1,2,3,4$.
(5) Suppose $p$ is a prime congruent to 5 modulo 12. Then $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is semiregular if and only if $m=1$.
(6) Suppose $p$ is a prime congruent to 1 modulo 12. Then $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is not semiregular for $m \geqslant 1$.
(7) Suppose $n$ is not a power of a prime. Then $\Gamma_{2}(n)$ is semiregular if and only if $n=3^{k} \prod_{j=1}^{m} p_{j}$, where $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are distinct primes congruent to 5 modulo 12, $k=0,1,2$ and $m \geqslant 1$.

Proof. (1) By inspection, it is easy to see that $\Gamma_{2}(2)$ and $\Gamma_{2}\left(2^{2}\right)$ are semiregular.
On the other hand, let $m>2$. Clearly, indeg $(\beta)>0$ where $\beta=(\overline{1}+\mathrm{i})^{3}=\overline{-2}+\overline{2} \mathrm{i} \in$ $\mathbb{Z}_{2^{m}}[\mathrm{i}]$. Suppose $\alpha=\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i} \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2^{m}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ such that $\alpha^{3}=\beta$. Then we have

$$
\begin{align*}
a^{3}-3 a b^{2} & \equiv-2\left(\bmod 2^{m}\right)  \tag{4.1}\\
3 a^{2} b-b^{3} & \equiv 2\left(\bmod 2^{m}\right) \tag{4.2}
\end{align*}
$$

It follows from (4.1) and (4.2) that both $a$ and $b$ are odd, $a^{4}-b^{4} \equiv 2(b-a)\left(\bmod 2^{m}\right)$. Hence, $2^{m-1} \left\lvert\,(b-a)\left[\frac{1}{2}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)(a+b)+1\right]\right.$. Since both $a^{2}+b^{2}$ and $a+b$ are even, we have $2 \nmid \frac{1}{2}\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)(a+b)+1$. Thus, $a \equiv b\left(\bmod 2^{m-1}\right)$ and by (4.1), $a^{3} \equiv 1$ $\left(\bmod 2^{m-1}\right)$. The last equation has precisely one solution ([3, p. 192, Exercise $\left.\left.12(\mathrm{i})\right]\right)$, namely, $a \equiv 1\left(\bmod 2^{m-1}\right)$. Similarly, we have $b \equiv 1\left(\bmod 2^{m-1}\right)$. Therefore, the solutions of system of (4.1) and (4.2) are $a \equiv 1,2^{m-1}+1\left(\bmod 2^{m}\right)$ and $b \equiv$ $1,2^{m-1}+1\left(\bmod 2^{m}\right)$. So indeg $(\beta)=4$. Moreover, by Theorem $3.4, \operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})>4$ in $\Gamma\left(2^{m}\right)$ when $m>2$. Thus $\Gamma_{2}\left(2^{m}\right)$ is not semiregular for $m>2$.
(2) If $m=1,2,3,4,5$, by inspection, $\Gamma_{2}\left(3^{m}\right)$ is semiregular.

Now, let $p=3$ and $m>5$. Clearly, indeg $\left(\overline{p^{3}}\right)>0$. Suppose $\alpha=\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i} \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ is such that $\alpha^{3}=\overline{p^{3}}$. It is obvious that $p \mid a$ and $p \mid b$. Let $a=p^{t_{1}} a_{1}, b=p^{t_{2}} b_{1}$, where $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$ are positive integers, $p \nmid a_{1}$ and $p \nmid b_{1}$. Then we have

$$
\begin{align*}
p^{3 t_{1}} a_{1}^{3}-3 \times p^{t_{1}} a_{1} \times p^{2 t_{2}} b_{1}^{2} & \equiv p^{3}\left(\bmod p^{m}\right)  \tag{4.3}\\
3 \times p^{2 t_{1}} a_{1}^{2} \times p^{t_{2}} b_{1}-p^{3 t_{2}} b_{1}^{3} & \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{m}\right) \tag{4.4}
\end{align*}
$$

If $t_{1}>1$, then by $(4.3), p^{3 t_{1}-3} a_{1}^{3}-3 p^{t_{1}+2 t_{2}-3} a_{1} b_{1}^{2} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{m-3}\right)$, which is impossible. So $t_{1}=1$. Hence, by (4.4), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
3 p^{t_{2}+2} a_{1}^{2}-p^{3 t_{2}} b_{1}^{2} \equiv 0\left(\bmod p^{m}\right) \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $p=3$. Then if $t_{2}=1$, by (4.5) we have $3 a_{1}^{2} \equiv b_{1}^{2}\left(\bmod 3^{m-3}\right)$, which is impossible. Hence, $t_{2}>1$. Therefore, we derive from (4.5) that $3^{m} \mid 3^{t_{2}+3}$. So $t_{2} \geqslant m-3$, i.e., $3^{m-3} \mid b$. It is easy to see that from 1 to $3^{m}$, the number of multiples of $3^{m-3}$ is $3^{3}$. In addition, since $m>5$, we have $2 t_{2}+2-m \geqslant m-4>0$. Thus, by $(4.3), 3^{3} a_{1}^{3} \equiv 3^{3}\left(\bmod 3^{m}\right)$. Therefore, $a_{1}^{3} \equiv 1\left(\bmod 3^{m-3}\right)$, and this equation has exactly 3 solutions. So $|\mathbb{A}|=3^{3}$ when $p=3$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{A}=\left\{a: 1 \leqslant a \leqslant p^{m}, a=p a_{1}, a_{1}^{3} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{m-3}\right)\right\} . \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence, indeg $\left(\overline{3^{3}}\right)=3^{3} \times 3^{3}=3^{6}$. However, by Theorem 3.4, indeg $(\overline{0})>3^{6}$ in $\Gamma\left(3^{m}\right)$ when $m>5$. Thus $\Gamma_{2}\left(3^{m}\right)$ is not semiregular for $m>5$.
(3) Since $p \equiv 7(\bmod 12)$, we have $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. If $m=1,2,3$, by Lemma $2.3(2)$ and Theorem 3.4 we readily show that $\left|\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})$. Therefore, $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is semiregular for $m=1,2,3$.

On the other hand, suppose $m>3$. Clearly, $\operatorname{indeg}\left(\overline{p^{3}}\right)>0$. Let $\alpha=\bar{a}+\bar{b} \mathrm{i} \in$ $\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ be such that $\alpha^{3}=\overline{p^{3}}$. By an argument similar to (2) above, we have $a=p^{t_{1}} a_{1}, b=p^{t_{2}} b_{1}$, where $t_{1}$ and $t_{2}$ are positive integers, $p \nmid a_{1}$ and $p \nmid b_{1}$. Then the equations (4.3) and (4.4) hold. Therefore, analogously, we derive $t_{1}=1, t_{2}>1$, $a_{1}^{3} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{m-3}\right)$ and by (4.5), $p^{m-2} \mid b$. Clearly, from 1 to $p^{m}$, the number of multiples of $p^{m-2}$ is $p^{2}$. Moreover, since $p \equiv 7(\bmod 12)$, we have $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$, and the equation $a_{1}^{3} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{m-3}\right)$ has exactly 3 solutions. So $|\mathbb{A}|=3 p^{2}$, and the set $\mathbb{A}$ is of the form (4.6). Hence, $\operatorname{indeg}\left(\overline{p^{3}}\right)=3 p^{2} \times p^{2}=3 p^{4}$. However, by Theorem 3.4, indeg $(\overline{0}) \neq 3 p^{4}$ in $\Gamma\left(p^{m}\right)$ when $m>3$. Thus $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is not semiregular for $m>3$.
(4) Suppose $m>4$. Since $p \equiv 11(\bmod 12)$, we have $p \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, and the equation $a_{1}^{3} \equiv 1\left(\bmod p^{m-3}\right)$ has exactly one solution. So $|\mathbb{A}|=p^{2}$, and the set $\mathbb{A}$ is of the form (4.6). Hence, by an argument similar to (3) above, indeg $\left(\overline{p^{3}}\right)=p^{2} \times p^{2}=p^{4}$. Nevertheless, by Theorem 3.4, indeg $(\overline{0})>p^{4}$ in $\Gamma\left(p^{m}\right)$ for $m>4$. Thus $\Gamma_{2}\left(3^{m}\right)$ is not semiregular for $m>4$.

Now, suppose $m=4$. Let

$$
\mathbb{B}=\left\{p^{3}(\bar{x}+\bar{y} \mathrm{i})^{3} \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{4}}[\mathrm{i}]\right): x, y=0,1, \ldots, p-1\right\} .
$$

Obviously, $\operatorname{indeg}(\beta)>0$ for $\beta \in \mathbb{B}$ and by an argument similar to the above, we have $\operatorname{indeg}(\beta)=\operatorname{indeg}\left(\overline{p^{3}}\right)=p^{4}$. It is not difficult to show that $|\mathbb{B}|=p^{2}$. Since $\left|\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{4}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=p^{6}=p^{2} \times p^{4}$, we have indeg $(\gamma)=0$ whenever $\gamma \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{4}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ but $\gamma \notin \mathbb{B}$. Hence, $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{4}\right)$ is semiregular.

Finally, let $m=1,2,3$. Since $p \equiv 11(\bmod 12)$, we have $p \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$. By Lemma 2.3 (2) and Theorem 3.4, we readily show that $\left|\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})$. So $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is semiregular for $m=1,2,3$.
(5) On the one hand, since $p \equiv 5(\bmod 12)$, by Theorem $3.7(2)$, each component of $\Gamma_{2}(p)$ is exactly a cycle. Therefore, $\Gamma_{2}(p)$ is semiregular.

On the other hand, suppose $m>1$. Since $p \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$, there exist positive integers $x$ and $y$ such that $p=x^{2}+y^{2}$. Now let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{C}=\left\{d^{3}(\bar{x}+\bar{y} \mathrm{i})^{3} \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m}}[\mathrm{i}]\right): d=0 \text { or } d \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m}}\right)\right\} . \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Obviously, for $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$, indeg $(\alpha)>0$. If $d_{1}, d_{2} \in \mathrm{U}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m}}\right)$, then $d_{1}^{3}(\bar{x}+\bar{y} \mathrm{i})^{3}=d_{2}^{3}(\bar{x}+\bar{y} \mathrm{i})^{3}$ if and only if $d_{1}^{3} \equiv d_{2}^{3}\left(\bmod p^{m}\right)$, if and only if $d_{1}=d_{2}$. This is because $p \equiv 5$ $(\bmod 12)$, so $p \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$, and the equation $d^{3} \equiv d_{0}\left(\bmod p^{m}\right)$ has a unique solution. Hence $|\mathbb{C}|=\varphi\left(p^{m}\right)+1=p^{m}-p^{m-1}+1$. If $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is semiregular, then $\operatorname{indeg}(\alpha)=\operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})=p^{2(m-\lceil m / 3\rceil)}$ for $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$. However, by Lemma 2.3 (3), $\left|\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|=2 p^{2 m-1}-p^{2 m-2}$ and clearly $|\mathbb{C}| \times \operatorname{indeg}(\overline{0})>\left|\mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p^{m}}[\mathrm{i}]\right)\right|$ when $m>1$, which is impossible. So $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is not semiregular for $m>1$.
(6) Since $p \equiv 1(\bmod 12)$, by Theorem 3.5 , indeg $(\alpha)=3$ if indeg $(\alpha)>0$ for $\alpha \in \mathrm{D}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{p}[\mathrm{i}]\right)$ and $\alpha \neq \overline{0}$. However, by Theorem 3.4, indeg $(\overline{0})=1$ in $\Gamma(p)$. Therefore, $\Gamma_{2}(p)$ is not semiregular.

Now, suppose $m>1$. Since $p \equiv 1(\bmod 12)$, we have $p \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$, and the equation $d^{3} \equiv d_{0}\left(\bmod p^{m}\right)$ has precisely three solutions. Hence, $|\mathbb{C}|=\frac{1}{3} \varphi\left(p^{m}\right)+1=$ $\frac{1}{3}(p-1) p^{m-1}+1$, and the set $\mathbb{C}$ is of the form (4.7). Then by an argument similar to (5), we derive that $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is not semiregular for $m>1$. Therefore, $\Gamma_{2}\left(p^{m}\right)$ is not semiregular for $m \geqslant 1$.
(7) By Theorem 3.3, Theorem 3.4 and the results above, we derive that if $n$ is a power of a prime, then $\Gamma(n)$ is semiregular if and only if $n=3,3^{2}$, or $n$ is a prime congruent to 5 modulo 12 . Therefore, if $n$ is not a power of a prime, then by Lemma 4.1 the result follows.

Corollary 4.3. $\Gamma(n)$ is semiregular if and only if $n=3^{k} \prod_{j=1}^{m} p_{j}$, where $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are distinct primes congruent to 5 modulo $12, k=0,1,2$ and $m \geqslant 0$.

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