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# THE TOTAL GRAPH OF NON-ZERO ANNIHILATING IDEALS OF A COMMUTATIVE RING

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ABSTRACT. Assume that R is a commutative ring with non-zero identity which is not an integral domain. An ideal I of R is called an annihilating ideal if there exists a non-zero element  $a \in R$  such that Ia = 0. S. Visweswaran and H. D. Patel associated a graph with the set of all non-zero annihilating ideals of R, denoted by  $\Omega(R)$ , as the graph with the vertex-set  $A(R)^*$ , the set of all non-zero annihilating ideals of R, and two distinct vertices I and J are adjacent if I+J is an annihilating ideal. In this paper, we study the relations between the diameters of  $\Omega(R)$  and  $\Omega(R[x])$ . Also, we study the relations between the diameters of  $\Omega(R)$  and  $\Omega(R[x])$ , whenever R is a Noetherian ring. In addition, we investigate the relations between the diameters of this graph and the zero-divisor graph. Moreover, we study some combinatorial properties of  $\Omega(R)$  such as domination number and independence number. Furthermore, we study the complement of this graph.

#### 1. Introduction

In recent years, assigning graphs to algebraic structures has played an important role in the study of algebraic structures, for instance, see [1], [2] and [10]. I. Beck in [3] introduced the idea of a zero-divisor graph of a commutative ring, where he was mainly interested in colorings. D. F. Anderson and P. S. Livingston in [1] introduced the zero-divisor graph of a commutative ring R, denoted by  $\Gamma(R)$ , as the graph with the vertex-set  $Z(R)^*$ , the set of all non-zero zero-divisors of R, and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if xy = 0. They investigate the relations between the ring-theoretic properties of R and graph-theoretic properties of  $\Gamma(R)$ . S. Visweswaran and H. D. Patel in [10] introduced and studied a graph, denoted by  $\Omega(R)$ , with the vertex-set  $\Lambda(R)^*$ , the set of all non-zero annihilating ideals of R, and two distinct vertices I and I are adjacent if I+I is an annihilating ideal.

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Throughout this paper, R is a commutative ring with non-zero identity which is not an integral domain. By a non-trivial ideal of R, we mean a nonzero proper ideal of R. The set of all zero-divisors, nilpotent elements, prime ideals, minimal prime ideals and maximal ideals of R are denoted by Z(R), Nil(R), Spec(R), Min(R) and Max(R), respectively. Also,  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are the integers, integers modulo n and rational numbers, respectively. Moreover, the non-zero elements of  $X \subseteq R$  will be denoted by  $X^*$ . An ideal I of R is called an annihilating ideal if there exists  $a \in R^*$  such that Ia = 0. By A(R) we mean the set of all annihilating ideals of R and  $A(R)^* := A(R) \setminus \{0\}$ . Given any subset  $X \subseteq R$ , the annihilator of X is the set  $Ann(X) = \{a \in R \mid aX = 0\}$ . A ring R is said to be reduced if it has no non-zero nilpotent element. A nonzero ideal I of R is called essential, denoted by  $I \leq_e R$ , if I has a non-zero intersection with any non-zero ideal of R. The socle of R, denoted by soc(R), is the sum of all minimal ideals of R. If R has not a minimal ideal, this sum is defined to be zero. A ring R is said to be semisimple if soc(R) = R. The Jacobson radical of R is denoted by J(R).

Let G = (V, E) be a graph, where V = V(G) is the set of vertices and E = E(G) is the set of edges. The *complement* of G, denoted by  $\overline{G}$ , is the graph with the same vertex-set as G, where two distinct vertices are adjacent whenever they are non-adjacent in G. The distance between two vertices in a graph is the number of edges in a shortest path connecting them. The diameter of a connected graph G, denoted by diam(G), is the maximum distance between any pair of the vertices of G (diam $(G) = \infty$  if G is disconnected). The girth of a graph G, denoted by gr(G), is the length of the shortest cycle in G. A graph with no cycle has infinite girth. Also, for a vertex  $v \in V$ , the degree of v, denoted by deg(v), is the number of incident edges. The graph  $H=(V_0,E_0)$ is a subgraph of G if  $V_0 \subseteq V$  and  $E_0 \subseteq E$ . Moreover, H is called an induced subgraph by  $V_0$ , if  $V_0 \subseteq V$  and  $E_0 = \{\{u, v\} \in E \mid u, v \in V_0\}$ . For two vertices u and v in G, the notation u-v means that u and v are adjacent. In a graph G, a set  $S \subseteq V(G)$  is a dominating set if every vertex not in S has a neighbor in S. The domination number of G, denoted by  $\gamma(G)$ , is the minimum size of a dominating set in G. A set  $S \subseteq V(G)$  is an independent set if the subgraph induced by S contains no edge. The independence number  $\alpha(G)$  is the maximum size of an independent set in G. A graph G is complete if every vertex is adjacent to every other vertex. We denote the complete graph on nvertices by  $K_n$ . A clique of G is a complete subgraph of G and the number of vertices in a largest clique of G, denoted by  $\omega(G)$ , is called the *clique number* of G. A bipartite graph is one whose vertex-set can be partitioned into two subsets so that no edge has both ends in any one subset. A complete bipartite graph is one in which each vertex is joined to every vertex that is not in the same subset. We denote  $K_{m,n}$  for the complete bipartite graph with part sizes m and n. A graph is said to be planar if it can drawn in the plane so that its edges intersect only at their ends. A unicyclic graph is a connected graph with a unique cycle.

Let R be a commutative ring with identity which is not an integral domain. The total graph of non-zero annihilating ideals of R, denoted by  $\Omega(R)$ , is a graph with the vertex-set  $A(R)^*$ , and two distinct vertices I and J are adjacent if I+J is an annihilating ideal. In this paper, we study the relations between the diameters of  $\Omega(R)$  and  $\Omega(R[x])$ . Also, we study the relations between the diameters of  $\Omega(R)$  and  $\Omega(R[[x]])$ , whenever R is a Noetherian ring. In addition, we investigate the relations between the diameters of this graph and the zero-divisor graph. Moreover, we study some combinatorial properties of  $\Omega(R)$  such as domination number, independence number and planarity. Among other results, it is proved that the connectivity of the graphs  $\Omega(R)$ ,  $\Omega(R[x])$  and  $\Omega(R[[x]])$  are equivalent. Furthermore, we study the complement of this graph and we investigate the connectivity of the graphs  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ ,  $\overline{\Omega(R[x])}$  and  $\overline{\Omega(R[[x]])}$ . Since  $\Omega(D) = \emptyset$ , where D is an integral domain, we assume that throughout this paper R is a commutative ring with  $Z(R) \neq 0$ .

#### 2. Main results

In this section, we study the relations between the diameters of  $\Omega(R)$  and  $\Omega(R[x])$ . Also, we study the relations between the diameters of  $\Omega(R)$  and  $\Omega(R[[x]])$ , whenever R is a Noetherian ring. Recall that a prime ideal P of R is said to be maximal N-prime of (0) if P is maximal with respect to the property of being contained in Z(R). By [6, Theorem 1],  $Z(R) = \bigcup_{i \in \Theta} P_i$ , where  $\{P_i\}_{i \in \Theta}$  is the set of all maximal N-primes of (0) in R. Also, by [10, Lemmas 2.3, 3.1, 3.3, 3.4 and 4.1], we have diam $(\Omega(R)) \in \{0, 1, 2, \infty\}$ . In our first result we have the following proposition. Note that xR or Rx is the ideal generated by the element  $x \in R$ .

## **Proposition 2.1.** Let R be a ring. Then

- (a) diam $(\Omega(R[x])) \in \{1, 2, \infty\}$ .
- (b)  $gr(\Omega(R[x])) = 3$ .
- (c) diam( $\Omega(R[[x]])$ )  $\in \{1, 2, \infty\}$ .
- (d)  $gr(\Omega(R[[x]])) = 3$ .

*Proof.* (a) Let  $a \in Z(R)^*$ . Then aR[x] and axR[x] are distinct vertices of  $\Omega(R[x])$  and hence  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[x])) \in \{1, 2, \infty\}$ .

(b) Let  $a \in Z(R)^*$ . Then  $aR[x] - axR[x] - ax^2R[x] - aR[x]$  is a cycle of length three in  $\Omega(R[x])$ .

By a similar way as used in the proof of (a) and (b), one can prove the items (c) and (b).  $\Box$ 

In the next theorem, we show that the connectivity of the graphs  $\Omega(R)$ ,  $\Omega(R[x])$  and  $\Omega(R[[x]])$  are equivalent. Before that, the following lemma is necessary.

**Lemma 2.2.** Let R be a ring. Then  $\Omega(R)$  is disconnected if and only if R is a reduced ring with exactly two minimal prime ideals.

*Proof.* By [10, Lemmas 2.3, 3.1, 3.3, 3.4 and 4.1],  $\Omega(R)$  is disconnected if and only if  $P_1 \cap P_2 = 0$ , where  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are maximal N-primes of (0). Thus  $\Omega(R)$  is disconnected if and only if R is a reduced ring with exactly two minimal prime ideals.

**Theorem 2.3.** Let R be a ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a)  $\Omega(R)$  is disconnected.
- (b)  $\Omega(R[x])$  is disconnected.
- (c)  $\Omega(R[[x]])$  is disconnected.

*Proof.* (a)  $\iff$  (b) Suppose that  $\Omega(R)$  is disconnected. Then R is reduced and  $\operatorname{Min}(R) = \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2\}$ . We show that R[x] is reduced and  $|\operatorname{Min}(R[x])| = 2$ . It is clear that  $\mathfrak{p}_1[x]$  and  $\mathfrak{p}_2[x]$  are prime ideals of R[x]. Since  $\mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2 = 0$ , we have  $\mathfrak{p}_1[x] \cap \mathfrak{p}_2[x] = (\mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2)[x] = 0$ . Thus R[x] is a reduced ring and  $|\operatorname{Min}(R[x])| = 2$ . Therefore,  $\Omega(R[x])$  is disconnected.

Conversely, assume that  $\Omega(R[x])$  is disconnected. Then R[x] is a reduced ring with exactly two minimal prime ideals. Now by [9, Remarks 3.27(ii)] and [9, Exercise 2.43(iii)], one can see that R is a reduced ring with exactly two minimal prime ideals. Thus  $\Omega(R)$  is disconnected.

(a)  $\iff$  (c) follows similarly.

**Example 2.4.** Let  $R = (\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)[x]$ . Since  $\Omega(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)$  is disconnected,  $\Omega((\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)[x])$  is disconnected. Now assume that  $R_1 = (\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)[x,y]$ . Then since  $R_1 = R[y]$ ,  $\Omega((\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)[x,y])$  is disconnected.

Let f be a zero-divisor of R[x]. It is well known that there exists  $c \in R^*$  such that cf = 0 (see [9, Exercise 1.36(iii)]). In the following lemma we generalize this statement.

**Lemma 2.5.** Let I be an annihilating ideal of R[x]. Then there exists  $c \in R^*$  such that cI = 0.

Proof. Let I be an annihilating ideal of R[x]. If I=0, then the statement is clear. Thus we let  $I\neq 0$ . Then there exists  $g\in R[x]^*$  such that gI=0. Without loss of generality, we may assume that  $g=a_0+a_1x+\cdots+a_nx^n$  is a polynomial of least degree n such that gI=0. Assume that  $f=b_0+b_1x+\cdots+b_mx^m\in I^*$ . Since gf=0, we have  $a_nb_m=0$ . Thus  $b_mgI=0$ . Now since g is a polynomial of least degree n such that gI=0,  $b_ma_i=0$  for  $i=0,1,\ldots,n$ . Similarly, if  $a_nb_k=0$  for some  $k\in\{0,1,\ldots,m\}$ , then  $a_ib_k=0$  for  $i=0,1,\ldots,n$ . Now suppose that  $j\in\{0,1,\ldots,m\}$  is maximum such that  $a_nb_j\neq 0$ . Then since gf=0, we have  $(a_nb_j+a_{n-1}b_{j+1}+\cdots)x^{n+j}=0$ . Thus  $a_nb_j=0$  which is a contradiction. Hence  $a_nb_j=0$  for all  $j\in\{0,1,\ldots,m\}$ . Now we conclude that  $a_nf=0$ , for all  $f\in I$ . Therefore,  $a_nI=0$ .

In the following proposition we study the relations between the diameters of  $\Omega(R)$  and  $\Omega(R[x])$ .

**Proposition 2.6.** Let R be a ring. Then we have the following statements:

- (a)  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{0,1\}$  if and only if  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[x])) = 1$ .
- (b)  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 2$  if and only if  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[x])) = 2$ .

*Proof.* (a) Suppose that  $diam(\Omega(R)) \in \{0,1\}$ . Let I and J be two distinct vertices of  $\Omega(R[x])$ . Put

 $\Delta := \{ \text{the set of all coefficients of elements of } I \}$ 

and

 $\Lambda := \{ \text{the set of all coefficients of elements of } J \}.$ 

Then it is easy to see that  $\Delta$  and  $\Lambda$  are annihilating ideals of R, by Lemma 2.5. Since  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{0,1\}$ ,  $\Delta + \Lambda$  is an annihilating ideal of R. Thus there exists  $c \in R^*$  such that c(I+J)=0. Then I is adjacent to J in  $\Omega(R[x])$  and hence  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[x]))=1$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[x])) = 1$ . If Z(R) is a minimal ideal of R, then we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 0$ . Otherwise, assume that I and J are two distinct vertices of  $\Omega(R)$ . Then I[x] and J[x] are distinct vertices of  $\Omega(R[x])$ . Since I[x] and J[x] are adjacent in  $\Omega(R[x])$ , by Lemma 2.5 there exists an element  $c \in R^*$  such that c(I[x] + J[x]) = 0. Hence c(I + J) = 0 and so I is adjacent to J in  $\Omega(R)$ . Thus  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 1$ .

(b) By Theorem 2.3 and item (a), it is straightforward.  $\Box$ 

We use the following two lemmas in the sequel.

**Lemma 2.7.** Let R be a Noetherian ring. Then  $Z(R[[x]]) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i[[x]]$ , where  $P_i = \operatorname{Ann}_R(r_i) \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  and  $r_i \in R^*$  for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ . In particular, if Z(R) is an ideal, then  $Z(R[[x]]) = \operatorname{Ann}_R(r)[[x]]$ , where  $Z(R) = \operatorname{Ann}_R(r)$  for some  $r \in R^*$ .

*Proof.* Since R is a Noetherian ring, (0) has a minimal primary decomposition by [9, Corollary 4.35]. Then by [4, Theorem 4], [9, Proposition 8.19] and [9, Proposition 8.22], one can see that  $Z(R[[x]]) = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} P_i[[x]]$ , where  $P_i = \operatorname{Ann}_R(r_i) \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  and  $r_i \in R^*$  for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ . The "in particular" statement follows similarly (see [6, Theorem 81]).

**Lemma 2.8.** Let R be a Noetherian ring. Then  $Z(R) = \operatorname{Ann}(r)$  for some  $r \in Z(R)^*$  if and only if  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{0,1\}$ .

*Proof.* Assume that  $Z(R) = \operatorname{Ann}(r)$  for some  $r \in Z(R)^*$ . If  $|A(R)^*| = 1$ , then  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 0$ . Thus we can suppose that I and J are two distinct vertices of  $\Omega(R)$ . Then r(I+J) = 0 and hence I is adjacent to J. Thus  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 1$ .

Conversely, assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{0,1\}$ . If  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 0$ , then  $Z(R) = \operatorname{Ann}(r)$  for some  $r \in Z(R)^*$ . Thus we can suppose that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 1$ . Let  $x, y \in Z(R)$ . Then since  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 1$ , a(Rx + Ry) = 0 for some  $a \in Z(R)^*$ . Thus Z(R) is an ideal. Now since R is a Noetherian ring, by  $[9, \operatorname{Proposition } 8.19]$ ,  $[9, \operatorname{Proposition } 8.22]$  and  $[6, \operatorname{Theorem } 81]$ , it is easy to see that  $Z(R) = \operatorname{Ann}(r)$  for some  $r \in Z(R)^*$ .

In the next proposition we study the relations between the diameters of  $\Omega(R)$  and  $\Omega(R[[x]])$ , when R is a Noetherian ring.

**Proposition 2.9.** Let R be a Noetherian ring. Then we have the following statements:

- (a) diam $(\Omega(R)) \in \{0,1\}$  if and only if diam $(\Omega(R[[x]])) = 1$ .
- (b)  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 2$  if and only if  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[[x]])) = 2$ .

Proof. (a) Suppose that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{0, 1\}$ . Since R is Noetherian, by Lemmas 2.7 and 2.8, we have  $Z(R[[x]]) = \operatorname{Ann}_R(r)[[x]]$  for some  $r \in Z(R)^*$ . Let I and J be two distinct vertices of  $\Omega(R[[x]])$ . Then  $I + J \subseteq Z(R[[x]])$ . Now since  $Z(R[[x]]) = \operatorname{Ann}_R(r)[[x]]$  for some  $r \in Z(R)^*$ , we have r(I + J) = 0. Thus I is adjacent to J in  $\Omega(R[[x]])$ . Then we conclude that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[[x]])) = 1$ .

Conversely, suppose that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[[x]])) = 1$ . If Z(R) is a minimal ideal of R, then we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 0$ . Otherwise, let I and J be two distinct vertices of  $\Omega(R)$ . Then it is easy to see that I[[x]] and J[[x]] are two distinct vertices of  $\Omega(R[[x]])$ . Since  $Z(R[[x]]) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i[[x]]$ , where  $P_i = \operatorname{Ann}_R(r_i) \in \operatorname{Spec}(R)$  for some  $r_i \in Z(R)^*$ , and  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[[x]])) = 1$ , we have  $I[[x]] + J[[x]] \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n P_i[[x]]$ . Thus by [6, Theorem 81],  $I[[x]] + J[[x]] \subseteq P_j[[x]]$  for some  $j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ . Then there exists  $d \in Z(R)^*$  such that d(I[[x]] + J[[x]]) = 0. Thus d(I + J) = 0 and hence I is adjacent to J in  $\Omega(R)$ . Then we conclude that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 1$ .

(b) By Theoremy 2.3 and item (a), it is straightforward.  $\Box$ 

#### 3. Some combinatorial properties of $\Omega(R)$

In this section, we investigate some combinatorial properties of  $\Omega(R)$  such as domination number and independence number. Moreover, we investigate the relations between the diameters of this graph and the zero-divisor graph. In the next proposition, we determine the domination number of  $\Omega(R)$ . Before that, we need the following two lemmas.

**Lemma 3.1.** Let R be a ring and I an ideal of R. Then I + Ann(I) is an essential ideal of R.

*Proof.* Assume to the contrary that  $I + \mathrm{Ann}(I)$  is not an essential ideal of R. Then there exists a non-zero ideal J of R such that  $J \cap (I + \mathrm{Ann}(I)) = 0$ . Thus  $J \cap I = 0$  and hence  $J \subseteq \mathrm{Ann}(I)$  which is impossible. Therefore,  $I + \mathrm{Ann}(I)$  is an essential ideal of R.

**Lemma 3.2.** Assume that I and J are two distinct vertices of  $\Omega(R)$ . Then I is adjacent to J if and only if  $\operatorname{Ann}(I) \cap \operatorname{Ann}(J) \neq 0$ .

*Proof.* Assume that I is adjacent to J. Then x(I+J)=0, for some  $x\in R^*$ . Thus  $\mathrm{Ann}(I)\cap\mathrm{Ann}(J)\neq 0$ . Conversely, assume that  $\mathrm{Ann}(I)\cap\mathrm{Ann}(J)\neq 0$ . Now we choose a non-zero element  $y\in\mathrm{Ann}(I)\cap\mathrm{Ann}(J)$ . Thus y(I+J)=0 and hence I is adjacent to J.

**Proposition 3.3.** Let R be a ring and I a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$ . Then the set  $\{I, \operatorname{Ann}(I)\}$  is a dominating set. In particular,  $\gamma(\Omega(R)) \leq 2$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $J \in A(R)^* \setminus \{I, Ann(I)\}$ . If I = Ann(I), then by Lemma 3.1 we have  $Ann(I) \cap Ann(J) \neq 0$  and hence J is adjacent to I, by Lemma 3.2. Now assume that  $I \neq Ann(I)$ . Suppose that J is not adjacent to I. Then  $Ann(I) \cap Ann(J) = 0$ . Thus  $Ann(J) \subseteq Ann(Ann(I))$ . Therefore, J is adjacent to Ann(I). □

**Example 3.4.** Let  $R = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ . Then the set  $\{\mathbb{Z} \times 0, 0 \times \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a dominating set in  $\Omega(R)$ .

Corollary 3.5. Let R be a ring. Then

- (a) R is non-reduced if and only if  $\gamma(\Omega(R)) = 1$ .
- (b) R is reduced if and only if  $\gamma(\Omega(R)) = 2$ .

*Proof.* (a) Let R be non-reduced. Then there exists  $I \in A(R)^*$  such that  $I^2 = 0$ . Now by Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2, we conclude that I is adjacent to every other vertex and so  $\gamma(\Omega(R)) = 1$ .

Conversely, assume that  $\gamma(\Omega(R)) = 1$ . Then there exists a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$ , say I, such that I is adjacent to every other vertex. If  $I = \operatorname{Ann}(I)$ , then R is non-reduced. Otherwise, we can suppose that  $I \neq \operatorname{Ann}(I)$ . Now since I is adjacent to  $\operatorname{Ann}(I)$ , there exists  $x \in R^*$  such that  $x(I + \operatorname{Ann}(I)) = 0$ . Thus  $x^2 = 0$  and so R is non-reduced.

(b) By Proposition 3.3 and item (a), it is straightforward.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 3.6.** Let  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  be rings and  $R = R_1 \times R_2$ . Then  $\gamma(\Omega(R)) = 1$  if and only if  $\gamma(\Omega(R_1)) = 1$  or  $\gamma(\Omega(R_2)) = 1$ .

*Proof.* By Corollary 3.5,  $\gamma(\Omega(R)) = 1$  if and only if R is non-reduced. On the other hand, R is non-reduced if and only if  $R_1$  or  $R_2$  is non-reduced. Thus we conclude that  $\gamma(\Omega(R)) = 1$  if and only if  $\gamma(\Omega(R_1)) = 1$  or  $\gamma(\Omega(R_2)) = 1$ .

An annihilator prime for a ring R is any prime ideal P which equals the annihilator of some non-zero ideal of R. It is easy to see that any ideal maximal among the annihilators of non-zero ideals of a ring R is prime. We use  $\mathcal{A}(R)$  to denote the set of all maximal annihilators of a ring R. Note that if R is a Noetherian ring, then  $\mathcal{A}(R) \neq \emptyset$ . In the next proposition, we study the independence number of  $\Omega(R)$ .

**Proposition 3.7.** Let R be a ring such that  $1 \leq |\mathcal{A}(R)| < \infty$  and  $Z(R) = \bigcup_{P \in \mathcal{A}(R)} P$ . Then  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) = |\mathcal{A}(R)|$ .

Proof. If  $|\mathcal{A}(R)| = 1$ , then Z(R) is an annihilator ideal. Thus  $\Omega(R)$  is a complete graph and hence  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) = 1$ . Now suppose that  $n = |\mathcal{A}(R)| \geq 2$  and  $\mathcal{A}(R) = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n\}$ . First we show that  $\mathcal{A}(R)$  is an independent set. To see this, assume that  $P_1$  is adjacent to  $P_2$ . Then there exists  $x \in R^*$  such that  $x(P_1 + P_2) = 0$ . Since  $Z(R) = \bigcup_{P \in \mathcal{A}(R)} P$ , by [6, Teorem 81] there

exists  $P_i \in \mathcal{A}(R)$  such that  $P_1 + P_2 \subseteq P_i$  which is a contradiction. Hence  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) \geq |\mathcal{A}(R)|$ . Now assume that  $S := \{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_{n+1}\}$  is an independent set with n+1 vertices. Thus since  $Z(R) = \bigcup_{P \in \mathcal{A}(R)} P$ , by [6, Theorem 81] there exist distinct  $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  and  $P \in \mathcal{A}(R)$  such that  $I_i + I_j \subseteq P$ . Then  $I_i$  is adjacent to  $I_j$  which is a contradiction. Hence  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) = |\mathcal{A}(R)|$ .

## Corollary 3.8. Let R be a ring. Then

- (a) If R is Noetherian, then  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) < \infty$ .
- (b) If R is reduced and  $|Min(R)| < \infty$ , then  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) = |Min(R)|$ .

*Proof.* (a) Assume that R is a Noetherian ring. Then by [6, Theorem 80],  $Z(R) = \bigcup_{P \in \mathcal{A}(R)} P$  and  $1 \leq |\mathcal{A}(R)| < \infty$ . Thus  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) < \infty$ .

(b) Assume that R is a reduced ring and  $\operatorname{Min}(R) = \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2, \ldots, \mathfrak{p}_n\}$ . Then  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{p}_i) \neq 0$  for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ . We show that  $\operatorname{Min}(R) = \mathcal{A}(R)$ . To see this, let  $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Min}(R)$ . If  $\mathfrak{p} \notin \mathcal{A}(R)$ , then there exists  $x \in R^*$  such that  $\mathfrak{p} \subsetneq \operatorname{Ann}(x)$ . Now since R is reduced, we have  $\operatorname{Ann}(x) \subseteq \mathfrak{q}$  for some  $\mathfrak{q} \in \operatorname{Min}(R)$  which is impossible. Thus  $\operatorname{Min}(R) \subseteq \mathcal{A}(R)$ . Now assume that  $P \in \mathcal{A}(R)$ . Then by [5, Corollary 2.4] and [6, Theorem 81], we have  $P \in \operatorname{Min}(R)$ . Thus we conclude that  $\operatorname{Min}(R) = \mathcal{A}(R)$  and hence  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) = |\operatorname{Min}(R)|$ .

In the next proposition we study the case that the independence number of  $\Omega(R)$  is finite.

**Proposition 3.9.** Let R be a reduced ring such that every prime ideal contained in Z(R) is a subset of a finite union of annihilator prime ideals. If  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) < \infty$ , then the number of annihilator ideals of R is at most  $2^{\alpha(\Omega(R))}$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that P is a prime ideal contained in Z(R) and  $P \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^n \operatorname{Ann}(X_i)$ , where  $X_i \subseteq R$  and  $Ann(X_i)$  is an annihilator prime ideal for i = 1, 2, ..., n. Then by [6, Theorem 81], we have  $P \subseteq \text{Ann}(X_i)$  for some  $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . Hence we conclude that  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{p}) \neq 0$ , for all  $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Min}(R)$ . Now since  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) <$  $\infty$ , we can suppose that  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) = n$ . We show that  $|\operatorname{Min}(R)| = n$ . To see this, let  $\mathfrak{p}_1,\mathfrak{p}_2,\ldots,\mathfrak{p}_{n+1}$  be distinct minimal prime ideals of R. Now if  $\mathfrak{p}_1$  is adjacent to  $\mathfrak{p}_2$ , then there exists  $a \in R^*$  such that  $a(\mathfrak{p}_1 + \mathfrak{p}_2) = 0$ . Hence since R is reduced, we have  $\mathfrak{p}_1 + \mathfrak{p}_2 \subseteq \mathfrak{q}$  for some  $\mathfrak{q} \in \text{Min}(R)$  which is impossible. Thus by Corollary 3.8, we may assume that  $Min(R) = \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_n\}$ . Now suppose that  $X \subseteq R$ . Then one can see that Ann(X)Ann(Ann(X)) = 0 and hence  $Ann(X) \subseteq Ann(Ann(Ann(X)))$ . On the other hand, XAnn(X) = 0 and so  $X \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(\operatorname{Ann}(X))$ . Thus we conclude that  $\operatorname{Ann}(\operatorname{Ann}(\operatorname{Ann}(X))) \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(X)$ . Hence Ann(Ann(Ann(X))) = Ann(X). Now by our assumptions, we have  $\operatorname{Ann}(X) \subseteq \bigcap_{i \in I} \mathfrak{p}_i$  and  $\operatorname{Ann}(\bigcap_{j \in J} \mathfrak{p}_j) \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(X)$ , where  $I := \{i \mid \operatorname{Ann}(X) \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_i\}$ and  $J := \{i \mid \operatorname{Ann}(\operatorname{Ann}(X)) \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_i\}$ . Since  $\operatorname{Ann}(X)\operatorname{Ann}(\operatorname{Ann}(X)) = 0, I \cup J = 0$  $\{1,2\ldots,n\}$ . On the other hand, since R is a reduced ring,  $(\cap_{i\in I}\mathfrak{p}_i)\cap(\cap_{j\in J}\mathfrak{p}_j)=$ 0. Now we have  $\cap_{i \in I} \mathfrak{p}_i \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(\cap_{j \in I} \mathfrak{p}_j)$  (see [9, Remarks 2.28(i)]). Thus we conclude that the number of annihilator ideals of R is at most  $2^{\alpha(\Omega(R))}$  (note that we have  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) = |\operatorname{Min}(R)|$ .

Remark 3.10. Let R be an Artinian ring. Then by [7, Theorem 4.12], J(R) is nilpotent. Also, by [9, Exercise 8.50] we have  $R \cong R_1 \times R_2 \times \cdots \times R_n$ , where  $R_i$  is a local Artinian ring for i = 1, 2, ..., n. Moreover, |Max(R)| = n and  $Z(R) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{m}_i$ , where  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \text{Ann}(x_i)$  is a maximal ideal of R and  $x_i \in R^*$  for i = 1, 2, ..., n. We use this fact in the sequel.

In the following proposition we study the case that  $\Omega(R)$  is unicyclic.

**Proposition 3.11.** Let R be a ring. Then  $\Omega(R)$  is unicyclic if and only if R is a local ring with exactly three non-trivial ideals or  $R \cong \mathbb{F} \times S$ , where  $\mathbb{F}$  is a field and S is a ring with exactly one non-trivial ideal.

*Proof.* Assume that  $\Omega(R)$  is unicyclic. Then every vertex of  $\Omega(R)$  contains at most three non-zero ideals. Thus R contains a minimal ideal, say Rx. Hence  $Rx\cong \frac{R}{\mathrm{Ann}(x)}$  as an R-module isomorphism and hence  $\frac{R}{\mathrm{Ann}(x)}$  is an Artinian Rmodule. Also, since Ann(x) is a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$ , Ann(x) satisfies the descending chain condition on R-submodules and so Ann(x) is an Artinian R-module. Now since  $0 \to \operatorname{Ann}(x) \to R \to \frac{R}{\operatorname{Ann}(x)} \to 0$  is an exact sequence, R is an Artinian ring by [9, Corollary 7.19]. Thus  $R \cong R_1 \times R_2 \times \cdots \times R_n$ , where  $R_i$  is a local Artinian ring for i = 1, 2, ..., n. First assume that R is not decomposable. Then since J(R) is nilpotent, we conclude that the number of non-trivial ideals of R is exactly three. Now assume that R is decomposable. We show that n=2. To see this, let n = 3. Then  $R_1 \times R_2 \times 0 - R_1 \times 0 \times 0 - 0 \times R_2 \times 0 - R_1 \times R_2 \times 0$ and  $0 \times R_2 \times R_3 - 0 \times 0 \times R_3 - 0 \times R_2 \times 0 - 0 \times R_2 \times R_3$  are cycles in  $\Omega(R)$  which is a contradiction. If n > 3, then by a similar method one can see that  $\Omega(R)$ is not unicyclic. Thus we may assume that n=2. Now if  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are not fields, then  $R_1 \times 0 - I_1 \times 0 - I_1 \times I_2 - R_1 \times 0$  and  $0 \times R_2 - 0 \times I_2 - I_1 \times I_2 - 0 \times R_2$ , where  $I_i$  is a non-trivial ideal of  $R_i$  for i = 1, 2, are cycles in  $\Omega(R)$  which is a contradiction. Now without loss of generality, we can suppose that  $R_1$  is a field. If  $R_2$  is a ring with two distinct non-trivial ideals  $J_1$  and  $J_2$ , then  $R_1 \times 0 - R_1 \times J_1 - 0 \times J_1 - R_1 \times 0$  and  $0 \times R_2 - 0 \times J_1 - 0 \times J_2 - 0 \times R_2$  are cycles in  $\Omega(R)$  which is impossible. Therefore,  $R_2$  is a ring with exactly one non-trivial ideal.

The converse is clear.  $\Box$ 

**Proposition 3.12.** Let R be a ring. If for all vertices of the form I = Ann(X), where  $X \subseteq R$ ,  $\deg(I) < \infty$ , then  $\Omega(R)$  is a finite graph.

Proof. Suppose that  $I = \operatorname{Ann}(X)$ , where  $X \subseteq R$ , is a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$ . Since  $\deg(I) < \infty$ , I satisfies the descending chain condition on R-submodules. Now by a method similar to that we used in the proof of Proposition 3.11, we conclude that R is an Artinian ring. Then  $|\operatorname{Max}(R)| = n$  and  $Z(R) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n \mathfrak{m}_i$ , where  $\mathfrak{m}_i = \operatorname{Ann}(x_i)$  is a maximal ideal of R and  $x_i \in R^*$  for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ . Now since  $\deg(\mathfrak{m}_i) < \infty$  for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ , the number of ideals contained in  $\mathfrak{m}_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ , is finite. Hence we conclude that  $\Omega(R)$  is a finite graph.  $\square$ 

**Example 3.13.** Assume that  $R = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}$ . Then one can see that  $\deg(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times 0) = 0$ . Also,  $\Omega(R)$  is not a finite graph.

**Proposition 3.14.** Let R be a reduced ring. If  $\Omega(R)$  contains a vertex of finite degree, then  $R \cong \mathbb{F} \times S$ , where  $\mathbb{F}$  is a field and S is a reduced ring.

*Proof.* Let I be a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$  such that  $\deg(I) < \infty$ . Then I satisfies the descending chain condition on R-submodules. Thus R contains a minimal ideal, say J. Now by [7, Lemma 10.22], we have J = Rx, where  $x^2 = x$ . Hence by [7, Exercise 1.7], it is easy to see that  $R \cong \mathbb{F} \times S$ , where  $\mathbb{F}$  is a field and S is a reduced ring.

Recall that a graph is said to be planar if it can drawn in the plane so that its edges intersect only at their ends. A *subdivision* of a graph is a graph obtained from it by replacing edges with pairwise internally-disjoint paths. By Kuratowski's Theorem, there is a characterization for planar graphs that say a graph is planar if and only if it does not contain a subdivision of  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  (see [12, Theorem 6.2.2]). In the next proposition we study the planarity of  $\Omega(R)$ .

**Proposition 3.15.** Let R be a ring such that  $\Omega(R)$  is planar.

- (a) If R is not decomposable, then the number of non-trivial ideals of R is at most four.
- (b) If R is decomposable, then R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:  $\mathbb{F}_1 \times \mathbb{F}_2 \times \mathbb{F}_3$ ,  $\mathbb{F} \times S$

where  $\mathbb{F}$  and  $\mathbb{F}_i$  are fields for i = 1, 2, 3 and S is a ring with at most one non-trivial ideal.

- *Proof.* (a) Suppose that I is a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$ . Since  $\Omega(R)$  is planar, by Kuratowski's Theorem the number of non-zero ideals contained in I is at most four. Now by a method similar to that we used in the proof of Proposition 3.11, we conclude that R is an Artinian ring. Thus  $R \cong R_1 \times R_2 \times \cdots \times R_n$ , where  $R_i$  is a local Artinian ring for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ . Since R is not decomposable, R is a local Artinian ring. On the other hand, J(R) is nilpotent. Then the number of non-trivial ideals of R is at most four.
- (b) Assume that R is decomposable. Then since  $\Omega(R)$  is planar, we have  $R \cong R_1 \times R_2 \times \cdots \times R_n$ , where  $n \neq 1$  and  $R_i$  is a local Artinan ring for  $i=1,2,\ldots,n$ . We claim that  $n\leq 3$ . To see this, let  $R\cong R_1\times R_2\times R_3\times R_4$ . Then one can easily see that the set  $\{R_1\times R_2\times R_3\times 0, R_1\times R_2\times 0\times 0, 0\times R_1\times 0\times 0\times 0, 0\times R_2\times 0\times 0, 0\times 0\times R_3\times 0\}$  forms  $K_5$  and hence  $\Omega(R)$  is not planar which is a contradiction. If n>4, then by a similar method one can see that  $\Omega(R)$  is not planar. Now suppose that n=3. If  $R\cong \mathbb{F}_1\times \mathbb{F}_2\times \mathbb{F}_3$ , where  $\mathbb{F}_i$  is a field for i=1,2,3, then it is easy to see that  $\Omega(R)$  is planar. Otherwise, without loss of generality we may assume that  $R_1$  contains a non-trivial ideal as  $I_1$ . Then the set  $\{R_1\times R_2\times 0, R_1\times 0\times 0, I_1\times R_2\times 0, I_1\times 0\times 0, 0\times R_2\times 0\}$  forms  $K_5$  and hence  $\Omega(R)$  is not planar. Now suppose that n=2. Assume

that  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are not fields. If  $I_i$  is a non-trivial ideal of  $R_i$  for i=1,2, then the set  $\{R_1 \times I_2, R_1 \times 0, I_1 \times I_2, I_1 \times 0, 0 \times I_2\}$  forms  $K_5$  and hence  $\Omega(R)$  is not planar which is a contradiction. Thus without loss of generality, we may assume that  $R_1$  is a field. If  $J_1$  and  $J_2$  are two distinct non-trivial ideals of  $R_2$ , then the set  $\{R_1 \times 0, 0 \times J_1, 0 \times J_2, R_1 \times J_1, R_1 \times J_2\}$  forms  $K_5$  and hence  $\Omega(R)$  is not planar which is a contradiction. Thus the number of non-trivial ideals of  $R_2$  must be at most one.

**Corollary 3.16.** Let R be a ring. If  $\Omega(R)$  is planar, then R is an Artinian ring.

In the next proposition we study the case that  $\Omega(R)$  is a connected bipartite graph.

**Proposition 3.17.** Let R be a ring and  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \neq 0$ . Then  $\Omega(R)$  is a connected bipartite graph if and only if  $\Omega(R) = K_2$ .

Proof. Suppose that  $\Omega(R)$  is bipartite. Then by [12, Theorem 1.2.18],  $\Omega(R)$  contains no cycle of odd length. Thus every vertex of  $\Omega(R)$  contains at most two non-zero ideals. Then by a similar way as used in the proof of Proposition 3.11, one can see that R is an Artinian ring. Hence every proper ideal of R is an annihilating ideal (see Remark 3.10). We claim that R is indecomposable. To see this, assume that  $R \cong R_1 \times R_2$ , where  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are rings. If  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are fields, then  $\Omega(R)$  is disconnected which is a contradiction. Otherwise, let  $I_1$  be a non-trivial ideal of  $R_1$ . Then  $0 \times R_2 - I_1 \times 0 - I_1 \times R_2 - 0 \times R_2$  is a cycle of length three in  $\Omega(R)$  which is a contradiction. Thus R is indecomposable and hence by Remark 3.10, R is a local ring with exactly two non-trivial ideals. Therefore,  $\Omega(R) = K_2$ .

The converse is clear.  $\Box$ 

In the next proposition we study the case that J(R) is a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$ .

**Proposition 3.18.** Let R be a ring with finitely many maximal ideals. Then J(R) is a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$  if and only if R contains a minimal ideal and  $J(R) \neq 0$ .

Proof. Suppose that  $|\operatorname{Max}(R)| < \infty$ . We claim that  $\operatorname{soc}(R) = \operatorname{Ann}(\operatorname{J}(R))$ . Since  $|\operatorname{Max}(R)| < \infty$ , by [9, Exercise 3.60] we have  $\frac{R}{\operatorname{J}(R)} \cong \mathbb{F}_1 \times \mathbb{F}_2 \times \cdots \times \mathbb{F}_n$ , where  $\mathbb{F}_i$  is a field for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ . Thus  $\frac{R}{\operatorname{J}(R)}$  is an Artinian ring. Therefore,  $\operatorname{soc}(R) = \operatorname{Ann}(\operatorname{J}(R))$  by [7, Exercise 4.18]. Now  $\operatorname{J}(R)$  is a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$  if and only if R contains a minimal ideal and  $\operatorname{J}(R) \neq 0$ .

**Proposition 3.19.** Let R be a ring. If for all vertices of the form I = Ann(X), where  $X \subseteq R$ ,  $\deg(I) < \infty$ , then  $J(R)^{\omega(\Omega(R))+1} = 0$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that for all vertices of the form  $I = \operatorname{Ann}(X)$ , where  $X \subseteq R$ , we have  $\deg(I) < \infty$ . Then by Proposition 3.12,  $\Omega(R)$  is a finite graph. Thus  $\omega(\Omega(R)) < \infty$ . Hence every vertex of  $\Omega(R)$  satisfies the descending chain condition on R-submodules. Now by a method similar to that we used in the proof of

Proposition 3.11, we conclude that R is an Artinian ring. Thus by Remark 3.10, J(R) is nilpotent. If  $J(R)^{\omega(\Omega(R))+1} \neq 0$ , then the subgraph induced by vertices  $\{J(R), J(R)^2, \ldots, J(R)^{\omega(\Omega(R))+1}\}$  is a clique of  $\Omega(R)$  with  $\omega(\Omega(R)) + 1$  vertices which is impossible. Therefore, we conclude that  $J(R)^{\omega(\Omega(R))+1} = 0$ .

**Proposition 3.20.** Let R be an Artinian ring such that  $J(R) \neq 0$ . Then J(R) is adjacent to every other vertex.

*Proof.* Assume that R is an Artiniain ring. Then by Remark 3.10, J(R) is nilpotent and hence J(R) is a vertex of  $\Omega(R)$ . Now by [7, Exercise 4.18], we have soc(R) = Ann(J(R)). Since each non-zero ideal of R contains a minimal ideal, we conclude that  $Ann(J(R)) \leq_e R$ . Thus by Lemma 3.2, J(R) is adjacent to every other vertex.

The zero-divisor graph of a commutative ring R, denoted by  $\Gamma(R)$ , is a graph with the vertex-set  $Z(R)^*$  and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if xy=0. By [1, Theorem 2.3],  $\Gamma(R)$  is connected and  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) \leq 3$ . In the next proposition, we study the relations between the diameters of  $\Omega(R)$  and  $\Gamma(R)$ . Before that, we need the following theorem.

**Theorem 3.21** ([8, Theorem 2.6]). Let R be a ring.

- (a) diam( $\Gamma(R)$ ) = 0 if and only if either  $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$  or  $R \cong \frac{\mathbb{Z}_2[x]}{(x^2)}$ .
- (b) diam( $\Gamma(R)$ ) = 1 if and only if xy = 0 for all distinct  $x, y \in Z(R)$  and  $|Z(R)| \ge 3$ .
- (c)  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 2$  if and only if either R is reduced with exactly two minimal prime ideals and at least three non-zero zero-divisors, or Z(R) is an ideal whose square is not zero and each pair of distinct zero-divisors has a non-zero annihilator.
- (d)  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 3$  if and only if there are distinct  $x, y \in Z(R)^*$  such that  $\operatorname{Ann}(x) \cap \operatorname{Ann}(y) = 0$  and either R is a reduced ring with more than two minimal prime ideals, or R is non-reduced.

Note that by [10],  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{0, 1, 2, \infty\}$  (see [10, Lemmas 2.3, 3.1, 3.3, 3.4 and 4.1]).

**Proposition 3.22.** Let R be a ring. Then we have the following statements:

- (a) If  $diam(\Gamma(R)) = 0$ , then  $diam(\Omega(R)) = 0$ .
- (b) If  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 1$  and  $R \ncong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ , then  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- (c) If  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 2$ , then  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{1, 2, \infty\}$ .
- (d) If  $diam(\Gamma(R)) = 3$ , then  $diam(\Omega(R)) = 2$ .
- (e) If  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 0$ , then  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- (f) If  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 1$ , then  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) \in \{1, 2\}$ .
- (g) If  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 2$ , then  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) \in \{2, 3\}$ .
- (h) If  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = \infty$  and  $R \ncong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ , then  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 2$ .

*Proof.* (a) Assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R))=0$ . Then by Theorem 3.21(a), either  $R\cong\mathbb{Z}_4$  or  $R\cong\frac{\mathbb{Z}_2[x]}{(x^2)}$  and hence  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R))=0$ .

- (b) Assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 1$ . Since  $R \ncong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ , by [1, Theorem 2.8] we have xy = 0 for all  $x, y \in Z(R)$ . Thus,  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- (c) Assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 2$ . Then by Theorem 3.21(c), either R is reduced with exactly two minimal prime ideals and at least three non-zero zero-divisors, or Z(R) is an ideal whose square is not zero and each pair of distinct zero-divisors has a non-zero annihilator. Now if R is a reduced ring with exactly two minimal prime ideals, then by Lemma 2.2 we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = \infty$ . Otherwise, we may assume that Z(R) is an ideal whose square is not zero and each pair of distinct zero-divisors has a non-zero annihilator. Then we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{1, 2\}$ .
- (d) Assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 3$ . Then by Theorem 3.21(d), there are distinct  $x, y \in Z(R)^*$  such that  $\operatorname{Ann}(x) \cap \operatorname{Ann}(y) = 0$  and either R is a reduced ring with more than two minimal prime ideals, or R is non-reduced. Now by Lemma 2.2, we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 2$ .
- (e) Assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R))=0$ . Then Z(R) is an ideal whose square is zero. Hence by Theorem 3.21(c) and (d), we have either  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R))=0$  or  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R))=1$ .
- (f) Assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 1$ . Then the subgraph induced by the principal ideals of R is complete and hence one can easily see that Z(R) is an ideal. If  $Z(R) = \operatorname{Ann}(x)$  for some non-zero  $x \in Z(R)$ , then  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) \in \{1, 2\}$ . Otherwise, if Z(R) is not an annihilator ideal, then Z(R) is an ideal whose square is not zero. Since  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 1$ , each pair of distinct zero-divisors has a non-zero annihilator (see Lemma 3.2). Hence by Theorem 3.21(c), we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 2$ .
- (g) Assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 2$ . Then by [1, Theorem 2.8], one can easily see that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) \in \{2,3\}$ .
- (h) Assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = \infty$ . Then by Lemma 2.2, R is reduced with exactly two minimal prime ideals. Hence since  $R \ncong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ , by Theorem 3.21(c) we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) = 2$ .

Corollary 3.23. Let R be a ring. If  $diam(\Omega(R)) = 0$ , then  $diam(\Omega(R[[x]])) = 1$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) = 0$ . Then by Proposition 3.22, we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R)) \in \{0,1\}$ . Now by [2, Theorem 3],  $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma(R[[x]])) = 1$ . Therefore, by Propositions 3.22 and 2.1, we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[[x]])) = 1$ .

In the next proposition we study the relation between the clique number of  $\Gamma(R)$  and the independence number of  $\Omega(R)$ .

**Proposition 3.24.** Let R be a reduced ring. If  $\omega(\Gamma(R)) < \infty$ , then we have  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) < \infty$ .

*Proof.* Suppose that R is a reduced ring and  $\omega(\Gamma(R)) < \infty$ . Then by [3, Theorem 3.7],  $|\operatorname{Min}(R)| < \infty$ . Therefore by Corollary 3.8,  $\alpha(\Omega(R)) < \infty$ .

### 4. The complement of $\Omega(R)$

The complement of  $\Omega(R)$ , introduced and studied in [11], is the graph with the same vertex-set as  $\Omega(R)$ , where two distinct vertices I and J are adjacent if and only if  $\mathrm{Ann}(I+J)=0$ . We use  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  to denote the complement of  $\Omega(R)$ . Note that by Corollary 3.5, if R is non-reduced and  $|\mathrm{A}(R)^*| \geq 2$ , then  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is not connected. Moreover, by [11, Proposition 2.4], if R is a reduced ring, then  $\mathrm{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R)}) \leq 3$ . Thus we have the following lemma.

**Lemma 4.1.** Let R be a ring. Then  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is connected if and only if R is a reduced ring or  $|A(R)^*| = 1$ .

*Proof.* See [11, Proposition 2.4] and Corollary 3.5.  $\square$ 

In the next theorem we study the relations between the connectivity of the graphs  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ ,  $\overline{\Omega(R[x])}$  and  $\overline{\Omega(R[[x]])}$ .

**Theorem 4.2.** Let R be a ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (a)  $\Omega(R)$  is disconnected or  $|A(R)^*| = 1$ .
- (b)  $\overline{\Omega(R[x])}$  is disconnected.
- (c)  $\Omega(R[[x]])$  is disconnected.

*Proof.* (a)  $\iff$  (b) Suppose that  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is disconnected or  $|A(R)^*| = 1$ . Then by Lemma 4.1, R is non-reduced. Hence R[x] is non-reduced and so  $\overline{\Omega(R[x])}$  is disconnected.

Conversely, assume that  $\overline{\Omega(R[x])}$  is disconnected. Then R[x] is non-reduced and hence by [9, Exercise 1.36], we conclude that R is non-reduced. Thus  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is disconnected or  $|A(R)^*| = 1$ .

(a) 
$$\iff$$
 (c) follows similarly.

In the following lemma we provide a shorter proof for [11, Proposition 2.11].

**Lemma 4.3.** Let R be a ring. Then  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is complete if and only if either Z(R) is a minimal ideal of R or  $R \cong \mathbb{F}_1 \times \mathbb{F}_2$ , where  $\mathbb{F}_i$  is a field for i = 1, 2.

Proof. Suppose that  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is complete. If R is non-reduced, then Z(R) is a minimal ideal of R, by Corollary 3.5. Now assume that R is reduced. Let I be a vertex of  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ . Since  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is complete, I is a minimal ideal of R. Hence I = Re, where  $e^2 = e$ , by [7, Lemma 10.22]. Thus  $R \cong R_1 \times R_2$ , where  $R_i$  is a field for i = 1, 2 (see [7, Exercise 1.7]).

The converse is clear.  $\Box$ 

By Lemma 4.3, if  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R)}) = 1$ , then  $R \cong \mathbb{F}_1 \times \mathbb{F}_2$ , where  $\mathbb{F}_i$  is a field for i = 1, 2. Also, by Proposition 2.1, we have  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R[[x]])}) \neq 0$  and  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R[[x]])}) \neq 0$ . Now by [11, Proposition 2.4] and Theorem 4.2, we have the following corollary.

Corollary 4.4. Let R be a reduced ring. Then

- (a) diam( $\overline{\Omega(R[x])}$ )  $\in \{2, 3\}$ .
- (b) diam( $\overline{\Omega(R[[x]])}$ )  $\in \{2, 3\}$ .

In next two propositions, we investigate the relations between the diameters of the graphs  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ ,  $\overline{\Omega(R[x])}$  and  $\overline{\Omega(R[[x]])}$ .

**Proposition 4.5.** Let R be a reduced ring. Then

- (a)  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R)}) \in \{1, 2\}$  if and only if  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R[x])}) = 2$ .
- (b) diam( $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ ) = 3 if and only if diam( $\overline{\Omega(R[x])}$ ) = 3.

*Proof.* (a) Suppose that  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R)) \in \{1,2\}$ . Then by [11, Remark 2.19], R has exactly two minimal prime ideals. Let  $\operatorname{Min}(R) = \{\mathfrak{p}_1,\mathfrak{p}_2\}$ . Thus,  $\mathfrak{p}_1[x]$  and  $\mathfrak{p}_2[x]$  are prime ideals of R[x]. Now since  $\mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2 = 0$ , we have  $\mathfrak{p}_1[x] \cap \mathfrak{p}_2[x] = (\mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2)[x] = 0$ . Thus R[x] is a reduced ring and  $|\operatorname{Min}(R[x])| = 2$ . Therefore,  $\operatorname{diam}(\Omega(R[x])) = 2$ , by [11, Remark 2.19] and Corollary 4.4.

Conversely, assume that  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R[x])}) = 2$ . Then by [11, Remark 2.19], R[x] is a reduced ring with exactly two minimal prime ideals. Now by [9, Remarks 3.27(ii)] and [9, Exercise 2.43(iii)], it is easy to see that R is a reduced ring with exactly two minimal prime ideals. Thus  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R)}) \in \{1,2\}$ , by [11, Remark 2.19].

(b) By [11, Proposition 2.4], Corollary 4.4 and item (a), it is clear.  $\Box$ 

Now by a method similar to that we used in the proof of Proposition 4.5, we have the following proposition.

**Proposition 4.6.** Let R be a reduced ring. Then

- (a)  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R)}) \in \{1, 2\}$  if and only if  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R[[x]])}) = 2$ .
- (b)  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R)}) = 3$  if and only if  $\operatorname{diam}(\overline{\Omega(R[[x]])}) = 3$ .

In the next proposition we study the case that  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is unicyclic.

**Proposition 4.7.** Let R be a ring such that  $|\operatorname{Min}(R)| < \infty$  and x is unit for all  $x \in R \setminus Z(R)$ . Then  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is unicyclic if and only if  $R \cong \mathbb{F}_1 \times \mathbb{F}_2 \times \mathbb{F}_3$ , where  $\mathbb{F}_i$  is a field for i = 1, 2, 3.

Proof. Assume that  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is unicyclic. Then since  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is connected, R is a reduced ring (see Lemma 4.1). Now by [5, Corollary 2.4] we have  $Z(R) = \bigcup_{\mathfrak{p} \in \mathrm{Min}(R)} \mathfrak{p}$ . Moreover, by [6, Theorem 81] we have  $\mathrm{Min}(R) = \mathrm{Max}(R)$ . Then it is easy to see that the subgraph induced by vertices of  $\mathrm{Min}(R)$  is complete. Hence we conclude that  $|\mathrm{Min}(R)| \leq 3$ . Now assume that  $|\mathrm{Min}(R)| = 3$ . Then by [9, Exercise 3.60], we have  $R \cong \mathbb{F}_1 \times \mathbb{F}_2 \times \mathbb{F}_3$ , where  $\mathbb{F}_i$  is a field for i = 1, 2, 3. Thus one can see that  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is unicyclic. Now assume that  $|\mathrm{Min}(R)| = 2$ . Then by [9, Exercise 3.60], we have  $R \cong \mathbb{F}_1 \times \mathbb{F}_2$ , where  $\mathbb{F}_i$  is a field for i = 1, 2. Thus  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$  is not unicyclic which is a contradiction.

The converse is clear.  $\Box$ 

In the following proposition we find a dominating set in  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ .

**Proposition 4.8.** Let R be a reduced ring such that  $|Min(R)| < \infty$ . Then Min(R) is a dominating set of  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ .

Proof. Since R is a reduced ring with  $|\operatorname{Min}(R)| < \infty$ ,  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{p}) \neq 0$  for all  $\mathfrak{p} \in \operatorname{Min}(R)$ . Let  $\operatorname{Min}(R) = \{\mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2, \dots, \mathfrak{p}_n\}$ . Now assume that I is a vertex of  $\overline{\Omega(R)} \setminus \operatorname{Min}(R)$ . Since R is a reduced ring, there exists  $\mathfrak{p}_i \in \operatorname{Min}(R)$  such that  $I \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}_i$ . We show that I is adjacent to  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  in  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ . To see this, let  $y \in R^*$  such that  $y(I + \mathfrak{p}_i) = 0$ . Then since R is a reduced ring, we have  $y \in \cap_{j=1, j \neq i}^n \mathfrak{p}_j$ . Hence  $I \subseteq \mathfrak{p}_i$  which is impossible. Therefore,  $\operatorname{Ann}(I + \mathfrak{p}_i) = 0$  and so I is adjacent to  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  in  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ . Thus  $\operatorname{Min}(R)$  is a dominating set of  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ .

**Example 4.9.** Assume that  $R = \frac{\mathbb{Q}[x,y]}{(x^2,xy,y^2)}$ . Then it is easy to see that R is a local ring and J(R) is nilpotent. Thus  $\deg(I) = 0$ , for all vertices I of  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ . Therefore,  $A(R)^*$  is a dominating set in  $\overline{\Omega(R)}$ .

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