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CHROMATIC NUMBER OF THE ZERO-DIVISOR GRAPHS OVER MODULES

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ABSTRACT. Let R be a commutative ring with identity and let M be an R-module. The main purpose of this paper is to calculate the chromatic number of the zero-divisor graphs over modules.

1. Introduction

Let R be a commutative ring with identity and Z(R) be its set of zero-divisors. The study of coloring of zero-divisor graphs of commutative rings dates back to [3]. For the information about the zero-divisor graphs of commutative rings, $\Gamma(R)$, which is an undirected (simple) graph with vertices $Z(R)^* = Z(R) \setminus \{0\}$ and with two distinct vertices x and y adjacent if and only if xy = 0, see [1–3], [7] and [9]. Recently, assigning a graph to a module has received a good deal of attention from many authors, see for instance [4], [6] and [8].

A graph is said to be *connected* if for each pair of distinct vertices x and y, there is a finite sequence of distinct vertices $x = x_1, \ldots, x_n = y$ such that each pair $\{x_i, x_{i+1}\}$ is an edge. Such a sequence is said to be a *path*, and the *distance*, d(x, y), between vertices x and y is the length of the shortest path connecting them $(d(x, y)) = \infty$ if there is no such path). The *diameter* of a connected graph G is

 $diam(G) = \sup\{d(x,y) \mid x \text{ and } y \text{ are distinct vertices of } G\}.$

If $G = \emptyset$, then $diam(G) = -\infty$. The diameter is 0 if the graph consists of a single vertex. A connected graph with more than one vertex has diameter 1 if and only if it is complete, that is, there exists an edge between each pair of distinct vertices. We denote the complete graph with n vertices by K_n . A cycle is a path of edges and vertices (without repeat) such that a vertex is reachable from itself. In graph theory, the girth of a graph is the length of a shortest cycle contained in the graph. If the graph does not contain any cycles (that is,

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it is an acyclic graph), its girth is defined to be *infinity*. The girth of a graph G will be denoted by gG.

Throughout this paper, R will denote a commutative ring with identity and M will denote a nonzero unitary R-module. For a subset S of M, we denote the set of all nonzero elements of S by S^* .

Recall that an element x of M is called a:

- weak zero-divisor, if x=0 or $(x:_R M)(y:_R M)M=0$ for some nonzero $y\in M$ with $(y:_R M)\subset R$ $((x:_R M)=\{r\in R\,|\,rM\subseteq Rx\}).$
- zero-divisor, if x = 0 or $(x :_R M) \neq 0$ and $(x :_R M)(y :_R M)M = 0$ for some nonzero $y \in M$ with $0 \neq (y :_R M) \subset R$.
- strong zero-divisor, if x = 0 or $(0:_R M) \subset (x:_R M)$ and $(x:_R M)(y:_R M)M = 0$ for some nonzero $y \in M$ with $(0:_R M) \subset (y:_R M) \subset R$.

We denote $\underline{Z}(_RM)$, $Z(_RM)$ and $\overline{Z}(_RM)$, respectively for the set of weak zero-divisors, zero-divisors and strong zero-divisors of M. It is clear that

$$\overline{Z}(_RM) \subseteq Z(_RM) \subseteq \underline{Z}(_RM).$$

We associate (simple) graphs, $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$, $\Gamma(RM)$ and $\overline{\Gamma}(RM)$ to M with vertices $\underline{Z}(RM)^*$, $Z(RM)^*$ and $\overline{Z}(RM)^*$, respectively, and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if (x:RM)(y:RM)M = 0. Hence

$$\overline{\Gamma}(_RM) \subseteq \Gamma(_RM) \subseteq \underline{\Gamma}(_RM).$$

Let M be an R-module. If $\underline{\Gamma}(_RM)$ contains a cycle, then we prove in Section 2 that $g\underline{\Gamma}(_RM) \leq 4$ (see Theorem 2.5). In Section 3, we deal with the chromatic number of the graph $\Gamma(_RM)$ of M. Our main result is as follows:

Let M_1 and M_2 be R-modules such that $(0:_R M_1) + (0:_R M_2) = R$. Then the following hold.

- (1) If $\underline{Z}(_RM_1)^* = \underline{Z}(_RM_2)^* = \emptyset$, then $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = 2$.
- (2) If $\underline{Z}(RM_1)^* = \emptyset$ and $\underline{Z}(RM_2)^* \neq \emptyset$, then $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_2)) + 1$.
- (3) If $\underline{Z}(_RM_1)^* \neq \emptyset$ and $\underline{Z}(_RM_2)^* = \emptyset$, then $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(_RM_1)) + 1$.
- (4) If $\underline{Z}(_RM_1)^* \neq \emptyset$ and $\underline{Z}(_RM_2)^* \neq \emptyset$, then

$$\chi(\Gamma(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = \chi(\Gamma(R_1)) + \chi(\Gamma(R_2)) + k_1 k_2,$$

where k_i is the number of elements m_t of $\underline{Z}(_RM_i)^*$ with the property that $(m_t :_R M_i)(m_t :_R M_i)M_i = 0$ for i = 1, 2.

(5) Let $\underline{Z}(_RM_1) = M_1$ and $\underline{Z}(_RM_2) = M_2$. Let $\underline{\Gamma}(_RM_1)$ and $\underline{\Gamma}(_RM_2)$ be complete zero-divisor graphs. If $(x:_RM_i)(x:_RM_i)M_i = 0$ for every element x of M_i ; i = 1, 2, then

$$\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_1)) \cdot \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_2)) + \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_1)) + \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_2)) - 1.$$

Finally, in Section 4 we propose some results of the chromatic number of \mathbb{Z}_n as a \mathbb{Z} -module.

2. Zero-divisor graphs of modules

Let M be an R-module. If M is faithful, then (0:M)=0 and so $\Gamma(RM)=\overline{\Gamma}(RM)$. If M is not faithful, then $\Gamma(RM)=\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$.

Example 2.1. i) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $M = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_2$. Then

$$((0,1):_R M) = ((1,0):_R M) = ((1,1):_R M) = 2\mathbb{Z} = ann_R(M).$$

Therefore $\Gamma(RM) = \underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ is a complete graph with three vertices and $\overline{\Gamma}(RM)$ is an empty graph.

- ii) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $M = \mathbb{Z} \oplus \mathbb{Z}$. Then $(m :_R M) = ann_R(M)$ for every m of M. Hence $\Gamma(RM) = \overline{\Gamma}(RM)$ is an empty graph and $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ is complete with vertices M^* .
- iii) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}$ and $M = \mathbb{Z}_2 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_3$. Then $ann_R(M) = 6\mathbb{Z}$, $((1,0):_R M) = 3\mathbb{Z}$, $((0,1):_R M) = ((0,2):_R M) = 2\mathbb{Z}$ and $((1,1):_R M) = ((1,2):_R M) = R$. Therefore (0,1) (1,0) (0,2) is the graph of $\underline{\Gamma}(_R M) = \overline{\Gamma}(_R M) = \overline{\Gamma}(_R M)$.

Proposition 2.2. Let M be an R-module. If x and y are adjacent in $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$, then for every $u \in Rx$ and $v \in Ry$, u is adjacent to v.

Proof. Since
$$(u:_R M) \subseteq (x:_R M)$$
 and $(v:_R M) \subseteq (y:_R M)$ we get $(u:_R M)(v:_R M)M = 0$, as needed.

Next proposition shows when $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ has a cycle.

Proposition 2.3. Let M be an R-module. If $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ contains a path of length A, then $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ contains a cycle.

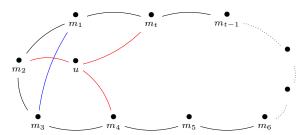
Proof. Let $x_1 - x_2 - x_3 - x_4 - x_5$ be a path of length 4 in $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$. The proof is complete if x_2 is adjacent to x_4 . Assume that $(x_2 :_R M)(x_4 :_R M)M \neq 0$. Hence $Rx_2 \cap Rx_4 \neq 0$. Let $m \in Rx_2 \cap Rx_4$. If $m = x_i$ for some $i; 1 \leq i \leq 5$, then by Proposition 2.2, we get a cycle. If $m \neq x_i$ for each $i; 1 \leq i \leq 5$, then $x_1 - m - x_3 - x_2 - x_1$ or $x_5 - m - x_3 - x_4 - x_5$ is a cycle in $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$.

Corollary 2.4. Let M be an R-module. If $\overline{\Gamma}(_RM)$ contains a path of length 4, then $\overline{\Gamma}(_RM)$ contains a cycle.

Theorem 2.5. Let M be an R-module. Then $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ is a connected graph and $diam(\underline{\Gamma}(RM)) \leq 3$. Moreover, if $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ contains a cycle, then $g\underline{\Gamma}(RM) \leq 4$.

Proof. The first part is similar to the proof of [6, Theorem 4.3].

Assume that $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ contains a cycle $m_1 - m_2 - \cdots - m_t - m_1$ of length t. If $t \leq 4$, then the proof is completed. Now assume that $t \geq 5$. Consider the following cycle of length t. We will show that it can be shorten to a cycle of length $t \leq 4$.



If $(m_1:M)(m_3:M)M=0$, then we get a cycle of length 3: $m_1-m_2-m_3-m_1$. Imagine $(m_1:M)(m_3:M)M\neq 0$. Now $(m_1:M)(m_3:M)M\subseteq Rm_1\cap Rm_3$ implies that $Rm_1\cap Rm_3\neq 0$. Thus we can take a nonzero element u in $Rm_1\cap Rm_3$. Then $Ru\subseteq Rm_1\cap Rm_3$, so that $(u:M)(m_t:M)M=0$, $(u:M)(m_2:M)M=0$, and $(u:M)(m_4:M)M=0$. Hence we get two cycles of length 4: $m_1-m_2-u-m_t-m_1$ and $m_2-m_3-m_4-u-m_2$. This shows that $g\Gamma(RM)\leq 4$.

In view of the above theorem, we have the following result:

Corollary 2.6. Let M be an R-module. If $\overline{Z}(_RM) \neq \emptyset$, then $\overline{\Gamma}(_RM)$ is a connected graph and $diam(\overline{\Gamma}(_RM)) \leq 3$. Moreover, If $\overline{\Gamma}(_RM)$ contains a cycle, then $g \overline{\Gamma}(_RM) \leq 4$.

Recall that an R-module M is multiplication if N=(N:M)M for every submodule N of M. Also, M is multiplication-like if $(0:_R M) \subset (N:_R M)$. It is clear that every multiplication module is multiplication-like (See [4,5] for more results of multiplication and multiplication-like modules). In [4] it was shown that $\overline{\Gamma}(RM) = \Gamma(RM) = \underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ if and only if M is a multiplication-like R-module. Furthermore, if R is not a field and M is not a simple module, then $\overline{\Gamma}(RM)$ is the empty graph and $\Gamma(RM)$ is a complete graph with vertices M^* .

3. Coloring of modules

We recall a coloring of a graph G to be an assignment of colors to the vertices of G, one color to each vertex, so that adjacent vertices are assigned distinct colors. If n colors are used, then the coloring is referred to as an n-coloring. If there exists an n-coloring of a graph G, then G is called n-colorable. The minimum n for which a graph G is n-colorable is called the chromatic number of G, and is denoted by $\chi(G)$. A clique in a graph G, is a complete subgraph of G. A maximum clique of a graph G, is a clique, such that there is no clique with more vertices. The clique number, $\omega(G)$, of a graph G is the number of vertices in a maximum clique in G.

We may consider an R-module M as a graph $\Gamma_0(_RM)$ whose vertices are elements of M such that two distinct vertices x and y of M are adjacent if and only if $(x:_RM)(y:_RM)M=0$. It is clear that $\Gamma_0(_RM)$ is connected with $diam(\Gamma_0(_RM)) \leq 2$ and $\underline{\Gamma}(_RM)$ is a subgraph of $\Gamma_0(_RM)$.

By the fact that $\underline{\Gamma}(RM)$ and $\Gamma_0(RM)$ are connected we can prove the following propositions by definitions of $\Gamma_0(RM)$, $\Gamma(RM)$ and [3, Proposition 2.2].

Proposition 3.1. Let M be an R-module. Then the following hold.

- (1) $\chi(\Gamma_0(_RM)) = 1$ if and only if $M = \{0\}$.
- (2) If M is multiplication, then $\chi(\Gamma(RM)) = 1$ if and only if $M \cong \mathbb{Z}_4$ or $M = \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$.

In the graph $\Gamma_0(M)$ the zero element is adjacent to all $x \in M$ so that $\Gamma_0(M)$ is a star graph if and only if $Z(RM) = \{0\}$. Thus we have the following proposition:

Proposition 3.2. Let M be an R-module. If $Z^*(_RM) = \emptyset$, then $\chi(\Gamma_0(M)) = 2$.

Proposition 3.3. Let M be an R-module. If $\underline{Z}(_RM)$ has at least 3 elements, then $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(_RM)) \geq 2$.

Let M_1 and M_2 be R-modules. Then

$$\underline{Z}(_RM_1 \times M_2) \cup (M_1 \times \underline{Z}(_RM_2)) \subseteq \underline{Z}(_R(M_1 \oplus M_2)),$$

but the equality does not hold in general even if $(0:_R M_1) + (0:_R M_2) = R$. The example of this is given below.

Example 3.4. It is clear that $(0:_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathbb{Z}_4) + (0:_{\mathbb{Z}}\mathbb{Z}_5) = \mathbb{Z}$. Notice that

$$\underline{Z}(\mathbb{Z}\mathbb{Z}_4)^* \times \mathbb{Z}_5 = \{(2, 0), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (2, 4)\}, \\
\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \underline{Z}(\mathbb{Z}_5)^* = \emptyset, \\
\underline{Z}(\mathbb{Z}(\mathbb{Z}_4 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_5))^* = \{(0, 1), (0, 2), (0, 3), (0, 4), (1, 0), (2, 0), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (2, 4), (3, 0)\}.$$

Then $(\underline{Z}(\mathbb{Z}\mathbb{Z}_4)^* \times \mathbb{Z}_5) \cup (\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \underline{Z}(\mathbb{Z}\mathbb{Z}_5)^*) \subsetneq \underline{Z}(\mathbb{Z}(\mathbb{Z}_4 \oplus \mathbb{Z}_5))^*$.

Theorem 3.5. Let M_1 and M_2 be R-modules such that $(0:_R M_1) + (0:_R M_2) = R$. Then the following hold.

- (1) If $\underline{Z}(_RM_1)^* = \underline{Z}(_RM_2)^* = \emptyset$, then $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = 2$.
- (2) If $\underline{Z}(_RM_1)^* = \emptyset$ and $\underline{Z}(_RM_2)^* \neq \emptyset$, then $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(_RM_2)) + 1$.
- (3) If $\underline{Z}(RM_1)^* \neq \emptyset$ and $\underline{Z}(RM_2)^* = \emptyset$, then $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_1)) + 1$.

Proof. (1) Assume that $\underline{Z}({}_RM_1)^* = \underline{Z}({}_RM_2)^* = \emptyset$. Then for every $m_i \in M_1^*$ and $m_j \in M_2^*$ the element $(0, m_j)$ of $\underline{Z}({}_R(M_1 \oplus M_2))^*$ is adjacent to $(m_i, 0)$. Also there is no edge between $(m_i, 0)$ and $(m'_i, 0)$ where $m'_i \in M_1^*$ and there is no edge between $(0, m_j)$ and $(0, m'_j)$ where $m'_j \in M_2^*$. So we need two colors, one for all vertices of the form $(0, m_j)$ and another for all vertices of the form $(m_i, 0)$. Therefore $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = 2$.

(2) Assume that $\underline{Z}({}_RM_1)^* = \emptyset$, $\underline{Z}({}_RM_2)^* \neq \emptyset$ and $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}({}_RM_2)) = t$. So $\underline{Z}({}_R(M_1 \oplus M_2))^* = ((M_1 \times \underline{Z}({}_RM_2)) \cup (0 \times M_2)) \setminus \{(0, 0)\}.$

For every $m_j \in M_2$ we can color the vertices $(0, m_j)$ of $\underline{Z}(R(M_1 \oplus M_2))^*$ by t colors. Since for every $m_i \in M_1^*$ the vertex $(m_i, 0)$ of $\underline{Z}(R(M_1 \oplus M_2))^*$ is adjacent to all vertices of the form $(0, m_j)$ where $m_j \in M_2^*$, we have to use a new color to all vertices of the form $(m_i, 0)$. Also there is no edge between all vertices of the form $(m_i, 0)$ and all vertices of the form (m_i, m_j) where $m_i \in M_1^*$ and $m_j \in M_2$. Hence we can use that new color for all the vertices of the form (m_i, m_j) . Therefore we color the graph with t + 1 colors.

(3) The proof is similar to that of the part (2).

Even if $\underline{\Gamma}(M_1)$ and $\underline{\Gamma}(M_2)$ are complete graphs, $\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)$ is not complete in general. If for every $x_i \in \underline{Z}(_RM_1)^*$ and $y_j \in \underline{Z}(_RM_2)^*$ we have $(x_i:_RM_1)(x_i:_RM_1)M_1=0$ and $(y_j:_RM_2)(y_j:_RM_2)M_2=0$, then $\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)$ is complete.

Theorem 3.6. Let M_1 and M_2 be R-modules such that $(0:_R M_1) + (0:_R M_2) = R$. Let $\underline{Z}(_R M_1)^* \neq \emptyset$ and $\underline{Z}(_R M_2)^* \neq \emptyset$. Then

$$\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(R_1)) + \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(R_2)) + k_1 k_2,$$

where k_i is the number of elements m_t of $\underline{Z}(_RM_i)^*$ with the property that $(m_t :_R M_i)(m_t :_R M_i)M_i = 0$ for i = 1, 2.

Proof. Let's write $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(_RM_1))$ and $\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(_RM_2))$ by t_1 and t_2 , respectively. There are 8 cases to consider for coloring $\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)$.

Case 1. We color all vertices of the form $(0, y_j)$ by t_2 colors where $y_j \in M_2^*$.

Case 2. We color all vertices of the form $(x_i, 0)$ by t_1 colors where $x_i \in M_1^*$.

Case 3. Consider the vertex (x_i, y_j) where $x_i \in M_1 \setminus \underline{Z}(RM_1)$ and $y_j \in \underline{Z}(RM_2)$. This vertex is not adjacent to any vertex of the form (x_t, y_s) for every $x_t \in M_1^*$ and $y_s \in M_2$. So we can color this vertex by t_1 colors or by the color of vertex $(x_i, 0)$. It is clear that if $y_j \in M_2 \setminus \underline{Z}(RM_2)$, then $(x_i, y_j) \notin \underline{Z}(RM_1 \oplus M_2)^*$.

Case 4. This is similar to case 3, we color all vertices of the form (x_i, y_j) by t_2 colors or by the color of vertex $(0, y_j)$ where $x_i \in Z(_RM_1)$ and $y_j \in M_2 \setminus \underline{Z}(_RM_2)$. Now, let $x_i \in \underline{Z}(_RM_1)^*$ and $y_j \in \underline{Z}(_RM_2)^*$. We have the following cases.

Case 5. If $(x_i :_R M_1)(x_i :_R M_1)M_1 \neq 0$ and $(y_j :_R M_2)(y_j :_R M_2)M_2 \neq 0$, then the vertex (x_i, y_j) is not adjacent to $(0, y_j)$ and $(x_i, 0)$. Hence we color all vertices of the form (x_i, y_j) by the color of vertex $(0, y_j)$ or by the color of vertex $(x_i, 0)$.

Case 6. If $(x_i :_R M_1)(x_i :_R M_1)M_1 = 0$ and $(y_j :_R M_2)(y_j :_R M_2)M_2 \neq 0$, then the vertex (x_i, y_j) is not adjacent to $(0, y_j)$. Hence we color all vertices of the form (x_i, y_j) by the color of vertex $(0, y_j)$.

Case 7. If $(x_i :_R M_1)(x_i :_R M_1)M_1 \neq 0$ and $(y_j :_R M_2)(y_j :_R M_2)M_2 = 0$, then the vertex (x_i, y_j) is not adjacent to $(x_i, 0)$. Hence we color all vertices of the form (x_i, y_j) by the color of vertex $(x_i, 0)$.

Case 8. If $(x_i :_R M_1)(x_i :_R M_1)M_1 = 0$ and $(y_j :_R M_2)(y_j :_R M_2)M_2 = 0$, then we need a new color for all vertices of the form (x_i, y_j) . Since the number

of these vertices is k_1k_2 where k_i is the number of elements m_t of $\underline{Z}(_RM_i)^*$ with the property that $(m_t:_RM_i)(m_t:_RM_i)M_i=0$ for i=1, 2, we have

$$\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(R_1)) + \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(R_2)) + k_1 k_2.$$

Corollary 3.7. Let M_1 and M_2 be R-modules such that $(0:_R M_1) + (0:_R M_2) = R$. Let $\underline{Z}(_R M_1) = M_1$ and $\underline{Z}(_R M_2) = M_2$. Let $\underline{\Gamma}(_R M_1)$ and $\underline{\Gamma}(M_2)$ be complete zero-divisor graphs. If $(x:M_i)(x:M_i)M_i = 0$ for every element x of M_i ; i = 1, 2, then

$$\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)) = \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_1)) \cdot \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_2)) + \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_1)) + \chi(\underline{\Gamma}(RM_2)) - 1.$$

Proof. In this case $\underline{\Gamma}(M_1 \oplus M_2)$ is a complete graph. Since $(0,0) \notin \underline{Z}(R_1 \oplus M_2)$ this graph has $(\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(R_1)) + 1) \cdot (\chi(\underline{\Gamma}(R_2)) + 1) - 1$ vertices, as needed.

4. Coloring of \mathbb{Z}_n as a \mathbb{Z} -module

Let $M = \mathbb{Z}_n$ and $R = \mathbb{Z}$. It is clear that \mathbb{Z}_n is a multiplication \mathbb{Z} -module, so $\overline{\Gamma}(\mathbb{Z}\mathbb{Z}_n) = \Gamma(\mathbb{Z}\mathbb{Z}_n) = \underline{\Gamma}(\mathbb{Z}\mathbb{Z}_n)$.

For every prime number p, $\chi(\Gamma(\mathbb{Z}\mathbb{Z}_p)) = 0$.

In the following results, M will be treated as a \mathbb{Z} -module.

Theorem 4.1. Let p be a prime number and $M = \mathbb{Z}_{p^n}$. Then $\chi(\Gamma(RM)) = p^k - 1$ if n = 2k and $\chi(\Gamma(RM)) = p^k$ if n = 2k + 1.

Proof. It is clear that Z(M) = Rp and

$$0 = Rp^n \subset Rp^{n-1} \subset Rp^{n-2} \subset \cdots \subset Rp^2 \subset Rp.$$

Let n=2k. So $(x:_R Rp^k)(y:_R Rp^k)Rp^k=0$ for every x,y of Rp^k . Hence Rp^k is an induced complete subgraph of $\Gamma(_RM)$, that is, $\Gamma(_RRp^k)=K_{p^k-1}$. It is clear that all elements of Rp^v are adjacent to all elements of Rp^v where $u+v\geq n$. There exist elements $x_i(1\leq i\leq p^k-p^{k-1})$ of Rp^k such that $x_i\not\in Rp^t$ where $k+1\leq t<2k$. Since $(z:_R M)(y:_R M)M=0$ and $(z:_R M)(x_i:_R M)M\neq 0$ for every $z\in Rp^j$ with $1\leq j< k$ and $y\in Rp^t$, we can use the color of all vertices x_i to all elements of Rp^j . Therefore $\chi(\Gamma(_RM))=\omega(\Gamma(_RM))=p^k-1$.

Now, let n=2k+1. It is clear that $\Gamma({}_RRp^{k+1})$ is an induced complete subgraph of $\Gamma({}_RM)$ and $|Rp^{k+1}|=p^k$. Hence $\chi(\Gamma({}_RRp^{k+1}))=p^k-1$. All elements of Rp^k are adjacent to all elements of Rp^{k+1} , so we need a new color for elements $y\in Rp^k\setminus Rp^{k+1}$. Therefore $\omega(\Gamma({}_RM))=p^k$. Also, there exist elements $x_i(1\leq i\leq p^k)$ of Rp^{k+1} such that $x_i\not\in Rp^t$ where $k+2\leq t<2k+1$. Since (z:M)(y:M)M=0 and $(z:M)(x_i:M)M\neq 0$ for every $z\in Rp^j$ with $1\leq j< k$, and $y\in Rp^t$ with $y\neq x_i$, we can use the color of all vertices x_i to all elements of R_p^i . Therefore $\chi(\Gamma({}_RM))=p^k=\omega(\Gamma({}_RM))$.

Theorem 4.2. Let p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n be distinct prime numbers and $M = \mathbb{Z}_{p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n}$. Then

$$\chi(\Gamma(_R M)) = n.$$

Proof. Let n=2. Then $Z(_RM)=Rp_1\cup Rp_2$ implies that $\Gamma(_RM)$ is complete bipartite. Thus $\chi(\Gamma(_RM))=2$.

Let $n \geq 3$. Then $\Gamma(_RM)$ has $(p_1-1)(p_2-1)\cdots(p_{n-1}-1)(p_n-1)$ complete subgraphs of order n with vertices all elements of the submodules $Rp_1p_2p_3\cdots p_{n-3}p_{n-2}p_{n-1}$, $Rp_1p_2p_3\cdots p_{n-3}p_{n-2}p_n$, $Rp_1p_2p_3\cdots p_{n-3}p_{n-1}p_n$, ..., $Rp_1p_3\cdots p_{n-2}p_{n-1}p_n$ and $Rp_2p_3\cdots p_{n-2}p_{n-1}p_n$. So we need n colors for coloring these vertices. Since $(x_i:_RM)(t:_RM)M\neq 0$ where $x_i\in Rp_1p_2\cdots p_{i-1}p_{i+1}\cdots p_n$ and $t\in Rp_j(j\neq i), 1\leq i, j\leq n$, we can use the color of x_i to all elements of Rp_j . Also, $(x_{ik}:_RM)(u:_RM)M\neq 0$ and $(x_i:_RM)(x_{ik}:_RM)M\neq 0$ where $x_{ik}\in Rp_1p_2\cdots p_{i-1}p_{i+1}\cdots p_{k-1}p_{k+1}p_n$ and $u\in Rp_ip_k$, we can use the color of x_i to all elements of Rp_jp_k and all elements of the form x_{ik} . By this way, we can color all elements of $Rp_1p_2\cdots p_{t_1-1}p_{t_1+1}\cdots p_{t_s-1}p_{t_s+1}\cdots p_{t_l-1}p_{t_l+1}\cdots p_{n-2}p_{n-1}p_n$ with the color of x_i or x_{t_m} where $t_m\in\{1,2,\ldots,n\}$. Therefore we need exactly n colors for coloring $\Gamma(_RM)$, that is, $\chi(\Gamma(_RM))=\omega(\Gamma(_RM))=n$.

Corollary 4.3. Let p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n be distinct prime numbers and $M = \mathbb{Z}_{p_1} \oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p_n}$. Then

$$\chi(\Gamma(_R M)) = n.$$

Proof. (Method I) By the Chinese Remainder Theorem,

$$\mathbb{Z}_{p_1p_2\cdots p_n}\cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_1}\oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p_2}\oplus \cdots \oplus \mathbb{Z}_{p_n}.$$

Hence the results follows from Theorem 4.2.

(Method II) The vertices $z_1 = (\alpha_1, 0, \dots, 0), z_2 = (0, \alpha_2, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, z_n = (0, \dots, 0, \alpha_n)$ form a clique in $\Gamma(RM)$. So, we use color c_i for z_i . Now, the vertex (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) is adjacent to z_i if and only if $u_i = 0, 1 \leq i \leq n$. Therefore $\chi(\Gamma(RM)) = \omega(\Gamma(RM)) = n$.

Theorem 4.4. Let p and q be distinct prime numbers and $M = \mathbb{Z}_{p^nq}$. Then $\chi(\Gamma(RM)) = p^k$ if n = 2k and $\chi(\Gamma(RM)) = p^k + 1$ if n = 2k + 1.

Proof. It is clear that $Z(_RM) = Rp \cup Rq$ and $0 \subset Rp^{n-1}q \subset Rp^{n-2}q \subset \cdots \subset Rpq \subset Rq$.

Let n=2k. So $(x:_R Rp^kq)(y:_R Rp^kq)Rp^kq=0$ for every x,y of Rp^kq . Hence Rp^kq is an induced complete subgraph of $\Gamma(_RM)$, that is, $\Gamma(_RRp^kq)=K_{p^k-1}$. There exist elements $x_i(1\leq i\leq p^k-p^{k-1})$ of Rp^kq such that $x_i\not\in Rp^tq$ where $k+1\leq t<2k$. Since $(z:_R M)(y:_R M)M=0$ and $(z:_R M)(x_i:_R M)M\neq 0$ for every $z\in Rp^jq$ with $1\leq j< k$, and $y\in Rp^tq$ with $y\neq x_i$, we can use the color of all vertices x_i to all elements of Rp^jq . Since $(a:_R M)(b:_R M)M=0$ for every $a\in Rp^kq$ and $b\in Rp^k$, we need a new color for all elements of Rp^k . Also, the elements of Rp^{2k} are not adjacent to the elements of Rp^k , implies that we can use the color of vertices of Rp^k to coloring vertices of Rp^{2k} . Therefore $\chi(\Gamma(_RM))=p^k+1-1=p^k=\omega(\Gamma(_RM))$.

Now, let n=2k+1. It is clear that $\Gamma({}_RRp^{k+1}q)$ is an induced complete subgraph of $\Gamma({}_RM)$ and $\chi(\Gamma({}_RRp^{k+1}q))=p^k-1$. Since $(x:_RM)(y:_RM)M=$

 $(z:_R M)(y:_R M)M = (z:_R M)(x:_R M)M = 0$ for every $x \in Rp^kq$, $y \in Rp^{k+1}q$ and $z \in Rp^s$ where $k \leq s < 2k+1$ we need two new colors for elements of Rp^kq and Rp^s . Also, there exist elements $x_i(1 \leq i \leq p^k - p^{k-1})$ of $Rp^{k+1}q$ such that $x_i \notin Rp^tq$ where $k+2 \leq t < 2k+1$. Since $(z:_R M)(y:_R M)M = 0$ and $(z:_R M)(x_i:_R M)M \neq 0$ for every $z \in Rp^jq$ with $1 \leq j < k+1$, and $y \in Rp^t$ with $y \neq x_i$, we can use the color of all vertices x_i to all elements of Rp^jq . Therefore $\chi(\Gamma(RpM)) = p^k + 1 = \omega(\Gamma(RpM))$.

In this section, we calculated the chromatic numbers of the zero-divisor graphs of \mathbb{Z}_n as a \mathbb{Z} -module, in cases that n has several kinds of standard prime factorizations. We think that there is a formal method to calculate $\chi(\Gamma(n_n\mathbb{Z}_n))$.

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