SOME RESULTS ON THE ANNIHILATOR GRAPH OF A COMMUTATIVE RING

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Abstract. Let R be a commutative ring. The annihilator graph of R, denoted by AG(R), is the undirected graph with all nonzero zero-divisors of R as vertex set, and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if $\operatorname{ann}_R(xy) \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(x) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(y)$, where for $z \in R$, $\operatorname{ann}_R(z) = \{r \in R : rz = 0\}$. In this paper, we characterize all finite commutative rings R with planar or outerplanar or ring-graph annihilator graphs. We characterize all finite commutative rings R whose annihilator graphs have clique number 1, 2 or 3. Also, we investigate some properties of the annihilator graph under the extension of R to polynomial rings and rings of fractions. For instance, we show that the graphs AG(R) and AG(T(R)) are isomorphic, where T(R) is the total quotient ring of R. Moreover, we investigate some properties of the annihilator graph of the ring of integers modulo n, where $n \geq 1$.

Keywords: annihilator graph; zero-divisor graph; outerplanar; ring-graph; cut-vertex; clique number; weakly perfect; chromatic number; polynomial ring; ring of fractions

MSC 2010: 05C75, 13A99, 05C99

1. Introduction

Let R be a commutative ring with nonzero identity. We denote the sets of all zero-divisors and nilpotent elements of R by Z(R) and Nil(R), respectively. In 1999, Anderson and Livingston introduced the zero-divisor graph of R, denoted by $\Gamma(R)$, that is the graph with vertices $Z(R)^* = Z(R) \setminus \{0\}$ and distinct vertices x and y being adjacent in $\Gamma(R)$ if and only if xy = 0. Beck introduced this concept in 1988 but he allowed all the elements of R as vertices and was mainly interested in colorings. Several other classes of graphs associated with algebraic structures have been defined and studied (cf. [2], [6], [10], [14], [13], [22]). One of the most important class of graphs associated with the algebraic structures is that of Cayley graphs (cf. [19],

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[20], [21]). Recently, in [12], the concept of the annihilator graph has been defined and studied. The annihilator graph of R, denoted by AG(R), is an undirected graph with vertex set $Z(R)^*$, and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if $\operatorname{ann}_R(xy) \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(x) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(y)$, where for $z \in R$, $\operatorname{ann}_R(z) = \{r \in R : rz = 0\}$. Let G be an additive abelian group and let S be a symmetric subset of G. The Cayley graph $\operatorname{Cay}(G,S)$ is the graph with vertex set G and two vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if $x - y \in S$. It is easy to see that the induced subgraph of the Cayley graph $\operatorname{Cay}(R,S)$, where $S = R \setminus Z(R)$, with vertex set $Z(R)^*$ is a subgraph of the annihilator graph $\operatorname{AG}(R)$. Indeed, assume that $x - y \in S$, and suppose on the contrary that x and y are not adjacent in $\operatorname{AG}(R)$. Then, by [12], Lemma 2.1, we have $\operatorname{ann}_R(x) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_R(y)$ or $\operatorname{ann}_R(y) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_R(x)$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $\operatorname{ann}_R(x) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_R(y)$. So $x - y \in Z(R)$, which is a contradiction.

By [12], Lemma 2.1, the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(R)$ is a (spanning) subgraph of the annihilator graph AG(R). Many results on zero-divisor graphs of commutative rings have been obtained (cf. [3], [4], [5], [8], [9], [15], [17]). Let $AG_N(R)$ be the (induced) subgraph of AG(R) with vertices $Nil(R)^* = Nil(R) \setminus \{0\}$. Recall that R is reduced if Nil(R) = 0. Also, Min(R) is the set of all minimal prime ideals of R. In [2], the authors studied the situations that the unit, unitary and total graphs are ring-graph or outerplanar. Also, in [1], they studied the ring-graph and outerplanarity for comaximal and zero-divisor graphs. In the second section of this paper, we completely characterize all finite commutative rings with planar or outerplanar or ring-graph annihilator graphs. In the third section we characterize all finite commutative rings R, whose annihilator graphs have clique number 1, 2 or 3. In the fourth section, we investigate the annihilator graph of the extension of R to polynomial rings and rings of fractions. Also, we show that the graphs AG(R) and AG(T(R)) are isomorphic, where T(R) is the total quotient ring of R. Finally, in the fifth section, we investigate some properties of the annihilator graph of the ring of integers modulo n, where $n \ge 1$. For instance, we study cut-vertices and cut-sets in $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$.

Now, we recall some definitions and notation on graphs. Let G be a simple graph with vertex set V(G) and let G be a cycle of G. A chord in G is any edge joining two nonadjacent vertices in G. A primitive cycle is a cycle without chord. Moreover, if any two primitive cycles intersect in at most one edge, then we say G has the primitive cycle property (PCP). The number of primitive cycles of G is the free rank of G and is denoted by frank G. We have $\operatorname{rank}(G) := q - n + r$, where G, G and G are the number of edges of G, the number of vertices of G and the number of connected components of G, respectively.

A graph G is called planar if it can be drawn in the plane without crossing edges. A graph G is an outerplanar graph if it can be drawn in the plane without crossing in such a way that all of the vertices belong to the unbounded face of the drawing.

The precise definition of a ring-graph can be found in section 2 of [18]. Also, in [18], the authors showed that the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) G is a ring-graph,
- (ii) rank(G) = frank(G),
- (iii) G satisfies PCP and G does not contain a subdivision of K^4 as a subgraph.

So every ring-graph is planar. Moreover, in [18], authors showed that every outerplanar graph is a ring-graph. A set $A \subset V(G)$ is said to be a cut-set if its removal increases the number of connected components of G and no proper subset of A satisfies the same condition. A cut-set consisting of only one element is called a cut-vertex of G. Suppose that $x, y \in V(G)$. If x is adjacent to y, then y is a neighbour of x. We use the notation x - y to say that x and y are adjacent in a graph G. The girth of G, denoted by gr(G), is the length of a shortest cycle in G ($gr(G) = \infty$ if G contains no cycles). Also we denote the complete graph with n vertices by K^n and we denote the complete bipartite graph by $K^{m,n}$. We denote the star graph by $K^{1,n}$. Let k be a positive integer. For a graph G, a k-coloring of the vertices of G is an assignment of k colors to the vertices of G in such a way that no two adjacent vertices receive the same color. The chromatic number of G, denoted by $\chi(G)$, is the smallest number ksuch that G admits a k-coloring. Any subgraph of G is called a clique if it is complete and the size of a largest clique in a graph G is denoted by $\operatorname{cl}(G)$. A graph G is called weakly perfect provided $\chi(G) = \operatorname{cl}(G)$ (cf. [23]).

2. Ring-graphs and outerplanar annihilator graphs

In this section, we investigate all finite commutative rings R such that their annihilator graphs are planar or outerplanar or ring-graph. Throughout this section, R is a finite commutative ring with nonzero identity and \mathbb{F} is a finite field. Specially, \mathbb{F}_4 is a field with four elements.

Theorem 2.1. The annihilator graph AG(R) is planar if and only if R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:

- (i) $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$,
- (ii) $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{F}$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{F}$,
- (iii) \mathbb{Z}_4 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_8 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x, y]/(x, y)^2$, \mathbb{Z}_9 , $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{F}_4[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)$, \mathbb{Z}_{25} , $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]/(x^2)$.

Proof. Clearly, by [12], Lemma 2.1, the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(R)$ is a (spanning) subgraph of the annihilator graph AG(R). Hence if $\Gamma(R)$ is not planar, then AG(R) is not planar either. So in order to investigate the planarity of AG(R), we need only

to study the rings R whose zero-divisor graphs are planar. In [3] and [16] it was shown that $\Gamma(R)$ is planar if and only if R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:

- (i) $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$,
- (ii) $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{F}$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{F}$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_8$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_9$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_9$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$,
- (iii) \mathbb{Z}_4 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_8 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2-2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x, y]/(x, y)^2$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_9 , $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{F}_4[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2-2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2+2x+2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2+x+1)$, \mathbb{Z}_{25} , $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]/(x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_{16} , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^4)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x, y]/(x^2-y^2, xy)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x, y]/(x^2, y^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^3-2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x, y]/(x^2-2, xy, y^2-2, 2x)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x, y]/(x^2, xy-2, y^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2-2x)$, $\mathbb{Z}_8[x]/(2x, x^2-4)$, \mathbb{Z}_{27} , $\mathbb{Z}_9[x]/(x^2-3, 3x)$, $\mathbb{Z}_9[x]/(x^2-6, 3x)$, $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^3)$.

Now we study the planarity of AG(R), when R is one of the above rings. By Figure 1, it is easy to see that $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is planar.

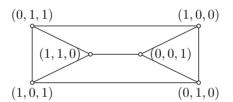
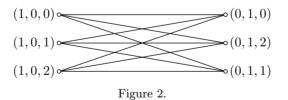


Figure 1. $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)$.

In Figure 2, the graph $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3)$ has a copy of $K^{3,3}$, and so it is not planar.



If R is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{F}$ with $|\mathbb{F}| = m$, then $\mathrm{AG}(R) \cong K^{1,m-1}$. Hence $\mathrm{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{F})$ is planar. Also if R is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{F}$ with $|\mathbb{F}| = m$, then one can easily check that $\mathrm{AG}(R) \cong K^{2,m-1}$. Thus $\mathrm{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{F})$ is planar.

If $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$ or $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, then we have $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)$ is $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$). Let $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$. Then, by Figure 3, it is obvious that $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)$ is planar.

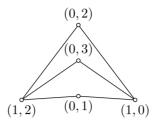
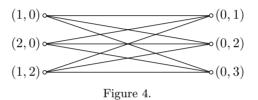


Figure 3. $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)$.

If $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$ or $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, then we have $AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_4) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2))$. Now, one can easily find a copy of $K^{3,3}$ with vertex set $\{(1,0),(2,0),(1,2),(0,1),(0,2),(0,3)\}$ in $AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)$ (see Figure 4), and so it is not planar.



If R is isomorphic to one of the rings $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_8$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$ or $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x,x^2-2)$, then we have $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_8) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x,x^2-2))$. Let $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_8$. By Figure 5, the graph $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_8)$ has a subdivision of K^5 . So $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_8)$ is not planar.

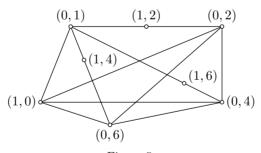


Figure 5.

If $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_9$ or $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, then we have $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_9) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_9)$ $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$). Let $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_9$. Then, by Figure 6, one can find a copy of $K^{3,3}$. Hence $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_9)$ is not planar.

Also, if $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_9$ or $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, then $AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_9) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_9)$. Let $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_9$. Then one can find a copy of K^5 with vertex set $\{(0,3),(0,6),(1,3),(1,6),(2,3)\}$ in $AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_9)$, so $AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_9)$ is not planar.

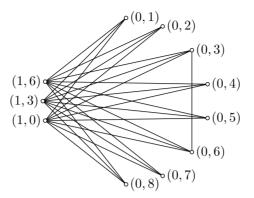


Figure 6. $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_9)$.

Now, we study the situation when R is a local ring. Badawi in [12] proved that $AG_N(R)$ is a complete graph. Since for finite local rings we have Z(R) = Nil(R) if $|Z(R)| \ge 6$, hence AG(R) contains a copy of K^5 , and so it is not planar. It is easy to see that the following rings have |Z(R)| = 8, and hence their annihilator graphs are not planar:

$$\mathbb{Z}_{16}$$
, $\mathbb{Z}_{2}[x]/(x^{4})$, $\mathbb{Z}_{2}[x,y]/(x^{2}-y^{2},xy)$, $\mathbb{Z}_{2}[x,y]/(x^{2},y^{2})$, $\mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(2x,x^{3}-2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_{8}[x]/(2x,x^{2}-4)$, $\mathbb{Z}_{4}[x,y]/(x^{2}-2,xy,y^{2}-2,2x)$, $\mathbb{Z}_{4}[x,y]/(x^{2},xy-2,y^{2})$, $\mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2})$, $\mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2}-2x)$, $\mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2}-2x)$.

Also in the following rings we have |Z(R)| = 9, and hence their annihilator graphs are not planar:

$$\mathbb{Z}_{27}$$
, $\mathbb{Z}_9[x]/(x^2-3,3x)$, $\mathbb{Z}_9[x]/(x^2-6,3x)$, $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^3)$.

Now, one can easily check that the following isomorphisms hold:

$$AG(\mathbb{Z}_4) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)) \cong K^1,$$

$$AG(\mathbb{Z}_8) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 - 2))$$

$$\cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_2[x, y]/(x, y)^2) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2))$$

$$\cong AG(\mathbb{F}_4[x]/(x^2)) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)) \cong K^3,$$

$$AG(\mathbb{Z}_9) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)) \cong K^2,$$

$$AG(\mathbb{Z}_{25}) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_5[x]/(x^2)) \cong K^4.$$

By the above discussion the result holds.

In the next theorem, we characterize all rings with ring-graph annihilator graphs.

Theorem 2.2. The annihilator graph AG(R) is a ring-graph if and only if R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:

- (i) $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{F}$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$,
- (ii) \mathbb{Z}_4 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_8 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x, y]/(x, y)^2$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_9 , $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{F}_4[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)$.

Proof. Since every ring-graph is planar, it is enough to study the rings with planar annihilator graphs. Since

$$\operatorname{frank}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)) = 7$$
 and $\operatorname{rank}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)) = 4$,

by Figure 1, $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is not a ring-graph. If R is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$, by Figure 3, we have

$$\operatorname{rank}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)) = 6 - 5 + 1 = 2$$
 and $\operatorname{frank}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)) = 3$.

Thus $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)$ is not a ring-graph. Also $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2))$, and so $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2))$ is not a ring-graph. If R is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{F}$, then it is easy to see that $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{F})$ is a star graph. Hence $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{F})$ is a ring-graph. If R is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{F}$, then AG(R) is isomorphic to $K^{2,m-1}$, where $|\mathbb{F}| = m$. Thus $\operatorname{rank}(AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{F})) = m-2$ and $\operatorname{frank}(AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{F})) = (m-1)(m-2)/2$. Therefore $AG((\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{F}))$ is a ring-graph if and only if (m-1)(m-2)/2 = m-2, which implies that m=2 or m=3. So $AG(\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{F})$ is a ring-graph if and only if $\mathbb{F} \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$ or $\mathbb{F} \cong \mathbb{Z}_3$. Also, in view of the proof of Theorem 2.1, the annihilator graphs of all rings

$$\mathbb{Z}_4$$
, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_8 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 - 2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x, y]/(x, y)^2$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_9 , $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{F}_4[x]/(x^2)$ and $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)$

are ring-graphs. The graphs $AG(\mathbb{Z}_{25})$ and $AG(\mathbb{Z}_{5}[x]/(x^{2}))$ are isomorphic to K^{4} , and so they are not ring-graphs.

In the next theorem, by using the fact that every outerplanar graph is a ringgraph in conjunction with Theorem 2.2, we determine all rings R with outerplanar annihilator graphs.

Theorem 2.3. The annihilator graph AG(R) is outerplanar if and only if R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:

- (i) $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{F}$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$,
- (ii) \mathbb{Z}_4 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_8 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x, y]/(x, y)^2$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_9 , $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{F}_4[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2 + x + 1)$.

Proof. Since a graph G is outerplanar if and only if it does not contain a subdivision of a complete graph K^4 or a complete bipartite graph $K^{2,3}$, one can check that no ring-graph annihilator graphs contain a subdivision of a complete graph K^4 or a complete bipartite graph $K^{2,3}$. Now the result follows immediately from Theorem 2.2.

3. CLIQUE NUMBERS OF THE ANNIHILATOR GRAPHS

We begin this section with a lemma which shows that the annihilator graph of the product of three fields is weakly perfect.

Lemma 3.1. Let K_1, K_2 and K_3 be fields. Then $cl(AG(K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3)) = \chi(AG(K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3)) = 3$.

Proof. Suppose that (a, b, c) is in $Z(K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3)$. Then at least one of a, b or c is zero. So, if

$$\begin{split} A_1 &= \{(a,b,c) \in K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3 \colon \ a = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad b \neq 0 \neq c\}, \\ A_2 &= \{(a,b,c) \in K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3 \colon \ b = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad a \neq 0 \neq c\}, \\ A_3 &= \{(a,b,c) \in K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3 \colon \ c = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad a \neq 0 \neq b\}, \\ A_4 &= \{(a,b,c) \in K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3 \colon \ a = b = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad c \neq 0\}, \\ A_5 &= \{(a,b,c) \in K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3 \colon \ a = c = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad b \neq 0\}, \\ A_6 &= \{(a,b,c) \in K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3 \colon \ b = c = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad a \neq 0\}, \end{split}$$

then $Z(K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3)^* = \bigcup_{i=1}^6 A_i$. Now, by the definition of the annihilator graph AG(R), every vertex in A_1 is adjacent to every vertex in A_2 , A_3 and A_6 , every vertex in A_2 is adjacent to every vertex in A_1 , A_3 and A_5 , every vertex in A_3 is adjacent to every vertex in A_1 , A_2 and A_4 , every vertex in A_4 is adjacent to every vertex in A_3 , A_5 and A_6 , every vertex in A_5 is adjacent to every vertex in A_2 , A_4 and A_6 and every vertex in A_6 is adjacent to every vertex in A_1 , A_4 and A_5 . Also, each A_i for $i=1,\ldots,6$ is an independent set. Hence $\operatorname{cl}(AG(K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3))=3$, and so $\chi(AG(K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3))\geqslant 3$. Since each A_i for $i=1,\ldots,6$ is an independent set, we can color every vertex in A_1 by λ_1 . Now, since every vertex in A_2 is adjacent to every vertex in A_4 is adjacent to every vertex in A_3 , and A_4 . Therefore we need another color A_4 for every vertex in A_4 is adjacent to every vertex in A_3 . Every vertex in A_4 is adjacent to every vertex in A_3 , A_5 and A_6 , and so we can color the vertices in A_4 by A_4 or A_4 . Without loss of generality, we color

every vertex in A_4 by λ_1 . Since every vertex in A_5 is adjacent to A_2 and A_4 , we cannot color the vertices in A_5 by λ_1 and λ_2 . So we color every vertex in A_5 by λ_3 . Finally, since every vertex in A_6 is adjacent to A_1 , A_4 and A_5 , we color the vertices in A_6 by λ_2 . Hence $\chi(AG(K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3)) = 3$.

In the next theorem we characterize all finite rings R whose annihilator graphs have clique number 1, 2 or 3.

Theorem 3.2. Let R be a finite commutative ring and let K_1 , K_2 and K_3 be finite fields. Also, let \mathbb{F}_4 be a field with four elements. Then the following statements hold:

- (a) $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(R)) = 1$ if and only if R is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_4 or $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$.
- (b) cl(AG(R)) = 2 if and only if R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:

$$K_1 \times K_2$$
, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$, $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_9 , $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$.

(c) cl(AG(R)) = 3 if and only if R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:

$$K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3$$
, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$, $\mathbb{Z}_3 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_8 , $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2,x)^2$, $\mathbb{E}_4[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2+x+1)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x,y]/(x,y)^2$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x,x^2-2)$.

Proof. (a) Clearly, by [12], Lemma 2.1, the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(R)$ is a (spanning) subgraph of the annihilator graph AG(R). Hence if cl(AG(R)) = n, then $cl(\Gamma(R)) \leq n$. So cl(AG(R)) = 1 if and only if $cl(\Gamma(R)) = 1$. Also by [15], Proposition 2.2, $cl(\Gamma(R)) = 1$ if and only if R is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_4 or $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$.

(b) In order to characterize all rings R with $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(R))=2$, we need only to study the rings R with $\operatorname{cl}(\Gamma(R))=1$ or 2. It is easy to see that if $\operatorname{cl}(\Gamma(R))=1$, then $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(R))=1$. Now, by [15], page 226, $\operatorname{cl}(\Gamma(R))=2$ if and only if R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:

$$K_1 \times K_2$$
, $K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$, $K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, \mathbb{Z}_8 , \mathbb{Z}_9 , $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 - 2)$.

If $R \cong K_1 \times K_2$ with $|K_1| = n$ and $|K_2| = m$, then one can easily check that $AG(R) \cong K^{n-1,m-1}$. Thus $cl(AG(K_1 \times K_2)) = 2$.

If $R \cong K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$ or $K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$ with $|K_1| = n$, then $AG(K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_4) \cong AG(K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2))$. Let $R \cong K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$. Then $AG(K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)$ contains a complete graph K^n with vertex set $\{(0,2),(r_1,2),(r_2,2),\ldots,(r_{n-1},2)\}$, where $r_i \neq 0$ for $i=1,\ldots,n-1$, and so $cl(AG(R)) \geqslant n$. Thus, for $n \geqslant 3$ we have that $cl(AG(K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)) \geqslant 3$. Now,

if n = 2, then $K_1 \cong \mathbb{Z}_2$, and so $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4)) = 2$. If $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_8$, then we have $\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_8) \cong K^3$. Thus $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_8)) = 3$.

If $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_9$ or $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, then we have $AG(\mathbb{Z}_9) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)) \cong K^2$. Thus $cl(AG(\mathbb{Z}_9)) = cl(AG(\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2))) = 2$. If $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$ or $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 - 2)$, then we have $AG(\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 - 2)) \cong K^3$. Therefore, for clicque subgraph is $cl(AG(\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3))) = cl(AG(\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x, x^2 - 2))) = 3$.

(c) In order to characterize all rings R with $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(R))=3$, we need only to study the rings R with $\operatorname{cl}(\Gamma(R))=1,2$ or 3. In view of the proof of part (b), we have $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_3\times\mathbb{Z}_4))=\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_3\times\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)))=\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_8))=\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)))=\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x,x^2-2)))=3$. Now we study the rings R with $\operatorname{cl}(\Gamma(R))=3$. By [9], Theorem 4.4, $\operatorname{cl}(\Gamma(R))=3$ if and only if R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:

$$\begin{split} & \mathbb{Z}_{4} \times \mathbb{Z}_{4}, \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x]/(x^{2}), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x]/(x^{2}) \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x]/(x^{2}), \\ & K_{1} \times K_{2} \times K_{3}, \ K_{1} \times K_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{4}, \ K_{1} \times K_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x]/(x^{2}), \\ & K_{1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{8}, \ K_{1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{9}, \ K_{1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3}[x]/(x^{2}), \ K_{1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x]/(x^{3}), \\ & K_{1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(2x, x^{2} - 2), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{16}, \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x]/(x^{4}), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(2x, x^{3} - 2), \\ & \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2} - 2), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2} + 2x + 2), \ \ \mathbb{E}_{4}[x]/(x^{2}), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2} + x + 1), \\ & \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x, y]/(x, y)^{2}, \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(2, x)^{2}, \mathbb{Z}_{27}, \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{3}[x]/(x^{3}), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{9}[x]/(3x, x^{2} - 3), \\ & \mathbb{Z}_{9}[x]/(3x, x^{2} - 6), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x, y]/(x^{2}, y^{2} - xy), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x, y]/(x^{2}, y^{2}), \\ & \mathbb{Z}_{8}[x]/(2x - 4, x^{2}), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2}), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2} - 2x), \\ & \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x, y]/(x^{2}, xy - 2, y^{2}, 2x, 2y) \quad \text{or} \quad \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x, y]/(x^{2}, xy - 2, x^{2} - xy, 2x, 2y). \end{split}$$

If $R\cong \mathbb{Z}_4\times \mathbb{Z}_4$, then $\mathrm{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_4\times \mathbb{Z}_4)$ contains a complete graph K^5 with vertex set $\{(2,1),(2,2),(2,3),(1,2),(3,2)\}$. Thus $\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_4\times \mathbb{Z}_4))\geqslant 5$. If $R\cong \mathbb{Z}_4\times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, then $\mathrm{AG}(R)$ contains a complete graph K^5 with vertex set $\{(2,1),(2,x),(2,1+x),(1,x),(3,x)\}$. Therefore $\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_4\times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)))\geqslant 5$. If $R\cong \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)\times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, then $\mathrm{AG}(R)$ contains a complete graph K^5 with vertex set $\{(x,1),(x,x),(x,1+x),(1+x,x),(1,x)\}$. Thus $\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{AG}(R))\geqslant 5$. If $R\cong K_1\times K_2\times K_3$, then by Lemma 3.1, $\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{AG}(R))=3$. If $R\cong K_1\times K_2\times \mathbb{Z}_4$, then $\mathrm{AG}(R)$ contains a complete graph K^4 with vertex set $\{(0,1,2),(1,1,0),(1,0,2),(0,0,2)\}$. Therefore $\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{AG}(R))\geqslant 4$. If $R\cong K_1\times K_2\times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^2)$, then $\mathrm{AG}(R)$ contains a complete graph K^4 with vertex set $\{(0,1,x),(1,1,0),(1,0,x),(0,0,x)\}$. Hence $\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{AG}(R))\geqslant 4$. If $R\cong K_1\times \mathbb{Z}_8$, then $\mathrm{AG}(R)$ contains a complete graph K^4 with vertex set $\{(0,1),(1,2),(1,4),(1,6)\}$. Thus $\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{AG}(R))\geqslant 4$. If $R\cong K_1\times \mathbb{Z}_9$, then $\mathrm{AG}(R)$ contains a complete graph K^4 with vertex set $\{(1,3),(1,6),(0,3),(0,6)\}$. So $\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{AG}(R))\geqslant 4$. If $R\cong K_1\times \mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^2)$, then $\mathrm{AG}(R)$ contains a complete graph K^4 with vertex set $\{(1,x),(1,2x),(0,x),(0,2x)\}$. Thus $\mathrm{cl}(\mathrm{AG}(R))\geqslant 4$.

Now, if $R \cong K_1 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[x]/(x^3)$, then AG(R) contains a complete graph K^4 with vertex set $\{(1,x),(1,x^2+x),(0,x),(0,x^2+x)\}$, and so $cl(AG(R))\geqslant 4$. If $R\cong K_1\times\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2x,x^2-2)$, then AG(R) contains a complete graph K^4 with vertex set $\{(1,2),(1,2+x),(0,2),(0,2+x)\}$. So $cl(AG(R))\geqslant 4$. If R is isomorphic to one of the following rings:

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{Z}_{16}, & \ \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x]/(x^{4}), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(2x,x^{3}-2), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2}-2), \\ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2}+2x+2), & \ \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x,y]/(x^{2},y^{2}-xy), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{2}[x,y]/(x^{2},y^{2}), \\ \mathbb{Z}_{8}[x]/(2x-4,x^{2}), & \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2}), \ \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x]/(x^{2}-2x), \\ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x,y]/(x^{2},xy-2,y^{2},2x,2y) & \text{or} & \ \mathbb{Z}_{4}[x,y]/(x^{2},xy-2,x^{2}-xy,2x,2y), \end{split}$$

then its annihilator graph is isomorphic to K^7 . Thus, for clicque subgraph is $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(R))=7$. If $R\cong \mathbb{F}_4[x]/(x^2)$, $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(x^2+x+1)$, $\mathbb{Z}_2[x,y]/(x,y)^2$ or $\mathbb{Z}_4[x]/(2,x)^2$, then its annihilator graph is isomorphic to K^3 . Hence $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(R))=3$. If $R\cong \mathbb{Z}_{27}$, $\mathbb{Z}_3[x]/(x^3)$, $\mathbb{Z}_9[x]/(3x,x^2-3)$ or $\mathbb{Z}_9[x]/(3x,x^2-6)$, then its annihilator graph is isomorphic to K^8 . Therefore $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(R))=8$. Now by the above discussion the result holds.

4. Extension rings

In this section, we compare some properties of the annihilator graph AG(R) with the graphs AG(R[x]) and $AG(S^{-1}R)$. Note that McCoy's theorem states that $f(x) \in R[x]$ is a zero-divisor if and only if there is a nonzero element $r \in R$ such that rf(x) = 0. Also it is proved that a polynomial f(x) over a commutative ring R is nilpotent if and only if each coefficient of f(x) is nilpotent (cf. [11]).

Proposition 4.1. Let R be a finite commutative ring with $|Z(R)^*| > 1$ and $R \not\cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$. Then the annihilator graph AG(R) is a complete graph if and only if R is a local ring.

Proof. First assume that the annihilator graph AG(R) is a complete graph. We shall show that R is a local ring. If R is a finite commutative ring and Z(R) is an ideal of R, then R is a local ring with $Z(R) = \operatorname{Nil}(R)$ its unique maximal ideal. So it is enough to show that Z(R) is an ideal of R. Let $|Z(R)^*| = 2$. So $Z(R) = \{0, x, y\}$ where $x \neq y$. If $xy \neq 0$, then $x^2 = y^2 = 0$. Hence $Z(R) = \operatorname{Nil}(R)$. Therefore Z(R) is an ideal of R. Now, suppose that xy = 0. Then the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(R)$ is a complete graph. Moreover, in [8], Theorem 2.10, it was shown that for any finite commutative ring R, if $\Gamma(R)$ is complete, then either $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ or R is a local

ring with characteristic p or p^2 and $|\Gamma(R)| = p^s - 1$, where p is a prime and $s \ge 1$. Thus the result follows. Now assume that $|Z(R)^*| \ge 3$. Let x, y be distinct elements in $Z(R)^*$. It is enough to show that $x + y \in Z(R)$. Since $\Gamma(R)$ is connected, there is a nonzero element $r \in R$ such that rx = 0 (or ry = 0). Now, because AG(R) is a complete graph, r - y is an edge of AG(R). So $\operatorname{ann}_R(ry) \ne \operatorname{ann}_R(r) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(y)$. Thus there exists $r' \in R$ such that r'ry = 0 and $r'r \ne 0$ and $r'y \ne 0$. Hence r'r(x + y) = 0. Therefore $x + y \in Z(R)$.

Conversely, since for a finite local ring we have Z(R) = Nil(R), the result follows from [12], Theorem 3.10.

Theorem 4.2. Let R be a finite commutative ring with $|Z(R)^*| > 1$ and $R \ncong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$. If AG(R) is complete, then AG(R[x]) is also complete.

Proof. It is enough to show that every zero-divisor element in R[x] is nilpotent. Then, by [12], Theorem 3.10, AG(R[x]) is complete. Since AG(R) is complete, by Proposition 4.1, R is a local ring. So Z(R) = Nil(R). Now, let $f(x) \in Z(R[x])$, where $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \ldots + a_nx^n$. Thus $a_0, \ldots, a_n \in Nil(R)$, which implies that f(x) is nilpotent.

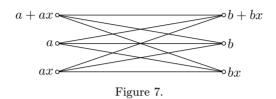
Recall that the diameter of a graph G, denoted by diam(G), is equal to $\sup\{d(a,b): a, b \in V(G)\}$, where d(a,b) is the length of the shortest path connecting a and b.

Corollary 4.3. Let R be a finite commutative ring with $|Z(R)^*| > 1$ and $R \ncong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$. Then $\operatorname{diam}(\operatorname{AG}(R)) = \operatorname{diam}(\operatorname{AG}(R[x]))$.

Proof. By [12], Theorem 2.2, we have diam(AG(R)) = 1 or 2. Assume that diam(AG(R)) = 1. So AG(R) is a complete graph. Therefore, by Theorem 4.2, the annihilator graph AG(R[x]) is also a complete graph. Hence diam(AG(R[x])) = 1. Now if diam(AG(R)) = 2, then there are distinct elements $a, b \in Z(R)^*$, such that a - b is not an edge of AG(R). We show that a - b is not an edge of AG(R[x]) either. Since a - b is not an edge of AG(R), ann_R(ab) = ann_R(a) \cup ann_R(b). So, ann_R(a) \subseteq ann_R(b) or ann_R(b) \subseteq ann_R(a). Now (without loss of generality), we set ann_R(a) \subseteq ann_R(b). So ann_R(ab) = ann_R(b). Suppose that $f(x) \in$ ann_{R[x]}(ab) where $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + \ldots + a_nx^n$. Hence $aba_0 = aba_1 = \ldots = aba_n = 0$. Since ann_R(ab) = ann_R(b), $ba_0 = ba_1 = \ldots = ba_n = 0$. Thus $f(x) \in$ ann_{R[x]}(b). Hence ann_{R[x]}(ab) \subseteq ann_{R[x]}(b). Therefore ann_{R[x]}(ab) = ann_{R[x]}(a) \cup ann_{R[x]}(b), so a - b is not an edge of AG(R[x]), and since diam(AG(R[x])) \leq 2, we conclude that diam(AG(R[x])) = 2.

Theorem 4.4. Let R be a commutative ring. If R is not an integral domain, then the annihilator graph AG(R[x]) is not planar.

Proof. First suppose that R is not a reduced ring. So there exists a nonzero nilpotent element $a \in R$. Let n be the least positive integer such that $a^n = 0$. Then one can find a copy of K^5 with vertex set $\{a, ax, ax^2, ax^3, ax^4\}$ in AG(R[x]), and so AG(R[x]) is not planar. Now assume that R is a reduced ring. Hence there exist $a, b \in R$ such that $a \neq b$ and ab = 0. Then, by Figure 7, the graph AG(R[x]) has a copy of $K^{3,3}$, and so AG(R[x]) is not planar.



The following corollary immediately follows from Theorem 4.4.

Corollary 4.5. Let R be a commutative ring. If R is not an integral domain, then $gr(AG(R[x])) \in \{3,4\}.$

In the rest of the section, we study the annihilator graph of the ring of fractions $S^{-1}R$, where S is a multiplicatively closed subset of R. It is obvious that if $r \in Z(R)$, then $r/s \in Z(S^{-1}R)$ for every $s \in S$. Now, let $r/s \in Z(S^{-1}R)$. Thus there is a nonzero element $r'/s' \in S^{-1}R$ such that $(r/s) \cdot (r'/s') = 0/1$. So there exists $u \in S$ such that urr' = 0. Clearly $ur' \neq 0$, because otherwise r'/s' = 0/1. Thus $r \in Z(R)$.

Proposition 4.6. Let R be a commutative ring. If r and r' are arbitrary elements of R such that $\operatorname{ann}_R(r) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_R(r')$, then $\operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r/s) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r'/s')$ for every $s, s' \in S$.

Proof. Assume that $\operatorname{ann}_R(r) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_R(r')$, and suppose on the contrary that $\operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r/s) \not\subseteq \operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r'/s')$. Then there is $r''/s'' \in S^{-1}R$ such that $(r/s) \times (r''/s'') = 0/1$ and $(r'/s')(r''/s'') \neq 0/1$. So there exists $u \in S$ such that urr'' = 0, and, for every $v \in S$, $vr'r'' \neq 0$. So $ur'' \in \operatorname{ann}_R(r)$. Thus $ur'' \in \operatorname{ann}_R(r')$. So we have ur'r'' = 0, which is the required contradiction.

Lemma 4.7. Let R be a commutative ring. If a_1/s_1 is adjacent to a_2/s_2 in $AG(S^{-1}R)$, then either a_1 is adjacent to a_2 or a_1s_2 is adjacent to a_2s_1 in AG(R) for every $s_1, s_2 \in S$.

Proof. First assume that $a_1 \neq a_2$. Since $a_1/s_1 - a_2/s_2$ is an edge in AG($S^{-1}R$), there is b/s in AG($S^{-1}R$) such that $(b/s)(a_1a_2/s_1s_2) = 0$, $(b/s)(a_1/s_1) \neq 0$ and $(b/s)(a_2/s_2) \neq 0$. Hence there exists $v \in S$ such that $vba_1a_2 = 0$, $vba_1 \neq 0$ and

 $vba_2 \neq 0$, and so a_1 is adjacent to a_2 in AG(R). Now assume that $a_1 = a_2$. Since $a_1/s_1 \neq a_2/s_2$, we have $a_1s_2 \neq a_2s_1$. Also a_1s_2/s_1s_2 is adjacent to a_2s_1/s_1s_2 in AG($S^{-1}R$), and so a_1s_2 is adjacent to a_2s_1 in AG(R).

By Lemma 4.7, one can see that if $AG(S^{-1}R)$ is a complete graph, then AG(R) is complete.

Lemma 4.8. Let R be a commutative ring. If $\operatorname{ann}_R(x_1) = \operatorname{ann}_R(x_2)$, then x_1 and x_2 have the same neighbours in $\operatorname{AG}(R)$.

Proof. Suppose that x is adjacent to x_1 in AG(R). So we have $\operatorname{ann}_R(xx_1) \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(x) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(x_1)$. Hence there is x' such that $x'xx_1 = 0$, $x'x_1 \neq 0$ and $x'x \neq 0$. Now, since $\operatorname{ann}_R(x_1) = \operatorname{ann}_R(x_2)$, we have $x'xx_2 = 0$ and $x'x_2 \neq 0$. Therefore $\operatorname{ann}_R(xx_2) \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(x) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(x_2)$, and so x is adjacent to x_2 in $\operatorname{AG}(R)$. Also, if x is adjacent to x_2 in $\operatorname{AG}(R)$, then similarly x is adjacent to x_1 in $\operatorname{AG}(R)$. So x_1 and x_2 have the same neighbours in $\operatorname{AG}(R)$.

Lemma 4.9. Let R be a commutative ring. Suppose that s is an arbitrary element in S. If $r \in Z(R)$, then of r/s and r/1 have the same neighbours in $AG(S^{-1}R)$.

Proof. By Lemma 4.8, it is enough to show that $\operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r/s) = \operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r/1)$. So if $a/t \in \operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r/s)$, then we have (a/t)(r/s) = 0/1. Hence there exists $u \in S$ such that uar = 0. Also (a/t)(r/1) = ar/t = aru/(tu) = 0/1, and so $a/t \in \operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r/1)$. Now, if $a/t \in \operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r/1)$, then there exists $u \in S$ such that uar = 0. Also (a/t)(r/s) = ar/(ts) = aru/(tsu) = 0/1. Therefore $a/t \in \operatorname{ann}_{S^{-1}R}(r/s)$.

Let $T(R) = S^{-1}R$ be the total quotient ring of R, where S = R - Z(R). In [7], Theorem 2.2, Anderson and Shapiro showed that the graphs $\Gamma(R)$ and $\Gamma(T(R))$ are isomorphic. For $x, y \in R$, they defined a relation \sim as follows: $x \sim y$ if $\operatorname{ann}_R(x) = \operatorname{ann}_R(y)$. Clearly \sim is an equivalence relation on R. Let T = T(R). Denote the equivalence relations on $Z(R)^*$ and $Z(T)^*$ by \sim_R and \sim_T , respectively, and denote their equivalence classes by $[a]_R$ and $[a]_T$, respectively. They proved that there is a bijection between equivalence classes of $\Gamma(T(R))$ and $\Gamma(R)$, and they defined a bijection $\varphi \colon Z(R)^* \to Z(T)^*$ by $\varphi(x) = \varphi_{\alpha}(x)$, where $\varphi_{\alpha} \colon [a_{\alpha}] \to [a_{\alpha}/1]$ is a bijection and $x \in [a_{\alpha}]$. In the next theorem, using the above notation, we show that AG(R) is isomorphic to AG(T(R)).

Theorem 4.10. Let R be a commutative ring. Then the graphs AG(R) and AG(T(R)) are isomorphic.

Proof. By the proof of [7], Theorem 2.2, we have the bijection $\varphi \colon Z(R)^* \to Z(T)^*$ defined by $\varphi(x) = \varphi_{\alpha}(x)$, where $\varphi_{\alpha} \colon [a_{\alpha}] \to [a_{\alpha}/1]$ is a bijection and $x \in [a_{\alpha}]$. Thus we only need to show that x and y are adjacent in AG(R) if and only if $\varphi(x)$ and $\varphi(y)$ are adjacent in AG(T(R)); i.e., $\operatorname{ann}_R(xy) \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(x) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(y)$ if and only if $\operatorname{ann}_T(\varphi(x)\varphi(y)) \neq \operatorname{ann}_T(\varphi(x)) \cup \operatorname{ann}_T(\varphi(y))$. Let $x \in [a]_R, y \in [b]_R, l \in [c]_R, w \in [a/1]_T, z \in [b/1]_T$ and $t \in [c/1]_T$. We need only to show that xyl = 0, $xl \neq 0$ and $yl \neq 0$ if and only if wzt = 0, $wt \neq 0$ and $zt \neq 0$. Note that $\operatorname{ann}_T(x) = \operatorname{ann}_T(x) = \operatorname{ann}_T(x) = \operatorname{ann}_T(x) = \operatorname{ann}_T(x)$. Hence

$$xyl = 0 \Leftrightarrow xy \in \operatorname{ann}_T(l) = \operatorname{ann}_T(t) \Leftrightarrow xyt = 0 \Leftrightarrow xt \in \operatorname{ann}_T(y) = \operatorname{ann}_T(z)$$

 $\Leftrightarrow xtz = 0 \Leftrightarrow tz \in \operatorname{ann}_T(x) = \operatorname{ann}_T(w) \Leftrightarrow wzt = 0.$

Since φ is an isomorphism between the graphs $\Gamma(R)$ and $\Gamma(T(R))$, we have $xl \neq 0$ and $yl \neq 0$ if and only if $wt \neq 0$ and $zt \neq 0$.

Theorem 4.11. Let R be a finite commutative ring. If \mathfrak{p} is a prime ideal of R, then the annihilator graph $AG(S^{-1}R)$ is complete, where $S = R - \mathfrak{p}$.

Proof. Since $R_{\mathfrak{p}}$ is a finite local ring, $Z(R_{\mathfrak{p}}) = \operatorname{Nil}(R_{\mathfrak{p}})$. So, by [12], Theorem 3.10, $\operatorname{AG}(R_{\mathfrak{p}})$ is complete.

5. Annihilator graphs of \mathbb{Z}_n

In this section, we examine the existence of cut-vertices and cut-sets in $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$. We determine the reduced rings whose annihilator graphs are bipartite graphs. Also we show that $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is bipartite for a certain n.

Theorem 5.1. Let $n \ge 6$. Then $r \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ is a cut-vertex of $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ if and only if 2r = n and r is a prime integer.

Proof. First assume that r is a cut-vertex of $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$. Since the zero-divisor graph is the (spanning) subgraph of the annihilator graph AG(R), every cut-vertex in AG(R) is a cut-vertex in $\Gamma(R)$. Therefore, by [17], Lemma 2.2, n=2r. Now, we prove that r is a prime integer. Since r is a cut-vertex of the annihilator graph $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$, there exist vertices α and β such that $\alpha-r-\beta$ is the only path that connects α to β . Now, since α is not adjacent to β in $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$, hence by [12], Lemma 2.1, $\operatorname{ann}_R(\alpha) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_R(\beta)$ or $\operatorname{ann}_R(\beta) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_R(\alpha)$. Without loss of generality, we may assume $\operatorname{ann}_R(\alpha) \subseteq \operatorname{ann}_R(\beta)$. Let t be a nonzero element in $\mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{r\}$. If $t\alpha = 0$, then $t\beta = 0$. So we have the path $\alpha - t - \beta$, which is impossible. Now, since $\alpha \in Z(\mathbb{Z}_n)$, we have $\alpha r = 0$. Therefore $\operatorname{ann}_R(\alpha) = \{0, r\}$. If r is not prime, then there are positive

integers $q, q' \neq 1$ such that qq' = r. Hence we have $\operatorname{ann}_R(\alpha q) \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(\alpha) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(q)$ and $\operatorname{ann}_R(\alpha q') \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(\alpha) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(q')$, which implies that α is adjacent to q and q' in $\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$. If $q\beta = 0$ or $q'\beta = 0$, then we have the path $\alpha - q - \beta$ or $\alpha - q' - \beta$, which is impossible. So $q\beta \neq 0$ and $q'\beta \neq 0$. In this situation one can easily check that $\operatorname{ann}_R(\beta q) \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(\beta) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(q)$ and $\operatorname{ann}_R(\beta q') \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(\beta) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(q')$, and therefore we have the paths $\alpha - q - \beta$ and $\alpha - q' - \beta$, which is again impossible. Thus r is prime.

Conversely, by [12], Theorem 3.8, $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n) \cong K^{1,m}$ for some $m \geqslant 1$. Thus it contains a cut-vertex.

Theorem 5.2. If $|\operatorname{Min}(\mathbb{Z}_n)| = 2$ and every minimal prime ideal has at least 3 elements, then the nonzero elements in a minimal prime ideal of \mathbb{Z}_n with minimal cardinality form a cut-set of $\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$.

Proof. Since $|\operatorname{Min}(\mathbb{Z}_n)|=2$ and every minimal prime ideal has at least 3 elements, we have n=pq, where p and q are distinct prime integers with $p,q\neq 2$. So let $A=\{x\in\mathbb{Z}_n\colon p\mid x,\ q\nmid x\}$ and $B=\{x\in\mathbb{Z}_n\colon q\mid x,\ p\nmid x\}$. One can easily see that $A\cup\{0\}$ and $B\cup\{0\}$ are minimal prime ideals of \mathbb{Z}_n and $\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_n)\cong K^{m,n}$, where |A|=m and |B|=n and A, B are two parts in $\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$.

In the next theorem, we determine some conditions under which $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is weakly perfect.

Theorem 5.3. Suppose that \mathbb{Z}_n is a finite reduced ring. If $|\operatorname{Min}(\mathbb{Z}_n)| \leq 3$, then $\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is weakly perfect.

Proof. Since $|\operatorname{Min}(\mathbb{Z}_n)| \leq 3$ and \mathbb{Z}_n is a reduced ring, we have n = p, pq or pqr where p,q and r are distinct prime integers. If n = p, then $Z(\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{0\}$. If n = pq, then $\mathbb{Z}_n = \mathbb{Z}_{pq} \cong \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q \cong K_1 \times K_2$, where K_1 and K_2 are finite fields with p and q elements, respectively. So $\operatorname{AG}(K_1 \times K_2) \cong K^{p-1,q-1}$. Hence $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_{pq})) = \chi(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_{pq})) = 2$. If n = pqr, then $\mathbb{Z}_n = \mathbb{Z}_{pqr} \cong \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q \times \mathbb{Z}_r \cong K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3$, where K_1, K_2 and K_3 are finite fields with p, q and r elements, respectively. Therefore, by Lemma 3.1, $\operatorname{cl}(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_{pqr})) = \chi(\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_{pqr})) = 3$.

Theorem 5.4. Let R be a commutative reduced ring. Then AG(R) is bipartite if and only if there exist two distinct prime ideals \mathfrak{p}_1 and \mathfrak{p}_2 of R such that $\mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2 = \{0\}$. In addition, if AG(R) is bipartite, then it is a complete bipartite graph.

Proof. Suppose that \mathfrak{p}_1 and \mathfrak{p}_2 are distinct prime ideals of R such that $\mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2 = \{0\}$. Then, in view of the proof of [3], Theorem 2.4, we have $Z(R) = \mathfrak{p}_1 \cup \mathfrak{p}_2$. Set $V_1 = \mathfrak{p}_1 \setminus \{0\}$ and $V_2 = \mathfrak{p}_2 \setminus \{0\}$. Now, we show that AG(R) is bipartite

with two parts V_1 and V_2 . If $a, b \in V_1$ and a is adjacent to b, then $\operatorname{ann}_R(ab) \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(a) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(b)$. Hence there exists a nonzero element $c \in R$ such that abc = 0, $ac \neq 0$ and $bc \neq 0$. Since $\mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2 = \{0\}$ and $a, b \in V_1$, we have $c \in \mathfrak{p}_2$. So $ac \in \mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2$, which is a contradiction. Also, for every $a \in V_1$ and $b \in V_2$, we have ab = 0 since $\mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2 = \{0\}$. Therefore $\operatorname{AG}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph.

Conversely, suppose that AG(R) is bipartite. Since, by [12], Lemma 2.1, $\Gamma(R)$ is a (spanning) subgraph of AG(R), we have that $\Gamma(R)$ is bipartite. Hence, by [3], Theorem 2.4, there exist two distinct prime ideals \mathfrak{p}_1 and \mathfrak{p}_2 of R such that $\mathfrak{p}_1 \cap \mathfrak{p}_2 = \{0\}$.

Theorem 5.5. The graph $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is bipartite if and only if one of the following holds.

- (i) n = 4 or 9.
- (ii) $n = p_1 p_2$, where p_1 and p_2 are distinct prime integers.
- (iii) n = 4p, where p is a prime integer and $p \neq 2$.

Proof. First assume that the graph $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is bipartite. If there exist at least three distinct prime integers in divisors of n, say p_1 , p_2 and p_3 , then p_1 is adjacent to p_2 and p_3 and p_2 is adjacent to p_3 . So, we have the cycle $p_1 - p_2 - p_3 - p_1$ of length three. Therefore $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is not bipartite. Hence there exist at most two distinct prime integers in divisors of n. Now let $n = p_1^r p_2^s$ for some distinct prime integers p_1, p_2 and nonzero positive integers r and s. Set $A_{p_1p_2} = \{r \in \mathbb{N}: r \mid n, p_1 \mid r, p_2 \mid r\}$. Since $A_{p_1p_2}$ is a complete subgraph of $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ and $|A_{p_1p_2}| = p_1^{r-1}p_2^{s-1}$, we have $r, s \leqslant 2$. If r = s = 2, then $n = p_1^2 p_2^2$, and so p_1 is adjacent to p_2^2 and p_1p_2 , and p_2^2 is adjacent to p_1p_2 . Thus $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is not bipartite. If r = 2 and s = 1, then $n = p_1^2 p_2$. Since $A_{p_1p_2}$ is a complete subgraph of $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ and $|A_{p_1p_2}| = p_1$, we have $p_1 = 2$. So $p_1 = p_2$, where $p_2 \neq 2$. Also if $p_1 = 1$ and $p_2 = 1$, then similarly $p_1 = 1$. Also, $p_1 = 1$, then $p_2 = 1$ and $p_1 = 1$ and $p_2 = 1$ and $p_2 = 1$ and $p_1 = 1$ and $p_2 = 1$ and $p_2 = 1$. If $p_1 = 1$ and $p_2 = 1$ and $p_3 = 1$ and $p_4 = 1$ and p_4

Conversely, one can easily check that $AG(\mathbb{Z}_4) \cong K^1$, $AG(\mathbb{Z}_9) \cong K^2$, $AG(\mathbb{Z}_{p_1p_2}) \cong K^{p_1-1,p_2-1}$, where p_1 and p_2 are distinct prime integers and $AG(\mathbb{Z}_{4p}) \cong K^{3,2p-2}$, where p is prime a integer and $p \neq 2$.

Lemma 5.6. The graph $AG(\mathbb{Z}_{p^n})$ is weakly perfect, where p is a prime integer. In addition, $AG(\mathbb{Z}_{p^n})$ has chromatic number $p^{n-1}-1$.

Proof. Clearly $Z(\mathbb{Z}_{p^n})$ is an ideal of \mathbb{Z}_{p^n} . Then $Z(\mathbb{Z}_{p^n}) = \operatorname{Nil}(\mathbb{Z}_{p^n})$. So by [12], Theorem 3.10, $\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_{p^n})$ is a complete graph with $p^{n-1}-1$ vertices. Hence $\operatorname{AG}(\mathbb{Z}_{p^n})$ is weakly perfect and has chromatic number $p^{n-1}-1$.

Lemma 5.7. The graphs $AG(\mathbb{Z}_{p_1p_2})$ and $AG(\mathbb{Z}_{p_1p_2p_3})$ for some distinct prime integers p_1 , p_2 , p_3 are weakly perfect. In addition,

$$\chi(AG(\mathbb{Z}_{p_1p_2})) = 2$$
 and $\chi(AG(\mathbb{Z}_{p_1p_2p_3})) = 3$.

Proof. Let $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_1p_2}$. Then one can easily check that AG(R) is bipartite. So AG(R) is weakly perfect and $\chi(AG(R)) = 2$. Let $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_1p_2p_3}$. Then $R \cong K_1 \times K_2 \times K_3$, where K_1, K_2 and K_3 are fields with $|K_1| = p_1$, $|K_2| = p_2$ and $|K_3| = p_3$. Hence, by Lemma 3.1, AG(R) is weakly perfect and $\chi(AG(R)) = 3$. \square

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