ORIGINAL RESEARCH

# The annihilating graph of a ring

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Abstract Let *A* be a commutative ring with unity. The annihilating graph of *A*, denoted by  $\mathbb{G}(A)$ , is a graph whose vertices are all non-trivial ideals of *A* and two distinct vertices *I* and *J* are adjacent if and only if Ann(*I*)Ann(*J*) = 0. For every commutative ring *A*, we study the diameter and the girth of  $\mathbb{G}(A)$ . Also, we prove that if  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a triangle-free graph, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a bipartite graph. Among other results, we show that if  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a tree, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a star or a double star graph. Moreover, we prove that the annihilating graph of a commutative ring cannot be a cycle. Let *n* be a positive integer number. We classify all integer numbers *n* for which  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a complete or a planar graph. Finally, we compute the domination number of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ .

**Keywords** Annihilating graph · Diameter · Girth · Planarity

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### Introduction

There are many papers on assigning a graph to algebraic structures, for instance see [2–6, 8, 9]. Throughout this paper, all graphs are simple with no loops and multiple edges and A is a commutative ring with non-zero identity. We denote by  $\mathbb{I}(A)^*$  and Max(A), the set of all non-trivial ideals of A and the set of all maximal ideals of A, respectively. A ring having just one maximal ideal is called a local ring and a ring having only finitely many maximal ideals is said to be a semilocal ring. For every ideal I of A, we denote by Ann(I), the set of elements  $a \in A$  such that aI = 0.

Let G be a graph with vertex set V(G). If u is adjacent to v, then we write u - v. For  $u, v \in V(G)$ , we recall that a path between *u* and *v* is a sequence  $u = x_0 - \cdots - x_n = v$ of vertices of G such that for every *i* with  $1 \le i \le n$ , the vertices  $x_{i-1}$  and  $x_i$  are adjacent and  $x_i \neq x_i$ , where  $i \neq j$ . For every positive integer *n*, we denote the path of order *n*, by  $P_n$ . For  $u, v \in V(G)$  with  $u \neq v$ , d(u, v) denotes the length of a shortest path between *u* and *v*. If there is no such path, then we define  $d(u, v) = \infty$ . The diameter of G is defined diam(G) = sup{d(u, v) | u and v are vertices of G}. For any  $u \in V(G)$ , the degree of u, deg(u), denotes the number of edges incident with u. The neighborhood of a vertex u is denoted by  $N_G(u)$  or simply N(u). A graph G is *k*-regular if d(v) = k for all  $v \in V(G)$ ; a regular graph is one that is k-regular for some k. We denote the complete graph on *n* vertices by  $K_n$ . A bipartite graph is one whose vertex set can be partitioned into two subsets  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  so that each edge has one end in  $V_1$  and one end in  $V_2$ . A complete bipartite graph is a bipartite graph with two partitions  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  in which every vertex in  $V_1$  is joined to every vertex in  $V_2$ . The complete bipartite graph with two partitions of size *m* and *n* is denoted by  $K_{m,n}$ . A star graph



with center *v* and *n* vertices is the complete bipartite graph with part sizes 1 and *n* such that deg(v) = n. A double-star graph is a union of two star graphs with centers u and v such that u is adjacent to v. We use  $C_n$  for the cycle of order *n*, where  $n \ge 3$ . If a graph *G* has a cycle, then the girth of G (notated gr(G)) is defined as the length of a shortest cycle of G; otherwise  $gr(G) = \infty$ . A triangle-free graph is a graph which contains no triangle. A clique of a graph is a complete subgraph and the number of vertices in a largest clique of graph G, denoted by  $\omega(G)$ , is called the clique number of G. Recall that a graph is said to be planar if it can be drawn in the plane so that its edges intersect only at their ends. A subdivision of a graph is any graph that can be obtained from the original graph by replacing edges by paths. Also, a dominating set is a subset S of V(G) such that every vertex of  $V(G) \setminus S$  is adjacent to at least one vertex in S. The number of vertices in a smallest dominating set denoted by  $\gamma(G)$ , is called the domination number of G.

Let A be a commutative ring with non-zero identity. The annihilating graph of A, denoted by  $\mathbb{G}(A)$ , is a graph with the vertex set  $\mathbb{I}(A)^*$ , and two distinct vertices  $I, J \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^*$ are adjacent if and only if Ann(I)Ann(J) = 0. In this paper, we prove that if A is a ring, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a connected graph, diam( $\mathbb{G}(A)$ ) < 3 and gr( $\mathbb{G}(A)$ )  $\in \{3, 4, \infty\}$ . Also, we prove that for every ring A, if  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a triangle-free graph, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a bipartite graph. Among other results, we show that if A is a ring and  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a tree, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a star or a double star graph. Moreover, we prove that the annihilating graph of a ring cannot be a cycle. Also, we obtained some results about  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . We show that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a complete graph if and only if  $n \in \{p_1^2, p_1^3, p_1p_2\}$ . We also prove that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph if and only if  $n \in$  $\{p_1, p_1^2, \dots, p_1^8, p_1p_2, p_1^2p_2, p_1^3p_2, p_1^3p_2^2, p_1^4p_2, p_1^2p_2^2, p_1p_2p_3, p_1^2\}$  $p_2p_3$ . Finally, we determine the domination number of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n).$ 

### The annihilating graph of A

In this section, we study the diameter and the girth of the annihilating graph of a ring. Also, we classify all rings whose annihilating graphs are complete graph, tree or cycle.

We start with the following lemma.

**Lemma 1** If A is a commutative ring, then  $\gamma(\mathbb{G}(A)) \leq |\operatorname{Max}(A)| \leq \omega(\mathbb{G}(A)).$ 

*Proof* Suppose that  $\mathfrak{m}_1, \mathfrak{m}_2$  are two distinct maximal ideals of *A*. Then we have  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}_1)\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}_2) \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}_1) \cap \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}_2) \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}_1 + \mathfrak{m}_2)$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}_1 + \mathfrak{m}_2 = A$ , we conclude that  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}_1 + \mathfrak{m}_2) = 0$  and so  $\mathfrak{m}_1$  is adjacent to  $\mathfrak{m}_2$ . This implies that  $\operatorname{Max}(A)$  is a clique in  $\mathbb{G}(A)$ . Now,

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suppose that  $I \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus Max(A)$ . Let  $\mathfrak{m}$  be a maximal ideal containing Ann(I). Since  $Ann(I)Ann(\mathfrak{m}) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}Ann(\mathfrak{m}) = 0$ , we deduce that I is adjacent to  $\mathfrak{m}$ . Hence Max(A) is a dominating set of  $\mathbb{G}(A)$ .

By the previous lemma, if the clique number of  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is finite, then A is a semilocal ring. Also, we have the following result.

**Corollary 1** Let A be a ring. If every maximal ideal of A has finite degree, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a finite graph.

**Proof** Since Max(A) is a clique in  $\mathbb{G}(A)$ , so Max(A) is finite. Now, since Max(A) is a dominating set of  $\mathbb{G}(A)$ , the result holds.

Next, we study the diameter and the girth of  $\mathbb{G}(A)$ .

**Theorem 1** Let A be a ring. Then  $diam(\mathbb{G}(A)) \leq 3$ . Moreover, if A is a local ring, then  $diam(\mathbb{G}(A)) \leq 2$ .

*Proof* Assume that *I* and *J* are two non-trivial ideals of *A*. Suppose that  $\mathfrak{m}_1$  and  $\mathfrak{m}_2$  are maximal ideals such that  $\operatorname{Ann}(I) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_1$  and  $\operatorname{Ann}(J) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_2$ . Since  $\operatorname{Ann}(I)\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}_1) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}_1\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}_1) = 0$ , we conclude that  $I = \mathfrak{m}_1$  or *I* is adjacent to  $\mathfrak{m}_1$ . Similarly,  $J = \mathfrak{m}_2$  or *J* is adjacent to  $\mathfrak{m}_2$ . Now, if  $\mathfrak{m}_1 = \mathfrak{m}_2$ , then  $d(I, J) \leq 2$ . Otherwise,  $\mathfrak{m}_1$  and  $\mathfrak{m}_2$  are adjacent and so  $d(I, J) \leq 3$ . Thus diam( $\mathbb{G}(A)$ )  $\leq 3$ . (Note that if *A* has a non-trivial ideal *I* with  $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = 0$ , then *I* is adjacent to all other vertices and hence diam( $\mathbb{G}(A)$ )  $\leq 2$ .) Finally, assume that (*A*,  $\mathfrak{m}$ ) is a local ring. By the proof of Lemma 1,  $\mathfrak{m}$  is adjacent to all other vertices, so diam( $\mathbb{G}(A)$ )  $\leq 2$ .

**Theorem 2** Let A be a ring. Then  $gr(\mathbb{G}(A)) \in \{3, 4, \infty\}$ . Moreover, if A is a local ring and  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  contains a cycle, then  $gr(\mathbb{G}(A)) = 3$ .

*Proof* Clearly, if *A* has at least three maximal ideals, then  $gr(\mathbb{G}(A)) = 3$ . So assume that *A* has exactly two maximal ideals and  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  contains a cycle *C*. If *C* is a cycle of length at most 4, then we are done. Otherwise, *C* contains two adjacent vertices *I* and *J* which are not maximal ideals. Suppose that *I* ⊆ m<sub>1</sub> and *J* ⊆ m<sub>2</sub>, where m<sub>1</sub> and m<sub>2</sub> are maximal ideals of *A*. Since Ann(*I*)Ann(m<sub>2</sub>) ⊆ Ann(*I*)Ann(*J*) = 0, we deduce that *I* and m<sub>2</sub> are adjacent. Similarly, *J* and m<sub>1</sub> are adjacent. If m<sub>1</sub> = m<sub>2</sub>, then  $gr(\mathbb{G}(A)) = 3$ . Otherwise,  $gr(\mathbb{G}(A)) \le 4$ . The last part follows from the proof of Lemma 1.

The following theorem shows that triangle-free annihilating graphs are bipartite.

**Theorem 3** Let A be a ring. If  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a triangle-free graph, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a bipartite graph.

*Proof* Let  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  be a triangle-free graph. Clearly A has at most two maximal ideals. If A is a local ring, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is

a star and so  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is bipartite. Suppose that A contains exactly two distinct maximal ideals  $\mathfrak{m}_1$  and  $\mathfrak{m}_2$ . One can easily see that  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a bipartite graph with parts  $N(\mathfrak{m}_1)$ and  $N(\mathfrak{m}_2)$ .

**Theorem 4** Let A be a ring. If  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a tree, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a star or a double star graph.

**Proof** Assume that  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a tree. It is enough to show that if A has exactly two distinct maximal ideals  $\mathfrak{m}_1$  and  $\mathfrak{m}_2$ , then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a double star graph. By the proof of Lemma 1,  $\mathfrak{m}_1$  is adjacent to  $\mathfrak{m}_2$  and every other vertex is adjacent to one of the  $\mathfrak{m}_1$  and  $\mathfrak{m}_2$ . Now, since  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  contains no cycles,  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a double star graph.  $\Box$ 

By the previous theorem, we have the following immediate corollary.

**Corollary 2** Let A be a ring. If  $\mathbb{G}(A) \cong P_n$ , then  $n \leq 4$ .

**Theorem 5** *The annihilating graph of a ring cannot be a cycle.* 

*Proof* By contrary suppose that  $\mathbb{G}(A) \cong C_n$ , for some  $n \ge 3$ . By Theorem 2, we conclude that  $n \le 4$ . First assume that  $\mathbb{G}(A) \cong C_4$ . So A has exactly four non-trivial ideals. By Theorem 2, we deduce that A is not a local ring. Hence by [6, Theorem 8.7],  $A \cong F \times S$ , where F is a field and S is a ring with exactly one non-trivial ideal. Let m be the nontrivial ideal of S. Thus  $\mathbb{I}(A)^* = \{0 \times \mathfrak{m}, 0 \times S, F \times 0, \}$  $F \times \mathfrak{m}$ . We have  $\operatorname{Ann}(0 \times \mathfrak{m}) = F \times \mathfrak{m}$ ,  $\operatorname{Ann}(F \times \mathfrak{m}) =$  $0 \times \mathfrak{m}$ ,  $\operatorname{Ann}(0 \times S) = F \times 0$  and  $\operatorname{Ann}(F \times 0) = 0 \times S$ . Therefore,  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is the path  $0 \times \mathfrak{m} - F \times \mathfrak{m} - 0 \times S - F$  $F \times S$ , a contradiction. Next assume that  $\mathbb{G}(A) \cong C_3$ . Since A has exactly three non-trivial ideals, by [6, Theorem 8.7], A is an Artinian local ring. Let  $\mathbb{I}(A)^* = \{I, J, \mathfrak{m}\}$ , where  $\mathfrak{m}$ is the maximal ideal of A. Suppose that k is the smallest positive integer such that  $\mathfrak{m}^k = 0$ . So  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}) \neq 0$ . With no loss of generality, we consider two cases. Note that the annihilating-ideal graph AG(A) of A is a graph whose vertex set is the set of all non-zero ideals of A with nonzero annihilator and two distinct vertices I and J are adjacent if and only if IJ = 0, see [1].

**Case 1** Ann $(\mathfrak{m}) = \mathfrak{m}$ . So  $\mathfrak{m}^2 = 0$  and hence  $IJ = I\mathfrak{m} = J\mathfrak{m} = 0$ . This implies that  $\mathbb{A}\mathbb{G}(A) \cong \mathbb{G}(A) \cong \mathbb{C}_3$ . By [1, Corollary 9],  $\mathbb{A}\mathbb{G}(A)$  cannot be a cycle, a contradiction.

**Case 2** Ann( $\mathfrak{m}$ ) = *I*. Thus  $I\mathfrak{m} = 0$ . So IJ = 0 and  $\mathfrak{m} = \operatorname{Ann}(I)$ . If  $\mathfrak{m}J = 0$ , then  $\mathbb{AG}(A) \cong \mathbb{G}(A) \cong C_3$ , a contradiction. Therefore,  $\mathfrak{m}J \neq 0$  and hence  $\mathbb{AG}(A) \cong P_3$ . Now, by [1, Theorem 11], we have k = 4 and so  $I = \mathfrak{m}^3$  and  $J = \mathfrak{m}^2$ . This implies that  $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = \mathfrak{m}$  and  $\operatorname{Ann}(J) = \mathfrak{m}^2$ . Thus  $\mathbb{G}(A) \cong P_3$ , a contradiction.  $\Box$  **Theorem 6** If  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a regular graph of finite degree, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a complete graph.

**Proof** By Corollary 1, A has finitely many ideals. So A is an Artinian ring. First suppose that  $(A, \mathfrak{m})$  is an Artinian local ring. Since  $\mathfrak{m}$  is a vertex of  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  which is adjacent to all other vertices, we deduce that  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a complete graph. Now, by [6, Theorem 8.7], we may assume that  $A \cong A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n$ , where  $n \ge 2$  and  $(A_i, \mathfrak{m}_i)$  is an Artinian local ring for  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ . We have  $\operatorname{Ann}(0 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n) = A_1 \times 0 \times \cdots \times 0$ ,  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m} \times \mathfrak{A} \times \cdots \times \mathfrak{A}_n) = A_1 \times 0 \times \cdots \times 0$ ,  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m} \times \mathfrak{A} \times \cdots \times \mathfrak{A}_n) = 0 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$ . Let  $v_1 = 0 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$ ,  $v_2 = \mathfrak{m} \times \mathfrak{A} \times \cdots \times \mathfrak{A}_n$  and  $v_3 = A_1 \times 0 \times \cdots \times 0$ . One can easily see that

$$N(v_1) = \{A_1 \times I_2 \times \cdots \times I_n \mid I_i \text{ is an ideal of } A_i \text{ for } i = 2, \dots, n\} \setminus \{A\},\$$

and

$$N(v_2) = \{I_1 \times I_2 \times \cdots \times I_n \mid I_i \text{ is an ideal of } A_i \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, n \text{ and } I_1 \neq 0\} \setminus \{A\}.$$

Note that every non-trivial ideal of an Artinian ring *A* has a non-zero annihilator. Since  $\deg(v_1) = \deg(v_2)$ , we conclude that  $A_1$  has no proper ideal other than 0, m. Thus

$$N(v_3) = \{0 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n, \mathfrak{m} \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n\}.$$

Hence deg $(v_3) \le 2$ . If  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a 2-regular graph, then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a cycle, a contradiction. Note that by Theorem 1,  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a connected graph. Therefore,  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a 1-regular graph. So  $\mathbb{G}(A) \cong K_2$  is a complete graph. In this case,  $A \cong F_1 \times F_2$ , where  $F_1, F_2$  are fields.

*Remark 1* Let A be a commutative ring and m be a maximal ideal of A with non-zero annihilator. Since mAnn(m) = 0, we conclude that  $m \subseteq Ann(Ann(m))$ . Now,  $Ann(m) \neq 0$  implies that Ann(Ann(m)) = m.

**Lemma 2** Let A be a local ring with non-zero maximal ideal m. If  $I \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^*$  and  $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})$ , then I is adjacent to all other vertices of  $\mathbb{G}(A)$ .

*Proof* Suppose that  $Ann(I) = Ann(\mathfrak{m})$ . Let *J* be a non-trivial ideal of *A* and  $J \neq I$ . Since  $Ann(J) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ , we deduce that  $Ann(J)Ann(I) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}Ann(\mathfrak{m}) = 0$ . Hence *I* and *J* are adjacent. The proof is complete.

**Theorem 7** Let A be a local ring with non-zero maximal ideal  $\mathfrak{m}$  such that  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}) \neq 0$ . Then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a complete graph if and only if  $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})$ , for every ideal  $I \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus \{\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})\}.$ 

*Proof* Suppose that  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a complete graph and let  $I \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus \{\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})\}$ . Since  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}) \neq 0, A$ , we conclude that  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})$  is a vertex of  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  and hence is adjacent to



I. Thus  $Ann(I)Ann(Ann(\mathfrak{m})) = 0$ . By Remark 1,  $Ann(Ann(\mathfrak{m})) = \mathfrak{m}$ . So  $Ann(I)\mathfrak{m} = 0$  which implies that Ann(I)  $\subseteq$  Ann( $\mathfrak{m}$ ). In other hand, since  $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ , we deduce that  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}) \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(I)$ . Therefore,  $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})$ . Conversely, suppose that Ann(I) = Ann(m), for every  $I \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus \{\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})\}.$ ideal Assume that  $I, J \in$  $\mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus \{\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})\}\$  and  $I \neq J$ . Since  $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = \operatorname{Ann}(J) =$  $Ann(\mathfrak{m}),$ we conclude that  $\operatorname{Ann}(I)\operatorname{Ann}(J) =$  $Ann(\mathfrak{m})Ann(\mathfrak{m}) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}Ann(\mathfrak{m}) = 0$ . Hence I and J are adjacent. Now, since Ann(Ann(m))Ann(I) = mAnn(I) = $\mathfrak{mAnn}(\mathfrak{m}) = 0$ , then  $Ann(\mathfrak{m})$  is adjacent to all other vertices. Thus  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a complete graph. 

**Theorem 8** Let A be an Artinian local ring with non-zero maximal ideal m. Then  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a complete graph if and only if either  $\mathfrak{m}^2 = 0$  or  $\mathfrak{m}^3 = 0$  and  $IJ = \mathfrak{m}^2$ , for every ideal  $I, J \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus \{\mathfrak{m}^2\}$ .

*Proof* First assume that  $\mathfrak{m}^2 = 0$ . Thus  $\mathfrak{m} \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})$  and hence Ann $(\mathfrak{m}) = \mathfrak{m}$ . Let  $I \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^*$ . Since  $I \subseteq \mathfrak{m}$ , we deduce that  $\mathfrak{m} = \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}) \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(I)$ . So  $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = \mathfrak{m}$ . Now, Theorem 9 implies that  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a complete graph. Next assume that  $\mathfrak{m}^3 = 0$  and  $IJ = \mathfrak{m}^2$ , for every ideal  $I, J \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus \{\mathfrak{m}^2\}$ . Note that  $\mathfrak{m}^2 \neq 0$ . Hence  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}) \neq 0$ Ann $(\mathfrak{m}^2) = \mathfrak{m}$ . Since Ann $(\mathfrak{m})$ Ann $(\mathfrak{m}) \subset$ m and  $\mathfrak{mAnn}(\mathfrak{m}) = 0$ , we conclude that  $Ann(\mathfrak{m}) = \mathfrak{m}^2$ . Let  $I \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus \{\mathfrak{m}^2\}$ . Since  $IAnn(I) = 0 \neq \mathfrak{m}^2$ , we deduce that Ann $(I) = \mathfrak{m}^2 = \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})$ . Thus by Theorem 9.  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is complete. Conversely, suppose that  $\mathbb{G}(A)$  is a complete graph. Let k be the smallest positive integer such that  $\mathfrak{m}^k = 0$ . If k = 2, we are done. Assume that  $k \ge 3$ . So Ann $(\mathfrak{m}) \neq \mathfrak{m}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m} \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}^{k-1})$ , we conclude that Ann $(\mathfrak{m}^{k-1}) = \mathfrak{m}$ . Now, by Theorem 9, Ann $(\mathfrak{m}) = \mathfrak{m}^{k-1}$ . In other hand, since  $\mathfrak{m}^{k-2} \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}^2)$ , then  $\operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}^2) \neq \mathfrak{m}^{k-1}$ = Ann( $\mathfrak{m}$ ). This implies that  $\mathfrak{m}^2 = \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}) = \mathfrak{m}^{k-1}$ . Therefore, k = 3 and so we have  $\mathfrak{m}^3 = 0$ ,  $Ann(\mathfrak{m}) = \mathfrak{m}^2$ , Ann $(\mathfrak{m}^2) = \mathfrak{m}$ . and Finally, suppose that  $I, J \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus \{\mathfrak{m}^2\}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}IJ \subset \mathfrak{m}^3 = 0$ , we deduce that IJ = 0 or Ann $(IJ) = \mathfrak{m}$ . If IJ = 0, then  $I \subseteq Ann(J) = \mathfrak{m}^2$ and hence  $\mathfrak{m} = \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m}^2) \subset \operatorname{Ann}(I) = \mathfrak{m}^2$ , a contradiction. Thus  $Ann(IJ) = \mathfrak{m}$  and so Theorem 7 implies that  $IJ = \mathfrak{m}^2$ . The proof is complete. 

We close this section by the following theorem which is a classification of rings whose annihilating graphs are complete.

**Theorem 9** Let A be a commutative ring. If  $\mathbb{G}(A) \cong K_n$ , then one of the following holds:

- (i)  $(A, \mathfrak{m})$  is an Artinian local ring with  $\mathfrak{m}^2 = 0$ .
- (ii)  $(A, \mathfrak{m})$  is an Artinian local ring with  $\mathfrak{m}^3 = 0$  and  $IJ = \mathfrak{m}^2$ , for every ideal  $I, J \in \mathbb{Z}(A)^* \setminus \{\mathfrak{m}^2\}$ .

(iii)  $A \cong F_1 \times F_2$ , where  $F_1, F_2$  are fields.

*Proof* Suppose that  $\mathbb{G}(A) \cong K_n$ , for some positive integer *n*. So *A* is an Artinian ring. By Theorem 8, if *A* is a local ring, then the cases (ii) or (iii) occur. Otherwise, by the proof of Theorem 6,  $A \cong F_1 \times F_2$ , where  $F_1, F_2$  are fields.

## The annihilating graph of $\mathbb{Z}_n$

In this section, we study the case that  $A = \mathbb{Z}_n$ . Throughout this section, without loss of generality, we assume that  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_s^{\alpha_s}$ , where  $p_i$ 's are distinct primes and  $\alpha_i$ 's are positive integers. It is easy to see that  $\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{d\mathbb{Z}_n : d$ divides  $n\}$  and  $|\mathbb{I}(\mathbb{Z}_n)^*| = \prod_{i=1}^s (\alpha_i + 1) - 2$ . We denote the least common multiple and the greatest common divisor of integers a and b by [a, b] and (a, b), respectively. Also, we write alb (a |/b) if a divides b (a does not divide b). We begin with the following lemma.

**Lemma 3** If 
$$p_1^{\beta_1} \cdots p_s^{\beta_s} \mathbb{Z}_n \in \mathbb{Z}(\mathbb{Z}_n)^*$$
, then  
 $\operatorname{Ann}(p_1^{\beta_1} \cdots p_s^{\beta_s} \mathbb{Z}_n) = p_1^{\alpha_1 - \beta_1} \cdots p_s^{\alpha_s - \beta_s} \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

*Proof* Let  $d = p_1^{\beta_1} \cdots p_s^{\beta_s}$  and  $d' = p_1^{\alpha_1 - \beta_1} \cdots p_s^{\alpha_s - \beta_s}$ . Clearly,  $d\mathbb{Z}_n d'\mathbb{Z}_n = 0$  and so  $d'\mathbb{Z}_n \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(d\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . Let  $r \in \operatorname{Ann}(d\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . Then *n* divides *rd*. Since  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_s^{\alpha_s}$  and  $d = p_1^{\beta_1} \cdots p_s^{\beta_s}$ , so  $p_1^{\alpha_1 - \beta_1} \cdots p_s^{\alpha_s - \beta_s}$  divides *r*. This implies that  $r \in d'\mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $\operatorname{Ann}(d\mathbb{Z}) \subseteq d'\mathbb{Z}_n$ . The proof is complete.

*Remark* 2 Let  $d_1\mathbb{Z}_n, d_2\mathbb{Z}_n \in \mathbb{Z}(\mathbb{Z}_n)^*$  and let  $d_1 = p_1^{\beta_1} \cdots p_s^{\beta_s}, d_2 = p_1^{\gamma_1} \cdots p_s^{\gamma_s}$ . Then  $d_1\mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $d_2\mathbb{Z}_n$  are adjacent if and only if  $p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_s^{\alpha_s}$  divides  $p_1^{2\alpha_1-(\beta_1+\gamma_1)} \cdots p_s^{2\alpha_s-(\beta_s+\gamma_s)}$  which implies that  $\alpha_i \ge \beta_i + \gamma_i$ , for  $i = 1, \ldots, s$ . Also, if  $(d_1, d_2) = 1$  then  $d_1\mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $d_2\mathbb{Z}_n$  are adjacent.

**Lemma 4** If  $d = p_1^{\beta_1} \cdots p_s^{\beta_s}$ , then  $\prod_{i=1}^s (\alpha_i - \beta_i + 1) - 2 \le \deg(d\mathbb{Z}_n) \le \prod_{i=1}^s (\alpha_i - \beta_i + 1) - 1$ .

*Proof* If  $p_1^{\gamma_1} \cdots p_s^{\gamma_s} \mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $d\mathbb{Z}_n$  are adjacent, then by Remark 2,  $0 \le \gamma_i \le \alpha_i - \beta_i$ . On the other hand,  $p_1^{\gamma_1} \cdots p_s^{\gamma_s} \notin \{1, d\}$  which implies that  $\deg(d\mathbb{Z}_n) \in \{\prod_{i=1}^s (\alpha_i - \beta_i + 1) - 2, \prod_{i=1}^s (\alpha_i - \beta_i + 1) - 1\}$ .

Next, we study the girth of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ .

**Theorem 10** Let *n* be a positive integer number. Then  $gr(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) \in \{3, \infty\}$ . Moreover,  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a tree if and only if  $n \in \{p_1^2, p_1^3, p_1 p_2, p_1^2 p_2\}$ .

*Proof* If  $s \ge 3$ , then  $p_1\mathbb{Z}_n - p_2\mathbb{Z}_n - p_3\mathbb{Z}_n - p_1\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a 3-cycle in  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . Therefore  $gr(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = 3$ . Now, consider two following cases:



**Case 1** s = 1. If  $\alpha_1 \ge 4$ , then it is easy to see that  $p_1\mathbb{Z}_n - p_1^2\mathbb{Z}_n - p_1^3\mathbb{Z}_n - p_1\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a triangle in  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  and so  $\operatorname{gr}(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = 3$ . Also, it is clear that if  $n = p_1^2$  or  $n = p_1^3$ , then  $\operatorname{gr}(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = \infty$ .

**Case 2** s = 2. If  $\alpha_1 \ge 3$ , then  $p_1 \mathbb{Z}_n - p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n - p_1^2 \mathbb{Z}_n - p_1 \mathbb{Z}_n$  is a 3-cycle in  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . This yields that  $gr(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = 3$ . Now, suppose that  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \{1, 2\}$ . Whit out lose of generality we may assume the following three subcases:

**Subcase 1**  $n = p_1 p_2$ . Then  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n) \cong K_2$  and  $\operatorname{gr}(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = \infty$ .

**Subcase 2**  $n = p_1^2 p_2$ . Then  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n) \cong P_4$  and so  $\operatorname{gr}(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = \infty$ . Note that,  $p_1 p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n - p_1 \mathbb{Z}_n - p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n - p_1^2 \mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Subcase 3**  $n = p_1^2 p_2^2$ . Then  $p_1 \mathbb{Z}_n - p_1 p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n - p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n - p_1 \mathbb{Z}_n$  is a triangle in  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . Hence  $\operatorname{gr}(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = 3$ .  $\Box$ 

Now, we compute some numerical invariants of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ , namely domination number and clique number.

**Theorem 11** If *n* is a positive integer number, then  $\gamma(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = s$ .

*Proof* We note that  $\operatorname{Max}(\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, \dots, p_s\mathbb{Z}_n\}$ . Hence by Theorem 1, we find that  $\gamma(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) \leq s$ . Next, we prove that  $\gamma(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) \geq s$ . Let *D* be a smallest dominating set for  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  and let  $I_j = p_j^{\alpha_j-1} \prod_{i \neq j} p_i^{\alpha_i} \mathbb{Z}_n$ , for  $j = 1, \dots, s$ . We have  $N(I_j) = \{p_j\mathbb{Z}_n\}$ . This implies that  $\{I_j, p_j\mathbb{Z}_n\} \cap D \neq \emptyset$ , for every *j*,  $1 \leq j \leq s$ . Therefore  $|D| \geq s$  and so  $\gamma(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = s$ .

**Theorem 12** If  $n = p^{\alpha}$ , then  $\omega(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = \begin{cases} \frac{\alpha}{2}, & \text{if } \alpha \text{ iseven;} \\ \frac{\alpha+1}{2}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$ 

*Proof* First suppose that  $\alpha$  is even. By Remark 2,  $p^r \mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $p^{r'} \mathbb{Z}_n$  are adjacent, where  $1 \leq r, r' \leq \alpha/2$ . This yields that  $A = \{p^r \mathbb{Z}_n : r = 1, ..., \alpha/2\}$  is a clique in  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . We claim that A is a maximum clique in  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . By contradiction, suppose that  $\{p^{r_1} \mathbb{Z}_n, ..., p^{r_{\alpha/2+1}} \mathbb{Z}_n\}$  is a clique in  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . Clearly,  $1 \leq r_i \leq \alpha$ , for  $i = 1, ..., \alpha/2 + 1$ . With no loss of generality, we may assume that  $r_1 \geq \alpha/2 + 1$ . By Remark 2, we conclude that  $\deg(p^{r_1} \mathbb{Z}_n) \leq \alpha/2$ , a contradiction. Therefore  $\{p^r \mathbb{Z}_n : r = 1, ..., \alpha/2\}$  is a maximum clique in  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  and  $\omega(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = \alpha/2$ . Similarly,  $\{p^r \mathbb{Z}_n : r = 1, ..., (\alpha + 1)/2\}$  is a maximum clique in  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ , where  $\alpha$  is odd. This completes the proof.

**Theorem 13**  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a complete graph if and only if  $n \in \{p_1^2, p_1^3, p_1 p_2\}.$ 

*Proof* One side is obvious. For the other side assume that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a complete graph. By Theorem 9, we find that

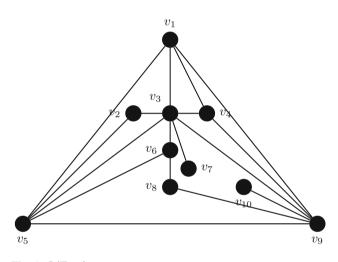
s = 1, 2. For the case s = 1, we have  $Max(\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n\}$ . Hence by Theorem 9,  $\alpha_1 = 2, 3$ . Also, if s = 2, then Theorem 9 implies that  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = 1$ . Therefore  $n = p_1p_2$ .

If  $n = p_1^3 p_2^2$  and  $v_1 = p_1 p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_2 = p_1 p_2^2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_3 = p_1 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_4 = p_1^2 p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_5 = p_1^2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_6 = p_2^2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_7 = p_1^2 p_2^2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_8 = p_1^2 p_2^2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_9 = p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_{10} = p_1^3 p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n$ , then we have the following graph (Fig. 1):

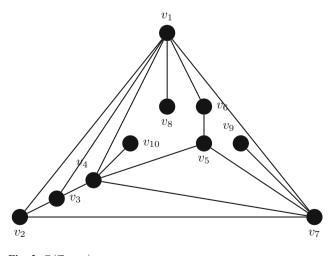
Also, if  $n = p_1^2 p_2 p_3$  and  $v_1 = p_1 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_2 = p_1 p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_3 = p_1 p_3 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_4 = p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_5 = p_1^2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_6 = p_2 p_3 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_7 = p_3 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_8 = p_1 p_2 p_3 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_9 = p_1^2 p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n, v_{10} = p_1^2 p_3 \mathbb{Z}_n$ , then we have the following graph (Fig. 2):

Now, we investigate the planarity of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . We will frequently need a celebrated theorem due to Kuratowski.

**Proposition 1** [7, Theorem 10.30] A graph is planar if and only if it contains no subdivision of either  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ .



**Fig. 1**  $G(\mathbb{Z}_{p_1^3p_2^2})$ 



**Fig. 2**  $G(\mathbb{Z}_{p_1^2p_2p_3})$ 



**Theorem 14**  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph if and only if  $n \in \{p_1, p_1^2, \ldots, p_1^8, p_1p_2, p_1^2p_2, p_1^3p_2, p_1^3p_2^2, p_1^4p_2, p_1^2p_2^2, p_1p_2p_3, p_1^2p_2p_3\}.$ 

*Proof* One side is obvious. For the other side assume that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. If  $s \ge 5$ , then  $\{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, \ldots, p_5\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  is a clique, a contradiction. Therefore  $s \le 4$ . Consider two following cases:

**Case 1** s = 1. If  $\alpha_1 \ge 9$ , then  $\{p_1 \mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2 \mathbb{Z}_n, \dots, p_1^5 \mathbb{Z}_n\}$  is a clique, a contradiction. Hence  $\alpha_1 < 8$ . It is clear that if  $\alpha_1 \leq 5$ , then  $|V(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n))| \leq 4$  and so  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. If  $\alpha_1 = 6$ , then  $|V(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n))| = 5$ . On the other hand  $p_1^4 \mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $p_1^5 \mathbb{Z}_n$  are two non adjacent vertices. Now, by Theorem 1, we find that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. If  $\alpha_1 = 7$ , then  $|V(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n))| = 6$ . Also,  $N(p_1^6\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n\}$ . Therefore by Theorem 1,  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. If  $\alpha_1 = 8$ , then  $|V(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n))| = 7$ . It is easy to see that  $N(p_1^7\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n\},\$  $N(p_1^6\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  and  $N(p_1^5\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  $p_1^3\mathbb{Z}_n$ . Hence  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  contains no subdivision of either  $K_5$ or  $K_{3,3}$ . Therefore by Theorem 1,  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. **Case 2**  $2 \le s \le 4$ . If  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \ge 3$ , then vertices of the set  $\{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^3\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  are adjacent to the vertices of the set  $\{p_2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_2^2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_2^3\mathbb{Z}_n\}$ , and so  $K_{3,3}$  is a subgraph of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ , a contradiction. Hence we may assume that  $\alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_s \leq 2$ . If  $\alpha_1 \geq 5$ , then two sets  $\{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^3\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  and  $\{p_2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^3\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  $p_1p_2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2p_2\mathbb{Z}_n$  imply that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  contains  $K_{3,3}$ , a contradiction. Therefore  $\alpha_1 \leq 4$ . There are three following subcases:

**Subcase 1** s = 2. Since  $\alpha_1 \leq 4$  and  $\alpha_2 \leq 2$ ,  $n \in \{p_1 p_2, \dots, p_n\}$  $p_1^2p_2, p_1^3p_2, p_1^4p_2, p_1p_2^2, p_1^2p_2^2, p_1^3p_2^2, p_1^4p_2^2$ . With no loss of generality we may assume that  $n \in \{p_1p_2, p_1^2p_2, p_1^3\}$  $p_1^2p_2$ , then  $|V(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n))| \le 4$  and so  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. If  $n = p_1^3 p_2$ , then  $|V(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n))| = 6$ . Clearly,  $N(p_1^3 \mathbb{Z}_n) =$  $\{p_2\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  and  $N(p_1^2p_2\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n\}$ . This implies that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ contains no subdivision of either  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ . Therefore by Theorem 1,  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. If  $n = p_1^4 p_2$ , then  $|V(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n))| = 8$ . Clearly,  $N(p_1^4 \mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n\}, N(p_1^3 p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n)$  $= \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  and  $N(p_1^2p_2\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2\mathbb{Z}_n\}$ . Hence  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ contains no subdivision of either  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ . Therefore by Theorem 1,  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. If  $n = p_1^2 p_2^2$ , then  $N(p_1^2 p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n) = \{ p_2 \mathbb{Z}_n \},\$  $|V(\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n))| = 7.$ Clearly,  $N(p_1p_2^2\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  and  $N(p_1p_2\mathbb{Z}_n) = \{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_2\mathbb{Z}_n\}.$ Hence  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  contains no subdivision of either  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$ . Therefore by Theorem 1,  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. If  $n = n = p_1^3 p_2^2$ , then by Fig.1, we find that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is planar. If  $n = p_1^4 p_2^2$ , then two sets  $\{p_1 \mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2 \mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^3 \mathbb{Z}_n\}$  and  $\{p_2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_2^2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1p_2\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  imply that  $K_{3,3}$  is a subgraph of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ , a contradiction.

**Subcase 2** s = 3. If  $\alpha_1 \ge 3$ , then two sets  $\{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^3\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  and  $\{p_2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_3\mathbb{Z}_n, p_2p_3\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  imply that  $K_{3,3}$  is a subgraph of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ , a contradiction. Hence  $\alpha_1 \le 2$  and  $n \in \{p_1p_2p_3, p_1^2p_2p_3, p_1p_2^2p_3, p_1p_2p_3^2, p_1^2p_2p_3^2, p_1^2p_2p_3^2, p_1^2p_2p_3^2, p_1^2p_2p_3^2, p_1^2p_2p_3^2, p_1^2p_2p_3^2\}$ . With no loss of generality we may assume that  $n \in \{p_1p_2p_3, p_1^2p_2p_3, p_1^2p_2p_3, p_1^2p_2p_3^2\}$ . If  $n = p_1p_2p_3$ , then  $\deg(p_1p_2\mathbb{Z}_n) = \deg(p_1p_3\mathbb{Z}_n) = \deg(p_2p_3\mathbb{Z}_n) = 1$  and  $\deg(p_1\mathbb{Z}_n) = \deg(p_2\mathbb{Z}_n) = \deg(p_3\mathbb{Z}_n) = 2$ . This yields that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is a planar graph. If  $n = p_1^2p_2p_3$ , then by Fig.2, we conclude that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  is planar. If  $n \in \{p_1^2p_2^2p_3, p_1^2p_2^2p_3^2\}$ , then two sets  $\{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1p_2\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  and  $\{p_3\mathbb{Z}_n, p_2p_3\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1p_2p_3\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  imply that  $K_{3,3}$  is a subgraph of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ , a contradiction.

**Subcase 3** s = 4. If  $\alpha_2, \alpha_3 \ge 2$ , then  $\{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1p_2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1p_3\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1p_4\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1p_5\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  is a clique, a contradiction. Similarly, we conclude that at most one of the element of the set  $\{\alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4\}$  can be more than 2. Therefore with no loss of generality we may assume that  $\alpha_3 = \alpha_4 = 1$ . If  $\alpha_1 \ge 3$  and  $\alpha_2 = 1$ , then  $\{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_3\mathbb{Z}_n, p_4\mathbb{Z}_n, p_1^2\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  is a clique, a contradiction. Otherwise, two sets  $\{p_1\mathbb{Z}_n, p_2\mathbb{Z}_n, p_3\mathbb{Z}_n, p_4\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  and  $\{p_3\mathbb{Z}_n, p_4\mathbb{Z}_n, p_3p_4\mathbb{Z}_n\}$  imply that  $K_{3,3}$  is a subgraph of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ , a contradiction.

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