# ON THE IDEAL-BASED ZERO-DIVISOR GRAPHS 

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#### Abstract

Let $R$ be a commutative ring. In this paper, we study the annihilator ideal-based zero-divisor graph by replacing the ideal $I$ of $R$ with the ideal $A n n_{R}(M)$ for an $R$-module $M$. Also, we investigate a certain subgraph of the annihilator ideal-based zero-divisor graph and obtain some related results.


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## 1. Introduction

Throughout this paper, $R$ will denote a commutative ring with identity. Also, $\mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbb{Z}$ will denote the ring of positive integers and the ring of integers respectively. Furthermore, for an $R$-module $M$, the symbol $\bar{R}$ will be used to denote $R / A n n_{R}(M)$.

A graph $G$ is defined as the pair $(V(G), E(G))$, where $V(G)$ is the set of vertices of $G$ and $E(G)$ is the set of edges of $G$. For two distinct vertices $a$ and $b$ of $V(G)$, the notation $a-b$ means that $a$ and $b$ are adjacent. A graph $G$ is said to be complete if $a-b$ for all distinct $a, b \in V(G)$, and $G$ is said to be empty if $E(G)=\emptyset$. Note by this definition that a graph may be empty even if $V(G) \neq \emptyset$. An empty graph could also be described as totally disconnected. If $|V(G)| \geq 2$, a path from $a$ to $b$ is a series of adjacent vertices $a-v_{1}-v_{2}-\ldots-v_{n}-b$. The length of a path is the number of edges it contains. A cycle is a path that begins and ends at the same vertex in which no edge is repeated, and all vertices other than the starting and ending vertex are distinct. If a graph $G$ has a cycle, the girth of $G$ (notated $g(G))$ is defined as the length of the shortest cycle of $G$; otherwise, $g(G)=\infty$. A graph $G$ is connected if for every pair of distinct vertices $a, b \in V(G)$, there exists a path from $a$ to $b$. If there is a path from $a$ to $b$ with $a, b \in V(G)$, then the distance from $a$ to $b$ is the length of the shortest path from $a$ to $b$ and is denoted $d(a, b)$. If there is not a path between $a$ and $b, d(a, b)=\infty$. The diameter of $G$ is $\operatorname{diam}(G)=\sup \{d(a, b) \mid a, b \in V(G)\}$.

The idea of a zero-divisor graph of a commutative ring was introduced by I. Beck in 1988 [13]. He assumes that all elements of the ring are vertices of the
graph and was mainly interested in colorings and then this investigation of coloring of a commutative ring was continued by Anderson and Naseer in [2]. Anderson and Livingston [3], studied the zero-divisor graph whose vertices are the nonzero zero-divisors.

Let $Z(R)$ be the set of zero-divisors of $R$. The zero-divisor graph of $R$ denoted by $\Gamma(R)$, is a graph with vertices $Z^{*}(R)=Z(R) \backslash\{0\}$ and for distinct $x, y \in Z^{*}(R)$ the vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if and only if $x y=0$. This graph turns out to exhibit properties of the set of the zero-divisors of a commutative ring with best way. The zero-divisor graph helps us to study the algebraic properties of rings using graph theoretical tools. We can translate some algebraic properties of a ring to graph theory language and then the geometric properties of graphs help us explore some interesting results in algebraic structures of rings. The zero-divisor graph of a commutative ring has also been studied by several other authors (e.g., [4,5,14]).

In [22], Redmond introduced the definition of the zero-divisor graph with respect to an ideal. Let $I$ be an ideal of $R$. The zero-divisor graph of $R$ with respect to $I$, denoted by $\Gamma_{I}(R)$, is the graph whose vertices are the set

$$
\{x \in R \backslash I \mid x y \in I \text { for some } y \in R \backslash I\}
$$

with distinct vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if and only if $x y \in I$. The zero-divisor graph with respect to an ideal has been studied extensively by several authors (e.g., [1,6,16,17,19,21]).

In this paper, we study the annihilator ideal-based zero-divisor graph by replacing the ideal $I$ of $R$ with the ideal $A n n_{R}(M)$ for an $R$-module $M$. Moreover, we investigate a certain subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ and obtain some related results.

## 2. On the annihilator ideal-based zero-divisor graphs over comultiplication modules

Let $M$ be an $R$-module. The subset $Z_{R}(M)$ of $R$ is defined by

$$
\{r \in R \mid \exists 0 \neq m \in M \text { such that } r m=0\}
$$

and set $Z_{R}^{*}(M)=Z_{R}(M) \backslash A n n_{R}(M)$.
An $R$-module $M$ is said to be a multiplication module if for every submodule $N$ of $M$ there exists an ideal $I$ of $R$ such that $N=I M$.

Lemma 2.1. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then $Z_{R}(\bar{R}) \subseteq Z_{R}(M)$. Moreover, the reverse inequality holds when $M$ is a multiplication $R$-module.

Proof. Clearly, $Z_{R}(\bar{R}) \subseteq Z_{R}(M)$. Now let $M$ be a multiplication $R$-module and $r \in Z_{R}(M)$. Then there exists $0 \neq m \in M$ such that $r m=0$ and $R m=I M$ for
some ideal $I$ of $R$. As $m \neq 0$, there exists $0 \neq a \in I$ such that $a M \neq 0$. Therefore, $r a M=0$ implies that $r \in Z_{R}(\bar{R})$.

The following example shows that the condition " $M$ is a multiplication $R$ module" in the last statement of Lemma 2.1 can not be omitted.

Example 2.2. Let $p$ be a prime number and $M$ be the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}_{p \infty}$. Then $Z_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)=p \mathbb{Z}$, but $Z_{\mathbb{Z}}\left(\mathbb{Z} / A n n_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)\right)=\{0\}$.

Proposition 2.3. Let $r$ be a vertex of $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ such that $A n n_{R}(r M)=P$ be a prime ideal of $R$. Then $r$ is adjacent to each vertex s such that $A n n_{R}(s M) \nsubseteq P$. In particular, $r$ is adjacent to each vertex $s$ of $\Gamma_{\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(M)}(R)$ such that $r \neq s$ and $s^{2}=0$.

Proof. Let $s$ be a vertex of $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ such that $A n n_{R}(s M) \nsubseteq P$. Then there exists $t \in A n n_{R}(s M) \backslash P$. Thus $t s M=0$ implies that $t s \in A n n_{R}(M) \subseteq$ $A n n_{R}(r M)=P$. As $t \notin P$, we have $s \in P=A n n_{R}(r M)$. Hence $r-s$, as needed. For the last assertion assume that $A n n_{R}(s M) \subseteq P=A n n_{R}(r M)$ for some vertex $s$ of $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ such that $s^{2}=0$. Then $A n n_{R}(s) \subseteq A n n_{R}(s M)$ implies that $r M A n n_{R}(s) \subseteq r M A n n_{R}(s M)=0$. But as $s^{2}=0, s \in \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(s)$. Therefore, $r s M=0$ and $r-s$.

Proposition 2.4. Let $M$ be a multiplication $R$-module. Then for each $r \in Z_{R}^{*}(M)$ there exists a non-zero ideal $I$ of $R$ such that $I \nsubseteq A n n_{R}(M), I \subseteq Z_{R}(M)$ and $r-a$ for each $a \in I \backslash$ Ann $_{R}(M)$.

Proof. First note that $Z_{R}^{*}(M)$ is equal to the set of vertices of $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ by Lemma 2.1. Let $r \in Z_{R}^{*}(M)$. Then there exists $0 \neq m \in M$ such that $r m=0$. As $M$ is a multiplication $R$-module, there exists a non-zero ideal $I$ of $R$ such that $R m=I M$ and so $I \nsubseteq A n n_{R}(M)$. As $r M \neq 0$, there exists $m_{1} \in M$ such that $r m_{1} \neq 0$. Now $0=r(R m)=r I M$ implies that $I \subseteq Z_{R}(M)$, and $r-a$ for each $a \in I \backslash \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(M)$.

Let $M$ be an $R$-module. The subset $W_{R}(M)$ of $R$ is defined by $\{r \in R \mid r M \neq M\}$ [23] and set $W_{R}^{*}(M)=W_{R}(M) \backslash \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(M)$.
$M$ is said to be Hopfian (resp. co-Hopfian) if every surjective (resp. injective) endomorphism $f$ of $M$ is an isomorphism.

A submodule $N$ of $M$ is said to be idempotent if $N=\left(N:_{R} M\right)^{2} M$. Also, $M$ is said to be fully idempotent if every submodule of $M$ is idempotent [11].

Theorem 2.5. Let $M$ be a fully idempotent $R$-module such that $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is complete. Then $M$ is a simple module.

Proof. Let $N$ be a proper submodule of $M$. Then $N=\left(N:_{R} M\right) M=\left(N:_{R}\right.$ $M)^{2} M$. Clearly, $\left(N:_{R} M\right) \subseteq W_{R}(M / N) \subseteq W_{R}(M)$. By [11, 2.7], $M$ is co-Hopfian. Thus $W_{R}(M) \subseteq Z_{R}(M)$. So by Lemma 2.1, $Z_{R}(\bar{R})=Z_{R}(M)$ because $M$ is a multiplication $R$-module by [11, 2.7]. Therefore, $W_{R}(M) \subseteq Z_{R}(\bar{R})$. Hence $\left(N:_{R}\right.$ $M) \subseteq Z_{R}(\bar{R})$. If $\left(N:_{R} M\right)=A n n_{R}(M)$, then $N=0$. Otherwise, as $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is complete, $r s M=0$ for each $r, s \in\left(N:_{R} M\right)-A n n_{R}(M)$. Therefore, $\left(N:_{R}\right.$ $M)^{2} M=0$. This implies that $N=\left(N:_{R} M\right)^{2} M=0$, as needed.

Corollary 2.6. Let $M$ be a fully idempotent $R$-module. Then $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is complete if and only if $M$ is a simple $R$-module.

An $R$-module $M$ is said to be a comultiplication module if for every submodule $N$ of $M$ there exists an ideal $I$ of $R$ such that $N=\left(0:_{M} I\right)[7]$.

Lemma 2.7. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then $Z_{R}(\bar{R}) \subseteq W_{R}(M)$. Moreover, the reverse inequality holds when $M$ is a comultiplication $R$-module.

Proof. Let $r \in Z_{R}(\bar{R})$. Then there exist $\overline{0} \neq s+A n n_{R}(M) \in \bar{R}$ such that $r\left(s+A n n_{R}(M)\right)=\overline{0}$. Hence $r s M=0$. Now if $r M=M$, then $0=s r M=s M \neq 0$, a contradiction. Therefore, $r M \neq M$. Thus $Z_{R}(\bar{R}) \subseteq W_{R}(M)$. Now let $M$ be a comultiplication $R$-module and $r \in W_{R}(M)$. Then $r M \neq M$ and $r M=\left(0:_{M} I\right)$ for some ideal $I$ of $R$. Hence $\operatorname{Ir} M=0$. If $I M=0$, then $M \subseteq\left(0:_{M} I\right)=r M$, a contradiction. Thus there exists $a \in I \backslash A n n_{R}(M)$. Therefore, raM = 0 implies that $r \in Z_{R}(\bar{R})$ as required.

The following example shows that the converse of the Lemma 2.7 is not true in general.

Example 2.8. Let $M$ be the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}$. Then $W_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)=\mathbb{Z} \backslash\{1,-1\}$. But $Z_{\mathbb{Z}}\left(\mathbb{Z} / A n n_{\mathbb{Z}}(M)\right)=\{0\}$.

Proposition 2.9. Let $M$ be a comultiplication $R$-module. Then for each $r \in$ $W_{R}^{*}(M)$ there exists a non-zero ideal $I$ of $R$ such that $I \nsubseteq \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(M), I \subseteq W_{R}(M)$ and $r-a$ for each $a \in I \backslash A n n_{R}(M)$.

Proof. First note that $W_{R}^{*}(M)$ is equal to the set of vertices of $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ by Lemma 2.7. Let $r \in W_{R}^{*}(M)$. Then $r M \neq M$. As $M$ is a comultiplication $R$ module, there exists a non-zero ideal $I$ of $R$ such that $r M=\left(0:_{M} I\right)$. Thus $r I M=0$ and $I M \neq 0$. If $I M=M$, then $r M=0$, a contradiction. Hence $I \subseteq W_{R}(M), I \nsubseteq A n n_{R}(M)$ and $r-a$ for each $a \in I \backslash \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(M)$.

A submodule $N$ of an $R$-module $M$ is said to be coidempotent if $N=\left(0:_{M}\right.$ $\left.A n n_{R}(N)^{2}\right)$. Also, an $R$-module $M$ is said to be fully coidempotent if every submodule of $M$ is coidempotent [11].

Theorem 2.10. Let $M$ be a fully coidempotent $R$-module such that $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is complete. Then $M$ is a simple module.

Proof. Let $N$ be a non-zero submodule of $M$. Then $N=\left(0:_{M} \operatorname{Ann} n_{R}(N)\right)=$ $\left(0:_{M} \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(N)^{2}\right)$. Clearly, $\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(N) \subseteq Z_{R}(N) \subseteq Z_{R}(M)$. By [11, 3.9], $M$ is Hopfian. Thus $Z_{R}(M) \subseteq W_{R}(M)$. So by Lemma 2.7, $Z_{R}(\bar{R})=W_{R}(M)$ because $M$ is a comultiplication $R$-module by [11, 3.5]. Therefore, $Z_{R}(M) \subseteq Z_{R}(\bar{R})$. Hence $A n n_{R}(N) \subseteq Z_{R}(\bar{R})$. If $A n n_{R}(N)=A n n_{R}(M)$, then $N=M$. Otherwise, as $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is complete, $r s M=0$ for each $r, s \in A n n_{R}(N) \backslash A n n_{R}(M)$. Therefore, $A n n_{R}(N)^{2} M=0$. This implies that $M \subseteq\left(0:_{M} A n n_{R}(N)^{2}\right)=N$, as needed.

Corollary 2.11. Let $M$ be a fully coidempotent $R$-module. Then $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is complete if and only if $M$ is a simple $R$-module.

Recall that an $R$-module $M$ is called a reduced module if $r m=0$ implies that $r M \cap R m=0$, where $r \in R$ and $m \in M$. It is clear that $M$ is a reduced module if $r^{2} m=0$ for $r \in R, m \in M$ implies that $r m=0$.

Let $M$ be an $R$-module. A proper submodule $N$ of $M$ is said to be completely irreducible if $N=\bigcap_{i \in I} N_{i}$, where $\left\{N_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is a family of submodules of $M$, implies that $N=N_{i}$ for some $i \in I$. It is easy to see that every submodule of $M$ is an intersection of completely irreducible submodules of $M$ [18]. Thus the intersection of all completely irreducible submodules of $M$ is zero.

An $R$-module $M$ is said to be semisecond if $r M=r^{2} M$ for each $r \in R$ [9].
Definition 2.12. We say that an $R$-module $M$ is coreduced if ( $L:_{M} r$ ) $=M$ implies that $L+\left(0:_{M} r\right)=M$, where $r \in R$ and $L$ is a completely irreducible submodule of $M$.

Theorem 2.13. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then the following are equivalent.
(a) $r^{2} M \subseteq L$ implies that $r M \subseteq L$, where $r \in R$ and $L$ is a completely irreducible submodule of $M$.
(b) $r^{2} M \subseteq N$ implies that $r M \subseteq N$, where $r \in R$ and $N$ is a submodule of $M$.
(c) $M$ is coreduced.
(d) $M$ is semisecond.

Proof. $(a) \Rightarrow(b)$ Let $r \in R$ and $N$ be a submodule of $M$ such that $r^{2} M \subseteq N$. There exist completely irreducible submodules $L_{i}(i \in I)$ of $M$ such that $N=$ $\cap_{i \in I} L_{i}$. Thus $r^{2} M \subseteq N=\cap_{i \in I} L_{i} \subseteq L_{i}$. This implies that $r M \subseteq L_{i}$ for each $i \in I$ by part (a). Therefore, $r M \subseteq \cap_{i \in I} L_{i}=N$, as required.
$(b) \Rightarrow(a)$ This is clear.
$(c) \Rightarrow(a)$ Let $r \in R$ and $L$ be a completely irreducible submodule of $M$ such that $r^{2} M \subseteq L$. Then $\left(\left(L:_{M} r\right):_{M} r\right)=M$. One can see that $\left(L:_{M} r\right)$ is a completely irreducible submodule of $M$. Hence by part (c), $\left(L:_{M} r\right)+\left(0:_{M} r\right)=M$. Thus $\left(L:_{M} r\right)=M$ and so $r M \subseteq L$.
$(d) \Rightarrow(c)$ Let $r \in R$ and $L$ be a completely irreducible submodule of $M$ such that $r M \subseteq L$. Suppose that $x \in M$. By part (d), $r M=r^{2} M$. Therefore, $r x=r^{2} y$ for some $y \in M$. So that $x-r y \in\left(0:_{M} r\right)$. Thus $x=x-r y+r y \in\left(0:_{M} r\right)+r M$. Hence $M=\left(0:_{M} r\right)+r M \subseteq\left(0:_{M} r\right)+L \subseteq M$.
$(a) \Leftrightarrow(d)$ This follows from $[9,4.4]$.
A submodule $N$ of an $R$-module $M$ is said to be copure if $\left(N:_{M} I\right)=N+\left(0:_{M} I\right)$ for every ideal $I$ of $R[8]$. Also an $R$-module $M$ is said to be fully copure if every submodule of $M$ is copure [11].

Lemma 2.14. (a) Let $R$ be a von Neumann regular ring. Then every $R$ module is coreduced.
(b) Every fully copure R-module is a coreduced module. In particular, every fully coidempotent $R$-module is a coreduced module.

Proof. (a) This follows from the fact that every finitely generated ideal is generated by an idempotent.
(b) This is clear. Note that every fully coidempotent $R$-module is a fully copure $R$-module [11, 3.13].

Proposition 2.15. Let $M$ be a coreduced $R$-module. Then we have the following.
(a) $A n n_{R}(M)$ is a radical ideal, and hence $\bar{R}$ is a reduced ring.
(b) Every homomorphic image of $M$ is a coreduced $R$-module.

Proof. (a) Suppose that $r^{n} \in \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(M)$ for some $n \geq 1$. Then $r^{n} M=0$ implies that $r^{n} M \subseteq L$ for each completely irreducible submodule $L$ of $M$. Thus $r M \subseteq L$ for each completely irreducible submodule $L$ of $M$ by Theorem 2.13 . Therefore $r M \subseteq$ $\cap_{i \in I} L_{i}=0$, where $\left\{L_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ is a collection of all completely irreducible submodules of $M$.
(b) This is clear.

The following examples show that the classes of reduced modules and coreduced modules are different.

Example 2.16. Every divisible module over an integral domain $R$ is coreduced. In particular, for each prime number $p$ the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}_{p^{\infty}}$ is a coreduced $\mathbb{Z}$-module. But since $p^{2}\left(1 / p^{2}+\mathbb{Z}\right)=0$ and $p\left(1 / p^{2}+\mathbb{Z}\right) \neq 0$, the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}_{p \infty}$ is not a reduced $\mathbb{Z}$-module.

Example 2.17. The $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}$ is reduced. But since $2^{2} \mathbb{Z} \subseteq 4 \mathbb{Z}$ and $2 \mathbb{Z} \nsubseteq 4 \mathbb{Z}$, the $\mathbb{Z}$-module $\mathbb{Z}$ is not coreduced by Theorem 2.13.

A vertex $a$ of a graph $G$ is called a complement of $b$, if $b$ is adjacent to $a$ and no vertex is adjacent to both $a$ and $b$; that is, the edge $a-b$ is not an edge of any triangle in $G$. In this case, we write $a \perp b$. If every vertex of $G$ has a complement, then $G$ is called complemented, and it is called uniquely complemented if it is complemented and any two complements of vertex set are adjacent to the same vertices. As in Anderson et al. [4], for vertices $a, b$ of $G$, we have $a \leq b$ if $a, b$ are not adjacent and each vertex of $G$ adjacent to $b$ is also adjacent to $a$. If $a \leq b$ and $b \leq a$ we write $a \sim b$. Thus $a \sim b$ if and only if $a, b$ are adjacent to exactly the same vertices and $a, b$ are not adjacent. Clearly, $\sim$ is an equivalent relation on $G$. So $G$ is uniquely complemented if $G$ is complemented and whenever $a \perp b$ and $a \perp c$, then $b \sim c$.

Proposition 2.18. Let $M$ be a coreduced $R$-module. Then $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is uniquely complemented if and only if $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is complemented.

Proof. Use the technique of $[19,2.7]$.
Theorem 2.19. Let $M$ be a fully coidempotent finitely generated $R$-module. Then $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is a complemented graph.

Proof. Suppose that $\alpha$ is a vertex of $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$. Since $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is a connected graph, there is a vertex $\beta$ such that $\alpha \beta M=0$. Put $N:=\alpha M$. Since $M$ is a fully coidempotent module, we have

$$
N=\left(N:_{M} \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(N)\right) \Rightarrow 0=\left(0:_{M / N} \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(N)\right) \Rightarrow \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(N) M / N=M / N
$$

Hence as $M / N$ is a finitely generated $R$-module, $\left(N:_{R} M\right)+A n n_{R}(N)=R$ by [20, Theorem 76]. Thus $1=r+s$ for some $r \in\left(N:_{R} M\right), s \in A n n_{R}(N)$. We shall now assume that $s M=0$ and derive a contradiction. Since $M=r M+s M$, then $M=r M \subseteq\left(N:_{R} M\right) M \subseteq N=\alpha M$. This is the required contradiction. However, since $s \alpha M=0, s$ is a vertex of $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$. Now we claim that $s \perp \alpha$. Assume that there exists a vertex $c$ such that $c s M=0$ and $c \alpha M=0$. Since $1=r+s$, we have $c M \subseteq r c M+s c M$. On the other hand, $r c M \subseteq\left(N:_{R} M\right) c M \subseteq c \alpha M=0$. Hence $c M=0$, which is a contradiction. Thus $s \perp \alpha$. Consequently, $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is complemented.

Corollary 2.20. Let $M$ be a fully coidempotent finitely generated $R$-module. Then $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is a uniquely complemented graph.

Proof. This follows from Lemma 2.14, Proposition 2.18, and Theorem 2.19.

Let $M$ be an $R$-module. A non-zero submodule $S$ of $M$ is said to be second if for each $a \in R$, the homomorphism $S \xrightarrow{a} S$ is either surjective or zero [24].

For a submodule $N$ of $M$ the the second radical (or second socle) of $N$ is defined as the sum of all second submodules of $M$ contained in $N$ and it is denoted by $\sec (N)($ or $\operatorname{soc}(N))$. In case $N$ does not contain any second submodule, the second radical of $N$ is defined to be (0) (see [10] and [15]).

Theorem 2.21. Let $M$ be a finitely generated comultiplication $R$-module and $N$ be a submodule of $M$. Then $\sec (M) \subseteq N$ if and only if $A n n_{R}(N) \subseteq \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / N)}$.

Proof. First suppose that $\sec (M) \subseteq N$ and $A n n_{R}(N) \nsubseteq \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / N)}$. Then there exists $t \in R$ such that $t N=0$ and $t \notin \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / N)}$. Put $\Sigma:=\{K \leq M$ : $\left.t \notin \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / K)}\right\}$. Since $N \in \Sigma, \Sigma \neq \emptyset$. Clearly, $(\Sigma, \subseteq)$ is a partially ordered set. Suppose that $\Omega=\left\{K_{i}\right\}_{i \in I}$ be a chain of elements of $\Sigma$. Since $M$ is finitely generated, $\cup_{i \in I} A n n_{R}\left(M / K_{i}\right)=A n n_{R}\left(M / \cup_{i \in I} K_{i}\right)$. So $\left.t \notin \sqrt{A n n_{R}\left(M / \cup_{i \in I} K_{i}\right.}\right)$. Thus $\cup_{i \in I} K_{i}$ is an upper bound for $\Omega$ in $\Sigma$. So by Zorn's Lemma, $\Sigma$ has a maximal element, $H$ say. We claim that $A n n_{R}(M / H)$ is a prime ideal of $R$. If $A n n_{R}(M / H)=R$, then $t \in R=\sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / H)}$, a contradiction. Now let $r s \in A n n_{R}(M / H), r \notin A n n_{R}(M / H)$, and $s \notin A n n_{R}(M / H)$. Then $r M \nsubseteq H$ and $s M \nsubseteq H$. Hence by maximality of $H, t \in \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M /(r M+H))}$ and $t \in \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M /(s M+H))}$. Thus there exist $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $t^{n} M \subseteq s M+H$ and $t^{m} M \subseteq r M+H$. Therefore,

$$
t^{n+m} M \subseteq s\left(t^{m} M\right)+t^{m} H \subseteq s(r M+H)+H \subseteq s r M+H=0+H
$$

It follows that $t \in \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / H)}$, which is a contradiction. Therefore, $A n n_{R}(M / H)$ is a prime ideal of $R$. Clearly, $A n n_{R}(M / H) \subseteq A n n_{R}\left(\left(0:_{M} A n n_{R}(M / H)\right)\right.$. Let $r \in A n n_{R}\left(\left(0:_{M} A n n_{R}(M / H)\right)\right.$. Then $r\left(0:_{M} A n n_{R}(M / H)\right)=0$. Thus $\left(0:_{M}\right.$ $\left.A n n_{R}(M / H)\right) \subseteq\left(0:_{M} r\right)$. It follows that $r M \subseteq A n n_{R}(M / H) M \subseteq H$. Hence $r \in A n n_{R}(M / H)$. Therefore, $\left(0:_{M} A n n_{R}(M / H)\right)$ is a second submodule of $M$ by $[7,3.13]$. So by assumption, $\left(0:_{M} A n n_{R}(M / H)\right) \subseteq N$. Thus $A n n_{R}(N) \subseteq$ $A n n_{R}\left(\left(0:_{M} A n n_{R}(M / H)\right)\right)=A n n_{R}(M / H) \subseteq \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / H)}$, a contradiction.

Conversely, suppose that $A n n_{R}(N) \subseteq \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / N)}$ and $S$ be a second submodule of $M$. It is enough to show that $S \subseteq N$. So suppose that $S \nsubseteq N$. Then as $M$ is a comultiplication $R$-module, $A n n_{R}(N) \nsubseteq A n n_{R}(S)$. Thus there exists $a \in A n n_{R}(N) \backslash A n n_{R}(S)$. Therefore, $a \in \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / N)}$ and $a S \neq 0$. As $S$ is second, $a S=S$. There exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a^{n} M \subseteq N$. Therefore, $S=a^{n} S \subseteq a^{n} M \subseteq N$, a contradiction.

Proposition 2.22. Let $M$ be an $R$-module. Then $M$ is a coreduced $R$-module if $\sec (M)=M$. The converse holds when $M$ is a finitely generated comultiplication $R$-module.

Proof. First assume that $\sec (M)=M$ and $r \in R$. If $S$ is a second submodule of $M$, then $r S=0$ or $r S=S$. Thus $r^{2} S=0$ or $r^{2} S=S$. This implies that $\operatorname{rsec}(M)=r^{2} \sec (M)$. Thus by assumption, $r M=r^{2} M$. Therefore, $M$ is a coreduced $R$-module by Theorem 2.13 . Conversely, let $M$ be a comultiplication coreduced $R$-module. If $\sec (M) \neq M$. Then there exists a proper completely irreducible submodule $L$ of $M$ such that $\sec (M) \subseteq L$. Thus by Theorem 2.21, $A n n_{R}(L) \subseteq \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M / L)}$. Since $M$ is a comultiplication $R$-module and $L$ is proper, there exits $t \in A n n_{R}(L) \backslash A n n_{R}(M)$. Therefore, $t^{n} M \subseteq L$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. This implies that $t^{n+1} M=0$. But as $M$ is coreduced, $t M=t^{2} M$ by Theorem 2.13. Therefore, $t M=0$, which is a contradiction.

Theorem 2.23. Let $M$ be a finitely generated comultiplication $R$-module and $\sec (M) \subseteq N \neq M . \quad$ If $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is complemented, then there exists $a \in$ $A n n_{R}(N)$ such that $a^{t} M=0, a^{t-i} M \neq 0$ and $a^{t-1} \perp a^{i}, t=2,3$ and $1 \leq i \leq t-2$.

Proof. Since $\sec (M) \subseteq N \neq M$ and by [12, 2.12], $\sec (M)=\left(0:_{M} \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M)}\right)$, $\sqrt{A n n_{R}(M)} \neq A n n_{R}(M)$. Therefore, there exists $x \in \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M)} \backslash A n n_{R}(M)$. This implies that $\overline{0} \neq x+\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(M) \in \operatorname{Nil}(\bar{R})$ and there exists $h \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x^{h} M=0$. Thus as $\bar{R}$ is a multiplication $R$-module, there exists $a \in\left(R \bar{x}:_{R} \bar{R}\right)$ such that $a^{t} \bar{R}=0, a^{t-i} \bar{R} \neq 0$ and $a^{t-1} \perp a^{i}, t=2,3$ and $1 \leq i \leq t-2$ by [19, 3.3]. It follows that $R a+A n n_{R}(M) \subseteq R x$. So it follows that $R a^{h}+A n n_{R}(M) \subseteq R x^{h}$. Thus $a^{h} \in A n n_{R}(N)$. Therefore, $a^{h} \in A n n_{R}(N)$ such that $\left(a^{h}\right)^{t} M=0,\left(a^{h}\right)^{t-i} M \neq 0$ and $\left(a^{h}\right)^{t-1} \perp\left(a^{h}\right)^{i}, t=2,3$ and $1 \leq i \leq t-2$.

Lemma 2.24. Let $M$ be a coreduced comultiplication $R$-module and $I$ be an ideal of $R$. If $I \subseteq P$, where $P$ is a minimal prime ideal of $A n n_{R}(M)$, Then $I \subseteq W_{R}(M)$.

Proof. By Lemma 2.15, $\bar{R}$ is a reduced $R$-module. Hence since $\bar{R}$ is a multiplication $R$-module, $I \subseteq Z_{R}(\bar{R})$ by $[6,2.3]$. As $M$ is a comultiplication $R$-module, $W_{R}(M)=$ $Z_{R}(\bar{R})$ by Lemma 2.7. Thus $I \subseteq W_{R}(M)$.

Theorem 2.25. Let $M$ be a finitely generated comultiplication $R$-module. Then we have the following.
(a) If $R$ is a ring with $|\bar{R}|>4$ and $\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)$ is a complete graph, then either $\left(0:_{M} Z_{R}(\bar{R})\right)=0$ or $\left(0:_{M} Z_{R}(\bar{R})\right)=\sec (M)$.
(b) If $\sec (M) \neq M$ and there are $\alpha, \beta \in V\left(\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)\right)$ such that $R \alpha+R \beta \nsubseteq$ $W_{R}(M)$, then $\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)\right)=3$.

Proof. (a) Since $\bar{R}$ is a multiplication $R$-module, $\bar{R}=Z_{R}(\bar{R}) \bar{R}$ or $\operatorname{Nil}(\bar{R})=$ $Z_{R}(\bar{R}) \bar{R}$ by [19, 3.2]. Thus $Z_{R}(\bar{R})+A n n_{R}(M)=R$ or $Z_{R}(\bar{R})+A n n_{R}(M)=$ $\sqrt{A n n_{R}(M)}$. Therefore, $\left(0:_{M} Z_{R}(\bar{R})\right)=0$ or $\left(0:_{M} Z_{R}(\bar{R})\right)=\left(0:_{M} \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M)}\right)$. Now the result follows from [12, 2.12].
(b) Since $\sec (M) \subseteq N \neq M$ and by [12, 2.12], $\sec (M)=\left(0:_{M} \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M)}\right)$, $\sqrt{A n n_{R}(M)} \neq A n n_{R}(M)$. Therefore, there exists $\alpha \in \sqrt{A n n_{R}(M)} \backslash A n n_{R}(M)$. This implies that $\overline{0} \neq \alpha+\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(M) \in \operatorname{Nil}(\bar{R})$. Thus $\operatorname{Nil}(\bar{R}) \neq 0$. By Lemma 2.7, $W_{R}(M)=Z_{R}(\bar{R})$. Thus $\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma_{\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(\bar{R})}(R)\right)=3$ by $[6,2.8]$. It follows that $\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(M)}(R)\right)=3$.

## 3. A certain subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$

Definition 3.1. Let $I$ be an ideal of $R$. We define the graph $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ of $R$ whose vertices are the set $\left\{x \in A n n_{R}(I) \backslash I: x y \in I\right.$ for some $\left.y \in A n n_{R}(I) \backslash I\right\}$ with distinct vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if and only if $x y \in I$. Clearly, when $I=(0)$ we have $\Gamma_{I}\left(\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I)\right)=\Gamma(R)$.

Remark 3.2. (a) If $\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I) \subseteq I$, then $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I)\right)\right)=\emptyset$. In particular if $A n n_{R}(I)=0, V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)=\emptyset$. For example, for each ideal $I$ of the ring $\mathbb{Z}$, we have $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{\mathbb{Z}}(I)\right)\right)=\emptyset$.
(b) If $R$ is an integral domain or $I$ is a prime ideal of $R$, then $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I)\right)\right)=$ $\emptyset$.
(c) It is clear that for each ideal $I$ of $R, \Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ is a subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. But as we see in the Example 3.6 the converse is not true in general.
(d) If $R$ is a comultiplication ring, then

$$
\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(I)}\left(A n n_{R}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)=\Gamma_{A n n_{R}(I)}(R)
$$

Example 3.3. In the following cases, for the graphs $\Gamma(R / I)$ and $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$, we have $|V(\Gamma(R / I))|=\left|V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I)\right)\right)\right|$.
(a) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $I=0 \times 0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
(b) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{4} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $I=0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
(c) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{24}$ and $I=\langle 8\rangle$.
(d) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $I=0 \times 0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
(e) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ and $I=0 \times 0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{3}$.
(f) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{9} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ and $I=0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{3}$.
(g) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{6} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $I=0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
(h) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2}[x] /\left\langle x^{3}\right\rangle$ and $I=0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
(i) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{4}$ and $I=0 \times 0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{4}$.
(j) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{2} \times \mathbb{Z}_{4} \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$ and $I=0 \times 0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2}$.
(k) $R=\mathbb{Z}_{6} \times \mathbb{Z}_{3}$ and $I=0 \times \mathbb{Z}_{3}$.

Example 3.4. Let $R=\mathbb{Z}$ and $I=8 \mathbb{Z}$. Then $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I)\right)\right)=\emptyset, V(\Gamma(R / I))=$ $\{\overline{2}, \overline{4}, \overline{6}\}$, and the vertex $\overline{4}$ is adjacent to both vertexes $\overline{2}$ and $\overline{6}$ in graph $\Gamma(R / I)$. This implies that $\Gamma(R / I)$ is not isomorphic to a subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ in general.

Example 3.5. Let $p$ be a prime number and $R=\mathbb{Z}_{4 p}$. Then the non-zero proper ideals of $R$ are $\overline{2} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}, \overline{2 p} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}, \overline{4} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}$, and $\bar{p} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}$. Since $\overline{2} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}$ and $\bar{p} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}$ are prime ideals of $R, \Gamma_{\overline{2} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}}\left(A n n_{\mathbb{Z}_{4 p}}\left(\overline{2} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}\right)\right)=\emptyset$ and $\Gamma_{\bar{p} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}}\left(A n n_{\mathbb{Z}_{4 p}}\left(\bar{p} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}\right)\right)=\emptyset$. Also, it is straightforward to see that $\Gamma_{\overline{4} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}}\left(A n n_{\mathbb{Z}_{4 p}}\left(\overline{4} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}\right)\right)=\emptyset$ and $\Gamma_{\overline{2 p} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}}\left(A n n_{\mathbb{Z}_{4 p}}\left(\overline{2 p} \mathbb{Z}_{4 p}\right)\right)=$ $\emptyset$.

Example 3.6. Let $R=\mathbb{Z}_{24}$ and $I=12 \mathbb{Z}_{24}$. Then in the following figures we can see the deference between the graphs $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right), \Gamma(R / I)$, and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.

Figure 1. $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$.


Figure 2. $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.


Figure 3. $\Gamma(R / I)$.


A vertex $x$ of a connected graph $G$ is a cut-point of $G$ if there are vertices $u, w$ of $G$ such that $x$ is in every path from $u$ to $w$ (and $x \neq u, x \neq w$ ). Equivalently, for a connected graph $G, x$ is a cut-point of $G$ if $G \backslash\{x\}$ is not connected [22].

Remark 3.7. In [22, 3.2], it is shown that if $I$ is a nonzero proper ideal if $R$, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ has no cut-points. But this fact is not true for the subgraph $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. For example, one can see that the vertex 12 is a cut-point of $\Gamma_{\langle 8\rangle}\left({A n n_{\mathbb{Z}_{24}}}(\langle 8\rangle)\right)$.

Theorem 3.8. Let $I$ be an ideal of $R$. Then $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ is connected with $\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right) \leq 3$. Furthermore, if $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ contains a cycle, then $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right) \leq 7$.

Proof. Use the technique of [22, 2.4].
Let $I$ be an ideal of $R$. Set $\widetilde{Z}(R / I)=\{x+I \in R / I: \exists 0 \neq z+I \in R / I$ with $z I=$ 0 and $x z \in I\}$.
Theorem 3.9. Let $I \subseteq J$ be proper ideals of $R$. If $R / I=\widetilde{Z}(R / I) \cup U(R / I)$, then $V\left(\Gamma_{J}\left(A n n_{R}(J)\right)\right) \subseteq V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$.

Proof. Let $\left.x \in V\left(\Gamma_{J} A n n_{R}(J)\right)\right)$. Then $x y \in J$ for some $y \in A n n_{R}(J) \backslash J$. If $x+I \in \widetilde{Z}(R / I)$, then there is $0 \neq z+I \in R / I$ such that $z I=0$ and $z x \in I$. Hence $x \in V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$. Otherwise, $x+I \in U(R / I)$ and so $(x+I)(w+I)=1+I$ for some $w+I \in R / I$. Thus $x w=1+i$ for some $i \in I$, and hence

$$
y=1 y=(x w-i) y \in J+I \subseteq J
$$

a contradiction. Thus $V\left(\Gamma_{J}\left(A n n_{R}(J)\right)\right) \subseteq V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$.
Theorem 3.10. Let $I$ be non-zero ideal of $R$ and $a \in V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$, adjacent to every vertex of $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$. Then $\left(I:_{R} a\right) \cap A n n_{R}(I)$ is a maximal element of the set $\left\{\left(I:_{R} x\right) \cap A n n_{R}(I): x \in A n n_{R}(I) \backslash I\right\}$. Moreover, $\left(I:_{R}\right.$ a) is a prime ideal of $R$.

Proof. One can see that $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right) \cup\left(A n n_{R}(I) \cap I\right)=\left(I:_{R} a\right) \cap A n n_{R}(I)$. Now choose $x \in \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I) \backslash I$. Let $y \in\left(I:_{R} x\right) \cap A n n_{R}(I)$. If $y \in I$, then $y \in I \subseteq$ $\left(I:_{R} a\right)$ and we are done. If $y \notin I$, then $y x \in I$ implies that $y \in V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$. Thus $y a \in I$ by assumption. Therefore, $y \in\left(I:_{R} a\right)$ as needed. Now prove that $\left(I:_{R} a\right)$ is a prime ideal of $R$. Since $a \notin I,\left(I:_{R} a\right) \neq R$. Let $x y \in\left(I:_{R} a\right)$ and $x \notin\left(I:_{R} a\right)$ for some $x, y \in R$. Then $x a \notin I$ and since $a I=0, x a \in A n n_{R}(I)$. Thus $\left(I:_{R} x a\right) \subseteq\left(I:_{R} a\right)$ by assumption. Hence $y \in\left(I:_{R} a\right)$ and the proof is completed.

Theorem 3.11. Let $I$ be an ideal of $R$ and consider $S=\sqrt{I} \backslash I$. If $S \cap A n n_{R}(I)$ is a non-empty set, then $\left\langle S \cap A n n_{R}(I)\right\rangle$ is connected.

Proof. Let $x, y \in S \cap A n n_{R}(I)$. If $x y \in I$, then we are done. Suppose that $x y \notin I$, where $x^{n}, y^{m} \in I$ and $x^{n-1}, y^{m-1} \notin I$. Hence, the path $x-x^{n-1}-x y-y^{m-1}-y$ is a path of length four from $x$ to $y$.

Theorem 3.12. Let $I$ be a non-zero ideal of $R$. Then we have the following.
(a) If $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are prime ideals of $\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I)$ and $I \cap A n n_{R}(I)=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$, then $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ is a complete bipartite graph.
(b) If $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ is a complete bipartite graph, then there exist ideals $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ of $R$ such that $I \cap \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I)=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$. Moreover, if $I=\sqrt{I}$, then $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are prime ideals of $A n n_{R}(I)$.

Proof. Use the technique of $[21,3.1]$.
Let $S(I)=\{x \in R: x y \in I$ for some $y \in R \backslash I\}[25]$.
Proposition 3.13. Let $I$ be an ideal of $R$. Then we have the following.
(a) $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)=S(I) \cap\left(\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I) \backslash I\right)$. In particular, $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right) \cup$ $\left(A n n_{R}(I) \cap I\right)=S(I) \cap A n n_{R}(I)$.
(b) If $\sqrt{I \cap A n n_{R}(I)}=I \cap A n n_{R}(I)$, then $S(I) \cap A n n_{R}(I) \subseteq \cup_{P \in \operatorname{Min}\left(I \cap A n n_{R}(I)\right)} P$.

Proof. (a) This is straightforward.
(b) Let $x \in S(I) \cap A n n_{R}(I)$. Then $x I=0$ and there exists $y \in R \backslash I$ such that $x y \in I$. Set $z=x y+y$. Then $x z \in I \cap A n n_{R}(I)$ and $z \notin I \cap A n n_{R}(I)$. Therefore, $x \in S\left(I \cap A n n_{R}(I)\right)$. Thus $S(I) \cap A n n_{R}(I) \subseteq S\left(I \cap A n n_{R}(I)\right)$. Now the result follows from [17, 2.1].

Theorem 3.14. Let $I$ be an ideal of $R$. Then we have the following.
(a) If $I \cap \operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I)=0$, then $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ is a subgraph of $\Gamma(R)$.
(b) If $I \cap A n n_{R}(I)=0$, then $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ is isomorphic to a subgraph of $\Gamma(R / I)$.
(c) If $R / I$ be a reduced ring and $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ is a complete graph, then $\left.\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$ is a subgraph of $\Gamma(R)$.

Proof. (a) Clearly $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right) \subseteq Z^{*}(R)=V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$. Now let $x, y \in$ $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$ and $x$ is adjacent to $y$. Then $x y \in I$. Thus $x y \in I \cap A n n_{R}(I)=0$, as needed.
(b) Consider the $\operatorname{map} \phi: V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right) \rightarrow V(\Gamma(R / I))$ defined by $\phi(x)=x+I$. It is easy to see that $\phi$ is graph homomorphism. Now let $x+I=y+I$. for some $\left.x, y \in V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(\operatorname{Ann}_{R}(I)\right)\right)\right)$. Then $x-y \in I$ and so $x-y \in I \cap A n n_{R}(I)=0$. Thus $x=x$. Therefore, $\phi$ is monic.
(c) Clearly, $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right) \subseteq V(\Gamma(R))$. Now let $x$ and $y$ be two adjacent elements of $V\left(\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$. Then $x y \in I$. Since $x+x y \in A n n_{R}(I), x+x y \notin I$, and $(x+x y) y \in I$, we have $x+x y$ is a vertex of $\left.\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)\right)$. Now as $\Gamma_{I}\left(A n n_{R}(I)\right)$ is a complete graph, $(x+x y) x \in I$ or $x+x y=x$. If $(x+x y) x \in I$, then $x^{2} \in I$. Since $R / I$ is reduced, $x \in I$, a contradiction. Therefore, $x+x y=x$ and so $x y=0$ as requested.

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