On Eulerianity and Hamiltonicity in Annihilating-ideal Graphs

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ABSTRACT. Let R be a commutative ring with identity, and A(R) be the set of ideals with non-zero annihilator. The annihilating-ideal graph of R is defined as the graph AG(R) with the vertex set $A(R)^* = A(R) \setminus \{0\}$ and two distinct vertices I and J are adjacent if and only if IJ = 0. In this paper, conditions under which AG(R) is either Eulerian or Hamiltonian are given.

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1. Introduction

Assigning a graph to an algebraic structure make a bridge between two different worlds of mathematics. Usually study of such graphs lead to arising interesting algebraic and combinatorics problems and one may find a new perception of algebraic structures. Therefore, the study of graphs associated with rings has attracted many researchers in recent years. There are a lot of papers in this field; for instance see [2, 3, 5, 8].

Throughout this paper, all rings are assumed to be commutative with identity. The set of all ideals of a ring R is denoted by I(R). For a subset T of

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a ring R we let $T^* = T \setminus \{0\}$. Furthermore, if I is an ideal of R, by Ann(I), we mean the annihilator of I. An ideal I of R is called an annihilating-ideal if there exists a non-zero ideal J such that IJ = 0. The notation A(R) is used to denote the set of all annihilating-ideals of R. The socle of a ring R, denoted by soc(R), is the sum of all minimal ideals of R. If there are no minimal ideals, this sum is defined to be zero. A ring R is said to be local if it has a unique maximal ideal. A local ring R with maximal ideal \mathfrak{m} is presented by (R,\mathfrak{m}) . Let (R,\mathfrak{m}) be a local ring. The associated degree of R is n if it is the smallest positive integer such that $\mathfrak{m}^n = 0$. If $\mathfrak{m}^n \neq 0$, for every $n \geq 1$, then we say that the associated degree of R is ∞ . For any undefined notation or terminology in ring theory, we refer the reader to [4].

We now recall some basic graph theoretic facts: Let G be a graph with the vertex set V(G). The size of G is denoted by e(G). We write u-v, to denote an edge with ends u, v. Also, a complete graph of order n is denoted by K_n . For any $x \in V(G)$, $N_G(x)$ represents the set of neighbors of x in G and $|N_G(x)| = deg_G(x)$. Let G_1 and G_2 be two disjoint graphs. The join of G_1 and G_2 , denoted by $G_1 \vee G_2$, is a graph with the vertex set $V(G_1 \vee G_2) = V(G_1) \cup V(G_2)$ and edge set $E(G_1 \vee G_2) = E(G_1) \cup E(G_2) \cup \{uv \mid u \in V(G_1), v \in V(G_2)\}$. An Eulerian circuit in an undirected graph is a circuit that uses each edge exactly once. If such a circuit exists, then the graph is called Eulerian. It is well-known that a connected graph G is Eulerian if and only if every vertex of G has even degree. Similarly, a Hamiltonian cycle is a cycle that visits each vertex exactly once. A graph that contains a Hamiltonian cycle is called a Hamiltonian graph. For any undefined notation or terminology in graph theory, we refer the reader to [9].

Let R be a ring. The annihilating-ideal graph of R, denoted by AG(R), is a graph with the vertex set $A(R)^*$ and two distinct vertices I and J are adjacent if and only if IJ = 0. The annihilating-ideal graph was first introduced in [6], and some of the properties of the annihilating-ideal graph have been studied. Further results on annihilating-ideal graphs may be found in [1, 7] and [10]. This paper is devoted to study Eulerian and Hamiltonian annihilating-ideal graphs.

2. Eulerianity of AG(R)

Throughout this section $R = R_1 \times R_2$ is a decomposable ring, $|I(R_1)| = t_1$ and $|I(R_2)| = t_2$, where t_1, t_2 are two positive integers. The main goal of this section is study the relations between the Eulerianity of AG(R) and Eulerianity of $AG(R_i)$, for i = 1, 2. First we need to compute the size of AG(R).

Theorem 2.1. Let R be a ring. Then e(AG(R)) = 2(x+a)(y+b) + (m+1)x + (1+n)y - ab + bn + am, where $a = t_1 - 1$, $b = t_2 - 1$, $e(AG(R_1)) = x$,

 $e(AG(R_2)) = y$, n is the number of non-trivial ideals I of R_1 with $I^2 = 0$ and m is the number of non-trivial ideals J of R_2 with $J^2 = 0$.

Proof. Suppose that (I, J) is a vertex of AG(R), where $I \in I(R_1)$ and $J \in I(R_2)$. To prove the theorem the following cases are considered:

Case 1. Let $I = R_1$ and $J \neq 0, R_2$.

(i) If
$$J^2 \neq 0$$
, then $deg_{AG(R)}(I, J) = deg_{AG(R_2)}(J)$, as

$$N_{AG(R)}((I,J)) = \{(0,J') \mid J' \in N_{AG(R_2)}(J)\}.$$

(ii) If
$$J^2 = 0$$
, then $deg_{AG(R)}(I, J) = deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + 1$, since

$$N_{AG(R)}((I,J)) = \{(0,J') \mid J' \in N_{AG(R_2)}(J)\} \cup \{(0_{R_1},J)\}.$$

Case 2. Let $I \neq 0, R_1$ and $J = R_2$.

- (i) If $I^2 \neq 0$, then $deg_{AG(R)}(I, J) = deg_{AG(R_1)}(I)$.
- (ii) If $I^2 = 0$, then $deg_{AG(R)}(I, J) = deg_{AG(R_1)}(I) + 1$.

Case 3. Let $I \neq 0, R_1$ and $J \neq 0, R_2$.

(i) If $I^2 \neq 0$ and $J^2 \neq 0$, then

$$deg_{AG(R)}(I,J) = (deg_{AG(R_1)}(I) + 1)(deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + 1) - 1,$$

as

$$N_{AG(R)}((I,J)) = \{(I',J') \mid I' \in \{0_{R_1}\} \cup N_{AG(R_1)}(I), J' \in \{0_{R_2}\} \cup N_{AG(R_2)}(J)\} \setminus \{(0_{R_1},0_{R_2})\}.$$

(ii) If $I^2 = 0$ and $J^2 \neq 0$, then

$$deg_{AG(R_1)}(I,J) = (deg_{AG(R_1)}(I) + 2)(deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + 1) - 1,$$

since

$$N_{AG(R)}((I,J)) = \{(I',J') \mid I' \in \{0_{R_1},I\} \cup N_{AG(R_1)}(I), J' \in \{0_{R_2}\} \cup N_{AG(R_2)}(J)\} \setminus \{(0_{R_1},0_{R_2})\}.$$

(iii) If $I^2 \neq 0$ and $J^2 = 0$, then

$$deg_{AG(R)}(I,J) = (deg_{AG(R_1)}(I) + 1)(deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + 2) - 1.$$

(iv) If $I^2 = 0$ and $J^2 = 0$, then

$$deg_{AG(R)}(I,J) = (deg_{AG(R_1)}(I) + 2)(deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + 2) - 2.$$

Case 4. Let I = 0 and $J \neq 0, R_2$.

(i) If $J^2 \neq 0$, then

$$deg_{AG(R)}(I,J) = t_1(deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + 1) - 1 = t_1deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + t_1 - 1,$$

since

$$N_{AG(R)}((I,J)) = \{(I',J') \mid I' \in I(R_1), J' \in \{0_{R_2}\} \cup N_{AG(R_2)}(J)\} \setminus \{(0_{R_1},0_{R_2})\}.$$

(ii) If
$$J^2 = 0$$
, then

$$deg_{AG(R)}(I, J) = t_1(deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + 2) - 2,$$

as

$$N_{AG(R)}((I,J)) = \{(I',J') \mid I' \in I(R_1), J' \in \{0_{R_2},J\} \cup N_{AG(R_2)}(J)\} \setminus \{(0_{R_1},0_{R_2}),(0_{R_1},J)\}.$$

Case 5. Let $I \neq 0, R_1$ and J = 0.

(i) If
$$I^2 \neq 0$$
, then $deg_{AG(R)}(I,J) = t_2(deg_{AG(R_1)}(I)+1)-1 = t_2deg_{AG(R_1)}(I)+t_2-1$.

(ii) If
$$I^2 = 0$$
, then $deg_{AG(R)}(I, J) = t_2(deg_{AG(R_1)}(I) + 2) - 2$.

Case 6. Let I = 0 and $J = R_2$. Then

$$deg_{AG(R)}(I,J) = t_1 - 1,$$

since
$$N_{AG(R)}((I,J)) = \{(I',0_{R_2}) \mid I' \in I(R_1)\} \setminus \{(0_{R_1},0_{R_2})\}.$$

Case 7. Let
$$I = R_1$$
 and $J = 0$. Then $deg_{AG(R)}(I, J) = t_2 - 1$.

Since the sum of the degrees of the vertices in the graph AG(R) is twice the number of edges of AG(R), the total number of edges of AG(R) is

$$e(AG(R)) = 2(x+a)(y+b) + (m+1)x + (1+n)y - ab + bn + am,$$

where $a = t_1 - 1$, $b = t_2 - 1$, $e(AG(R_1)) = x$, $e(AG(R_2)) = y$, n is the number of non-trivial ideals I of R_1 with $I^2 = 0$ and m is the number of non-trivial ideals J of R_2 with $J^2 = 0$.

In light of Theorem 2.1, we have the following corollary.

Corollary 2.2. The graph $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is not Eulerian, for every positive integer n.

Proof. If $n \leq 5$, then there is nothing to prove. Hence assume that $n \geq 6$. If $(\mathbb{Z}_n, \mathfrak{m})$ is a local ring of associated degree $l \geq 3$, then $deg(\mathfrak{m}) = 1$, as $N(\mathfrak{m}) = \{\mathfrak{m}^{l-1}\}$. If $\mathfrak{m}^2 = 0$, clearly $n = p^2$, for some prime number p. So $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n) = K_1$. Thus $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is not Eulerian. Now, suppose that \mathbb{Z}_n is not local. If $\mathbb{Z}_n = F_1 \times \cdots \times F_k$, where every F_i is a field, then $deg(F_1 \times \cdots \times F_{k-1} \times 0) = 1$ and so $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is not Eulerian. Therefore, we may assume that $\mathbb{Z}_n = R_1 \times R_2$, where (R_1, \mathfrak{m}) is local which is not a field. To complete the proof, it is enough to show that $deg(\mathfrak{m}, R_2) = 1$. If $\mathfrak{m}^2 \neq 0$, then by (i) of $Case\ 2$ in the proof of Theorem 2.1, $deg(\mathfrak{m}, R_2) = deg(\mathfrak{m}) = 1$. If $\mathfrak{m}^2 = 0$, then by (ii) of $Case\ 2$ in the proof of Theorem 2.1, $deg(\mathfrak{m}, R_2) = deg(\mathfrak{m}) + 1 = 1$, as desired.

To prove Theorem 2.7, the following lemmas are needed.

Lemma 2.3. Suppose that $I \in I(R_1)$ and $I^2 = 0$. If AG(R) is Eulerian, then $AG(R_1)$ is not Eulerian.

Proof. Suppose that AG(R) is Eulerian. Then $deg_{AG(R)}(I, R_2) = deg_{AG(R_1)}(I) + 1$ is even (by (ii) of $Case\ 2$ in the proof of Theorem 2.1). Thus $deg_{AG(R_1)}(I)$ is odd and hence $AG(R_1)$ is not Eulerian.

The converse of Lemma 2.3 is not true in general, see the following example.

EXAMPLE 2.4. Let $R_1 = \mathbb{Z}_{16}$. Obviously, $AG(R_1)$ is not Eulerian $(AG(R_1) = K_{1,2})$. Moreover, if we let $R = \mathbb{Z}_{16} \times \mathbb{Z}_3$, then AG(R) is not Eulerian too, as $deg_{AG(R)}(\mathbb{Z}_{16}, 0_{R_2}) = 1$.

By a similar argument, one may prove the following lemma.

Lemma 2.5. Suppose that $J \in I(R_2)$ and $J^2 = 0$. If AG(R) is Eulerian, then $AG(R_2)$ is not Eulerian.

Remark 2.6. Let (I, J) be a vertex of AG(R), where $I \in I(R_1)$ and $J \in I(R_2)$. By Lemmas 2.3 and 2.5, if either $I^2 = 0$ or $J^2 = 0$, then the Eulerianity of AG(R) does not imply the Eulerianity of $AG(R_i)$, for i = 1, 2. Thus we suppose that $I^2 \neq 0$ and $J^2 \neq 0$. It is worthy to mention that if $I^2 \neq 0$ and $J^2 \neq 0$, then by Theorem 2.1, the degrees of the vertices are in the following forms:

- (1) $t_1 deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + t_1 1$ and $t_2 deg_{AG(R_1)}(I) + t_2 1$.
- (2) $t_1 1$ and $t_2 1$.
- (3) $deg_{AG(R_2)}(J)$ and $deg_{AG(R_1)}(I)$.
- (4) $(deg_{AG(R_1)}(I) + 1)(deg_{AG(R_2)}(J) + 1) 1.$

Theorem 2.7. Let AG(R) be Eulerian and $I^2 \neq 0$, $J^2 \neq 0$, for every vertex (I, J) of AG(R). Then both of $AG(R_1)$ and $AG(R_2)$ are Eulerian.

Proof. Let AG(R) be Eulerian. Then the degree of every vertex of AG(R) is even and so by form (3) in Remark 2.6, $deg_{AG(R_1)}(I)$ and $deg_{AG(R_2)}(J)$ are even (for non-trivial ideals I of R_1 and J of R_2). Hence both of $AG(R_1)$ and $AG(R_2)$ are Eulerian.

The converse of Theorem 2.7 is not true in general. For example, suppose that t_1 and t_2 are even. If $AG(R_1)$ and $AG(R_2)$ are Eulerian, then forms (3) and (4) in Remark 2.6 are even but forms (1) and (2) are odd and hence AG(R) is not Eulerian.

The last result of this section gives a condition under which the Eulerianity of $AG(R_1)$ and $AG(R_2)$ implies the Eulerianity of AG(R).

Theorem 2.8. Let $AG(R_i)$ be Eulerian, for i = 1, 2. Then AG(R) is Eulerian if and only if t_1 and t_2 are odd.

Proof. First suppose that t_1 and t_2 are odd and (I,J) is a vertex of AG(R). Since $AG(R_1)$ and $AG(R_2)$ are Eulerian, we deduce that $deg_{AG(R_1)}(I)$ and $deg_{AG(R_2)}(J)$ are even and hence forms (3) and (4) in Remark 2.6 are even. By the hypothesis, t_1 and t_2 are odd and so a simple check shows that forms (1) and (2) are even. Therefore, AG(R) is Eulerian.

Conversely, suppose that AG(R) is Eulerian. Then form (2) is even, i.e., t_1 and t_2 are odd.

3. Hamiltonicity of AG(R)

In this section Hamiltonian annihilating-ideal graphs are investigated. It is assumed that, in this section, R is Artinian and hence every ideal of R is annihilating. First it is shown that annihilating-ideal graph of a decomposable ring is not Hamiltonian.

Theorem 3.1. If R is a decomposable ring, then AG(R) is not Hamiltonian.

Proof. Let $R = R_1 \times R_2$, where R_1 and R_2 are two rings. We consider the following cases:

Case 1. Suppose $|I(R_1)| = |I(R_2)| = 2$. Then $AG(R) = K_2$ and so it is not Hamiltonian.

Case 2. Suppose $|I(R_1)| \ge 3$ and $|I(R_2)| = 2$. Then $N_{AG(R)}((R_1 \times 0)) = \{0 \times R_2\}$ and so $deg_{AG(R)}(R_1 \times 0) = 1$. Hence AG(R) does not contain a Hamiltonian cycle.

Case 3. Suppose $|I(R_1)| \ge 3$ and $|I(R_2)| \ge 3$. Set

$$A = \{I \times R_2 \mid I \triangleleft R_1\}, B = \{J \times 0 \mid 0 \neq J \triangleleft R_1\}.$$

It is clear that $A \cup B \subseteq V(AG(R))$ and |A| = |B|. Suppose to the contrary, C is a Hamiltonian cycle of AG(R). Thus every vertex of A is between two vertices of B (in C). Since $V(AG(R)) \setminus (A \cup B) \neq \emptyset$, we deduce that |A| < |B|, a contradiction. Hence AG(R) is not Hamiltonian.

By Theorem 3.1, to find Hamiltonian annihilating ideal graphs we have to study local rings.

Remark 3.2. Let (R, \mathfrak{m}) be a local ring of associated degree n. If \mathfrak{m} is principal, then by [4, Proposition 8.8], $I(R) = \{0, R, \mathfrak{m}, \mathfrak{m}^2, \dots, \mathfrak{m}^{n-1}\}$ and so $deg_{AG(R)}(\mathfrak{m}) = 1$, i.e., AG(R) is not Hamiltonian. If we remove \mathfrak{m} from AG(R), then $AG(R) \setminus \{\mathfrak{m}\}$ contains exactly one Hamiltonian cycle; see the next result.

Theorem 3.3. Let (R, \mathfrak{m}) be a local ring of associated degree n. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) \mathfrak{m} is principal and $|I(R)| \geq 6$.
- (2) If n is odd, then $\mathfrak{m}^{n-1} \mathfrak{m}^2 \mathfrak{m}^{n-2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}^{[n/2]} \mathfrak{m}^{n-[n/2]} \mathfrak{m}^{n-1}$ is the only Hamiltonian cycle of $AG(R) \setminus \{\mathfrak{m}\}$ and if n is even, then $\mathfrak{m}^{n-1} \mathfrak{m}^2 \mathfrak{m}^{n-2} \cdots \mathfrak{m}^{[n/2]} \mathfrak{m}^{n-1}$ is the only Hamiltonian cycle of $AG(R) \setminus \{\mathfrak{m}\}$.
 - (3) $I(R) = \{0, R, \mathfrak{m}, \mathfrak{m}^2, \dots, \mathfrak{m}^{n-1}\}, n \ge 6.$

We note that the condition $|I(R)| \ge 6$ in Theorem 3.3 is necessary. If $|I(R)| \le 5$, then it is not hard to check that AG(R) is one of K_1, K_2 or $K_{1,2}$ and so it is not Hamiltonian.

Corollary 3.4. The following statements hold:

- (1) The graph $AG(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ is not Hamiltonian, for every positive integer n.
- (2) Let m be a positive integer. Then $AG(\mathbb{Z}_{p^m}) \setminus \{\mathfrak{m}\}$ has a Hamiltonian cycle if and only if $m \geq 6$.

Let R be a ring and I be an ideal of R. We denote by A(I) the set of all ideals of R which are contained in I.

Theorem 3.5. Let (R, \mathfrak{m}) be a local ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) $AG(R) = K_n \vee \overline{K}_m$ for some non-negative integers n, m.
- (2) For every ideal I of R, either $Ann(I) \subseteq Soc(R) \cup I$ or $Ann(I) = \mathfrak{m}$.

Proof. (1) \Longrightarrow (2) Let $AG(R) = K_n \vee \overline{K}_m$. If m = 0, then AG(R) is a complete graph. Thus for every ideal of R say, I, $\operatorname{Ann}(I) \subseteq \operatorname{Soc}(R)$ (note that in this case $\operatorname{Soc}(R) = \mathfrak{m}$). So let $m \neq 0$ and I be a vertex of AG(R). Since $AG(R) = K_n \vee \overline{K}_m$, $I \in V(K_n)$ or $I \in V(\overline{K}_m)$. If $I \in V(K_n)$, then I is adjacent to every other vertex and thus IJ = (0) for every $I(R) \setminus \{I\}$. This implies that $\operatorname{Ann}(I) \cup I = \mathfrak{m}$. Hence $I \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(I)$ or $\operatorname{Ann}(I) \subseteq I$. If $\operatorname{Ann}(I) \subseteq I$, then $I = \mathfrak{m}$ and hence \mathfrak{m} is adjacent to every other vertex. This means that $\mathfrak{m} = \operatorname{Ann}(\mathfrak{m})$. Thus AG(R) is a complete graph, a contradiction. So $I \subseteq \operatorname{Ann}(I)$ and hence $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = \mathfrak{m}$. If $I \in V(\overline{K}_m)$, then $\operatorname{Ann}(I) \in V(K_n) \cup \{I\}$. To complete the proof, we show that $V(K_n) = A(\operatorname{Soc}(R))$. If $I \in A(\operatorname{Soc}(R))$, then $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = \mathfrak{m}$ and thus I is adjacent to every other vertex. This implies that $I \in V(K_n)$ and hence $A(\operatorname{Soc}(R)) \subseteq V(K_n)$. Now, let $I \in V(K_n)$. Since I is adjacent to every other vertex, we can easily get $\operatorname{Ann}(I) = \mathfrak{m}$ and so $I \in A(\operatorname{Soc}(R))$.

(2)
$$\Longrightarrow$$
 (1) If we put $|A(Soc(R))| = n$ and $|A(R)^* \setminus A(Soc(R))| = m$, then $AG(R) = K_n \vee \overline{K}_m$.

Corollary 3.6. Let (R, \mathfrak{m}) be a local ring and $AG(R) = K_n \vee \overline{K}_m$, for some non-negative integers n, m. Then AG(R) is Hamiltonian if and only if $n \geq m$.

We close this paper with the following example.

Example 3.7. (1) If $R = \frac{\mathbb{Z}_2[x,y]}{(x,y)^2}$, then $AG(R) = K_4 \vee \overline{K}_0$. Since 4 > 0, AG(R) is Hamiltonian.

(2) If $R = \mathbb{Z}_{16}$, then $AG(R) = K_1 \vee \overline{K}_2$. Since 2 > 1, AG(R) is not Hamiltonian.

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