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# SOME REMARKS ON THE COMPLEMENT OF THE ARMENDARIZ GRAPH OF A COMMUTATIVE RING

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## Abstract

Let R be a commutative ring with identity which is not an integral domain. Let Z(R) denote the set of all zero-divisors of R. Recall from [1] that the Armendariz graph of R denoted by A(R) is an undirected graph whose vertex set is  $Z(R[X]) \setminus \{0\}$  and distinct vertices  $f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i X^i$ and  $g(X) = \sum_{j=0}^{m} b_j X^j$  are adjacent in A(R) if and only if  $a_i b_j = 0$  for all  $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$  and  $j \in \{0, \ldots, m\}$ . The aim of this article is to study the interplay between the graph-theoretic properties of the complement of A(R), that is,  $(A(R))^c$  and the ring-theoretic properties of R.

**Keywords:** B-prime of (0), complement of the zero-divisor graph, diameter, domination number, maximal N-prime of (0), radius.

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### 1. INTRODUCTION

The rings considered in this article are commutative with identity which are not integral domains. Let R be a ring. Let us denote the set of all non-zero zerodivisors of R, that is,  $Z(R) \setminus \{0\}$  by  $Z(R)^*$ . The study of interplay between ring theory and graph theory began with the research work of Beck [8]. Recall from [2] that the zero-divisor graph of R, denoted by  $\Gamma(R)$  is an undirected graph whose vertex set is  $Z(R)^*$  and distinct vertices x, y are adjacent in  $\Gamma(R)$  if and only if xy = 0. For an inspiring and excellent survey on the zero-divisor graphs of commutative rings, the reader is referred to [3].

This article is motivated by the interesting results proved on the Armendariz graph of a commutative ring in [1]. For a ring R, we denote the polynomial ring in one variable X over R by R[X]. Recall from [1] that the Armendariz graph of a ring R, denoted by A(R) is an undirected graph whose vertex set is  $Z(R[X])^*$  and distinct vertices  $f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i X^i$  and  $g(X) = \sum_{j=0}^{m} b_j X^j$  are adjacent in A(R) if and only if  $a_i b_j = 0$  for all  $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$  and  $j \in \{0, \ldots, m\}$ . Recall from [17] that a ring R is said to be Armendariz if  $f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i X^i$ ,  $g(X) = \sum_{j=0}^{m} b_j X^j \in R[X]$  are such that f(X)g(X) = 0, then  $a_i b_j = 0$  for all  $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$  and  $j \in \{0, \ldots, m\}$ . It was already observed in [1, Example 1] that if R is an Armendariz ring, then  $A(R) = \Gamma(R[X])$ . A ring R is said to be reduced if R has no non-zero nilpotent element. It is clear that any reduced ring is Armendariz and so, for a reduced ring R,  $A(R) = \Gamma(R[X])$ . In Section 2 of [1], several Examples of A(R) were given and in [1, Theorem 1] necessary and sufficient conditions were determined for A(R) to be complete. It was proved in [1, Theorem 2] that there exists  $f(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  such that f(X) is adjacent in A(R) to every other vertex of A(R) if and only if Z(R) is an annihilator ideal of R.

The graphs considered in this article are undirected and simple. Let G = (V, E) be a simple graph. As in [7], we denote the complement of G by  $G^c$ . Let R be a ring such that  $Z(R)^* \neq \emptyset$ . For a graph G, we denote the vertex set of G by V(G) and the edge set of G by E(G). Notice that  $V((A(R))^c) = V((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = Z(R[X])^*$ . Let  $f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i X^i$  and  $g(X) = \sum_{j=0}^m b_j X^j \in Z(R[X])^*$  be distinct. Observe that if f(X) and g(X) are adjacent in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ , then  $f(X)g(X) \neq 0$  and so,  $a_i b_j \neq 0$  for some  $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$  and  $j \in \{0, \ldots, m\}$ . Hence, f(X) and g(X) are adjacent in  $(A(R))^c$ . The above observations imply that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ . In [18, 19], the graph-theoretic properties of  $(\Gamma(R))^c$  were studied.

We denote the set of all prime ideals of a ring R by Spec(R) and the set of all maximal ideals of R by Max(R). Let I be an ideal of R with  $I \neq R$ . Recall from [13] that  $\mathfrak{p} \in Spec(R)$  is said to be a maximal N-prime of I if  $\mathfrak{p}$  is maximal with respect to the property of being contained in  $Z_R(\frac{R}{I}) = \{r \in R \mid rx \in I$ for some  $x \in R \setminus I\}$ . Hence,  $\mathfrak{p} \in Spec(R)$  is a maximal N-prime of (0) if  $\mathfrak{p}$  is maximal with respect to the property of being contained in Z(R). Let  $x \in Z(R)$ . Then the multiplicatively closed subset  $S = R \setminus Z(R)$  of R is such that  $Rx \cap S = \emptyset$ . Hence, we obtain from Zorn's lemma and [14, Theorem 1] that there exists a maximal N-prime  $\mathfrak{p}$  of (0) in R such that  $x \in \mathfrak{p}$ . It now follows that if  $\{\mathfrak{p}_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ is the set of all maximal N-primes of (0) in R, then  $Z(R) = \bigcup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} \mathfrak{p}_{\alpha}$ . It is now clear that R has a unique maximal N-prime of (0) if and only if Z(R) is an ideal of R. Let I be an ideal of R with  $I \neq R$ . Recall from [12] that  $\mathfrak{p} \in Spec(R)$  is said to be an associated prime of I in the sense of Bourbaki if  $\mathfrak{p} = (I :_R x)$  for some  $x \in R$ . In such a case, we say that  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a B-prime of I. For basic definitions and concepts from graph theory that are used in this article, one can refer any standard textbook in Graph Theory (for example, see [7, 9]).

This article consists of three sections including the introduction. In Section 2 of this paper, for a ring R with  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ , we discuss some results on the connectedness of  $(A(R))^c$ . In Propositions 2.3 and 2.5, necessary and sufficient conditions are determined in order that  $(A(R))^c$  to be connected. If  $(A(R))^c$  is connected, then the diameter and the radius of  $(A(R))^c$  are determined (see Propositions 2.3, 2.6, 2.7, and 2.8). Let R be a ring such that  $(A(R))^c$  is connected. It is proved in Theorem 2.12 that for any finite non-empty subset S of  $(Z(R[X]))^*$ ,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c - S$  is connected and so,  $(A(R))^c - S$  is connected and it is deduced in Corollary 2.13 that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  (respectively,  $(A(R))^c)$  does not admit any cut vertex.

In Section 3 of this paper, some more properties of  $(A(R))^c$  are proved. For a graph G, we denote the girth of G by gr(G). We set  $gr(G) = \infty$  if G does not contain any cycle. It is proved in Proposition 3.5 that  $gr((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) =$  $gr((A(R))^c) \in \{3, \infty\}$  and moreover, necessary and sufficient conditions are determined such that  $(A(R))^c$  does not contain any cycle. Some results on the domination number of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  (respectively,  $(A(R))^c$ ) are also proved in Section 3 (see Proposition 3.9 and Theorem 3.10). We denote the clique number of a graph G by  $\omega(G)$ . Section 3 also contains some results on  $\omega((A(R))^c)$  (see Corollary 3.17 and Proposition 3.18). In Corollary 3.19, it is proved that  $(A(R))^c$ is planar if and only if  $(A(R))^c$  has no edges.

For any  $n \geq 2$ , we denote the ring of integers modulo n by  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ . The cardinality of a set A is denoted by |A|. For sets A, B, if A is a proper subset of B, then we denote it by  $A \subset B$ . The group of units of a ring R is denoted by U(R). We use the abbreviation f.g. for finitely generated.

## 2. On the connectedness of $(A(R))^c$

For a connected graph G, we denote the diameter of G by diam(G) and the radius of G by r(G). Let R be a ring with  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . In this section, we discuss some results on the connectedness of  $(A(R))^c$  and we determine  $diam((A(R))^c)$  and  $r((A(R))^c)$  in the case when  $(A(R))^c$  is connected.

**Lemma 2.1.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . Then  $Z(R[X])^*$  is infinite.

**Proof.** As R[X] is infinite and is not an integral domain, it follows from [10, Theorem 1] that  $Z(R[X])^*$  is infinite.

Let R be a ring. In Proposition 2.3 with the assumption that Z(R) is an ideal of R, we determine necessary and sufficient conditions in order that  $(A(R))^c$  to be connected. We use Lemma 2.2 in the proof of the moreover part of Proposition 2.3.

**Lemma 2.2.** Let G = (V, E) be a simple graph with  $|V| \ge 2$ . If both G and  $G^c$  are connected, then  $r(G^c) \ge 2$  and  $r(G) \ge 2$ .

**Proof.** Notice that  $V(G) = V(G^c) = V$ . As G is connected and  $|V| \ge 2$  by hypothesis, we obtain from [19, Lemma 2.1] that  $e(a) \ge 2$  in  $G^c$  for each  $a \in V$ . Hence,  $r(G^c) \ge 2$ . As G is the complement of  $G^c$  and  $G^c$  is connected by hypothesis, it follows that  $r(G) \ge 2$ .

**Proposition 2.3.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . Let  $\mathfrak{p}$  be the unique maximal N-prime of (0) in R. The following statements are equivalent:

- (1)  $(A(R))^c$  is connected.
- (2)  $\mathfrak{p}$  is not a *B*-prime of (0) in *R*.
- (3)  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected.

Moreover, if the statement (1) holds, then

$$diam((A(R))^{c}) = diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^{c}) = r((A(R))^{c}) = r((\Gamma(R[X]))^{c}) = 2.$$

**Proof.** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) Suppose that  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a B-prime of (0) in R. Then there exists  $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $\mathfrak{p} = ((0) :_R r)$ . It is clear that  $r \in \mathfrak{p}$  and  $\mathfrak{p}[X] = ((0) :_{R[X]} r)$ . We know from the proof of [18, Proposition 2.2(ii)] that  $Z(R[X]) = \mathfrak{p}[X]$ . Let g(X) = r. Let  $h(X) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i X^i \in Z(R[X])^*$  with  $h(X) \neq g(X)$ . As  $a_i \in \mathfrak{p}$  for each  $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$ , it follows that  $a_i g(X) = a_i r = 0$  for each  $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$ . This shows that g(X) is an isolated vertex of  $(A(R))^c$ . As  $Z(R[X])^*$  is infinite and  $(A(R))^c$  admits an isolated vertex, we obtain that  $(A(R))^c$  is not connected. This is in contradiction to the assumption that  $(A(R))^c$  is connected. Therefore,  $\mathfrak{p}$  is not a B-prime of (0) in R.

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3) Let  $a \in Z(R)^*$ . As  $Z(R) = \mathfrak{p}$  is not a B-prime of (0) in Rand ((0) :<sub>R</sub> a)  $\subseteq Z(R)$ , we get that  $\mathfrak{p} \not\subseteq$  ((0) :<sub>R</sub> a). Let  $b \in \mathfrak{p}$  such that  $ab \neq 0$ . If a = ab, then from a(1-b) = 0, it follows that  $1-b \in \mathfrak{p}$ . In such a case,  $1 = b + 1 - b \in \mathfrak{p}$ . This is a contradiction. Therefore,  $a \neq ab$  and so,  $|Z(R)^*| \geq 2$ . Since  $\mathfrak{p}$  is not a B-prime of (0) in R, it follows from [18, Lemma 1.5] that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected and  $diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) \leq 2$ .

 $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$  As  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$  and  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected by assumption, we get that  $(A(R))^c$  is connected.

Assume that the statement (1) holds. We know from the proof of  $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$  of this proposition that  $diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) \leq 2$ . Hence,  $diam((A(R))^c) \leq 2$ . It

follows from [1, Theorem 4] (respectively, [2, Theorem 2.3]) and Lemma 2.2 that  $r((A(R))^c) \geq 2$  (respectively,  $r((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) \geq 2$ ). Therefore, we obtain that  $diam((A(R))^c) = diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = r((A(R))^c) = r((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

A ring R is said to be quasi-local if |Max(R)| = 1. A Noetherian quasi-local ring is referred to as a local ring. The Krull dimension of a ring R is simply referred to as the dimension of R and is denoted by dimR. Example 2.4 is provided to illustrate Proposition 2.3.

**Example 2.4.** Let  $(V, \mathfrak{m})$  be a rank one valuation domain which is not discrete. Let  $m \in \mathfrak{m} \setminus \{0\}$ . Let  $R = \frac{V}{Vm}$ . Let  $\mathfrak{p} = \frac{\mathfrak{m}}{Vm}$ . Let T = R(+)R be the ring obtained by using Nagata's principle of idealization. Then the following statements hold:

- (1)  $\mathfrak{p}(+)R$  is the unique maximal N-prime of the zero ideal in T but it is not a B-prime of the zero ideal in T.
- (2)  $(A(T))^c$  is connected and  $diam((A(T))^c) = r((A(T))^c) = 2$ .
- (3)  $(A(T))^c \neq (\Gamma(T[X]))^c$ .

**Proof.** (1) We know from the proof of [18, Example 3.1(ii)] that  $\mathfrak{p}$  is the unique maximal N-prime of the zero ideal in R and  $\mathfrak{p}$  is not a B-prime of the zero ideal in R. As R is quasi-local with  $\mathfrak{p}$  as its unique maximal ideal, it follows that T = R(+)R is quasi-local with  $\mathfrak{p}(+)R$  as its unique maximal ideal. Hence,  $Z(T) \subseteq \mathfrak{p}(+)R$ . Let  $(r,s) \in \mathfrak{p}(+)R$ . Notice that  $r \in \mathfrak{p} = Z(R)$  and so,  $(r, 0+Vm) \in Z(T)$ . Now, (r,s) = (r, 0+Vm) + (0+Vm,s) and  $(0+Vm,s)^2 = (0+Vm, 0+Vm)$ . From [15, Lemma 2.3], we get that  $(r,s) \in Z(T)$ . Therefore,  $\mathfrak{p}(+)R \subseteq Z(T)$  and so,  $Z(T) = \mathfrak{p}(+)R$ . This shows that  $\mathfrak{p}(+)R$  is the unique maximal N-prime of the zero ideal in T. From  $\mathfrak{p}$  is not a B-prime of zero ideal in R, it follows that  $\mathfrak{p}(+)R$  is not a B-prime of the zero ideal in T.

(2) It follows from (1) of this example and (2)  $\Rightarrow$  (1) of Proposition 2.3 that  $(A(T))^c$  is connected and from the moreover part of Proposition 2.3, we get that  $diam((A(T))^c) = r((A(T))^c) = 2.$ 

(3) As  $Spec(V) = \{(0), \mathfrak{m}\}$ , it follows from [5, Proposition 1.14] that for each  $a \in \mathfrak{m} \setminus \{0\}, \sqrt{Va} = \mathfrak{m}$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}$  is not principal, it follows that  $\mathfrak{m} \neq Vm$ . Let  $a \in \mathfrak{m} \setminus Vm$ . Since the set of ideals of V is linearly ordered by inclusion, we get that  $m \in Va$ . Therefore, m = av for some  $v \in \mathfrak{m}$ . Notice that  $\sqrt{Va} = \sqrt{Vm} = \mathfrak{m}$ . Let  $n \geq 2$  be least with the property that  $a^n \in Vm$ . Then  $a^{n-1} \notin Vm$  but  $(a^{n-1})^2 \in Vm$ . Let  $f(X), g(X) \in T[X]$  be given by  $f(X) = (a^{n-1} + Vm, v + Vm) + (a^{n-1} + Vm, 1 + Vm)X$  and  $g(X) = (a^{n-1} + Vm, 0 + Vm) + (a^{n-1} + Vm, 1 + Vm)X$ . Since  $a \notin U(V)$ , it follows that  $v \notin Vm$  and so,  $f(X) \neq g(X)$ . Using the facts that  $(a^{n-1})^2 \in Vm$  and  $a^{n-1}v \in Vm$ , it can be verified that f(X)g(X) = (0 + Vm, 0 + Vm). Hence, f(X) and g(X) are not adjacent in  $(\Gamma(T[X]))^c$ . It can be verified that the product of the constant term of f(X) and

the coefficient of X in g(X) equals  $(0 + Vm, -a^{n-1} + Vm) \neq (0 + Vm, 0 + Vm)$ and so, f(X) and g(X) are adjacent in  $(A(T))^c$ . Therefore, we obtain that  $(A(T))^c \neq (\Gamma(T[X]))^c$ .

Let R be a ring such that R has exactly two maximal N-primes of (0). In Proposition 2.5, we determine necessary and sufficient conditions for  $(A(R))^c$  to be connected.

**Proposition 2.5.** Let R be a ring such that  $\{\mathfrak{p}_i \mid i \in \{1,2\}\}$  is the set of all maximal N-primes of (0) in R. The following statements are equivalent:

- (1)  $(A(R))^c$  is connected.
- (2)  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{2} \mathfrak{p}_i \neq (0).$
- (3)  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected.

**Proof.** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) Suppose that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{2} \mathfrak{p}_i = (0)$ . Then R is reduced. Hence,  $A(R) = \Gamma(R[X])$  and so,  $(A(R))^c = (\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ . From  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected, we obtain from [18, Proposition 2.6(i)] that  $(\Gamma(R))^c$  is connected. It now follows from [18, Proposition 1.7(i)] that  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{2} \mathfrak{p}_i \neq (0)$ . This is a contradiction and so,  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{2} \mathfrak{p}_i \neq (0)$ .

(2)  $\Rightarrow$  (3) As  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{2} \mathfrak{p}_i \neq$  (0) by assumption, it follows from [18, Proposition 1.7(i)] that  $(\Gamma(R))^c$  is connected and we know from [18, Proposition 2.6(i)] that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected.

 $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$  We are assuming that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected. As  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ , we obtain that  $(A(R))^c$  is connected.

**Proposition 2.6.** Let  $R, \mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2$  be as in the statement of Proposition 2.5. If  $(A(R))^c$  is connected, then the following statements hold:

- (1)  $2 \leq diam((A(R))^c) \leq diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) \leq 3$ . If  $diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ , then  $diam((A(R))^c) = 2$ .
- (2)  $diam((A(R))^c) = 3$  if and only if  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  is a B-prime of (0) in R for each  $i \in \{1,2\}$ .

**Proof.** We are assuming that  $(A(R))^c$  is connected.

(1) From the proof of  $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$  of Proposition 2.5, we get that  $(\Gamma(R))^c$  is connected and  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected. We know from [18, Proposition 1.7(ii)] that  $2 \leq diam((\Gamma(R))^c) \leq 3$  and  $diam((\Gamma(R))^c) = 3$  if and only if  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  is a Bprime of (0) in R for each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ . Moreover, we obtain from [18, Proposition 2.6(ii)] that  $diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = diam((\Gamma(R))^c) \in \{2, 3\}$ . It follows from [1, Theorem 4] and Lemma 2.2 that  $r((A(R))^c) \geq 2$  and so,  $2 \leq diam((A(R))^c)$ . As  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ , it follows that  $diam((A(R))^c) \leq$  $diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c)$ . Therefore, we get that  $2 \leq diam((A(R))^c) \leq diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) \leq 3$ . If  $diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ , then it is clear that  $diam((A(R))^c) = 2$ .

(2) If  $diam((A(R))^c) = 3$ , then  $diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 3$ . Hence, it follows from the proof of (1) that  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  is a B-prime of (0) in R for each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ . Conversely, assume that  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  is a B-prime of (0) in R for each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ . Let  $u, v \in R \setminus \{0\}$  be such that  $\mathfrak{p}_1 = ((0) :_R u)$  and  $\mathfrak{p}_2 = ((0) :_R v)$ . It is clear that  $\mathfrak{p}_1[X] = ((0) :_{R[X]} u)$ and  $\mathfrak{p}_2[X] = ((0) :_{R[X]} v)$ . We know from the proof of [18, Proposition 2.6 (ii)(b)] that  $Z(R[X]) = \bigcup_{i=1}^2 \mathfrak{p}_i[X]$ . We claim that  $d(u, v) \geq 3$  in  $(A(R))^c$ . From [8, Lemma 3.6], we get that uv = 0. Hence, u and v are not adjacent in  $(A(R))^c$ . Let  $h(X) \in Z(R[X])^* \setminus \{u, v\}$ . Either  $h(X) \in \mathfrak{p}_1[X]$  or  $h(X) \in \mathfrak{p}_2[X]$ . If  $h(X) \in \mathfrak{p}_1[X]$ , then h(X)u = 0 and so, u and h(X) are not adjacent in  $(A(R))^c$ . If  $h(X) \in \mathfrak{p}_2[X]$ , then h(X)v = 0 and so, h(X) and v are not adjacent in  $(A(R))^c$ . This shows that there exists no path of length two between u and v in  $(A(R))^c$ . Therefore,  $d(u, v) \geq 3$  in  $(A(R))^c$  and hence,  $diam((A(R))^c) \geq 3$ . From  $diam((A(R))^c) \leq 3$ , we obtain that  $diam((A(R))^c) = 3$ .

**Proposition 2.7.** Let R be a ring such that R admits at least three maximal N-primes of (0). Then both  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  and  $(A(R))^c$  are connected and  $diam((A(R))^c) = diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

**Proof.** By hypothesis, R has at least three maximal N-primes of (0). It follows from [18, Proposition 2.8] that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected with  $diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) =$ 2. Since  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ , we obtain that  $(A(R))^c$ is connected and  $diam((A(R))^c) \leq 2$ . It follows from [1, Theorem 4] and Lemma 2.2 that  $r((A(R))^c) \geq 2$  and so,  $2 \leq diam((A(R))^c)$ . Therefore, both  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ and  $(A(R))^c$  are connected with  $diam((A(R))^c) = diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

**Proposition 2.8.** Let R be a ring such that R has at least two maximal N-primes of (0). If  $(A(R))^c$  is connected, then  $r((A(R))^c) = r((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

**Proof.** Suppose that  $(A(R))^c$  is connected. It is already noted in the proof of Proposition 2.6(1) and Proposition 2.7 that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected and  $r((A(R))^c) \geq 2$ . We know from [19, Theorem 2.5] that  $r((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ . Since  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ , it follows that  $r((A(R))^c) \leq 2$  and so,  $r((A(R))^c) = r((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

We provide Examples 2.9, 2.10, and 2.11 to illustrate Propositions 2.5, 2.6, 2.7, and 2.8.

**Example 2.9.** Let T be as in Example 2.4 and let  $S = T \times \mathbb{Z}_8$  be the direct product of rings T and  $\mathbb{Z}_8$ . Then the following statements hold:

- (1) S has exactly two maximal N-primes of its zero ideal.
- (2)  $(A(S))^c$  is connected with  $diam((A(S))^c) = r((A(S))^c) = 2$ .

(3)  $(A(S))^c \neq (\Gamma(S[X]))^c$ .

**Proof.** In the notation of Example 2.4, T = R(+)R is quasi-local with  $Z(T) = \mathfrak{p}(+)R$  as its unique maximal ideal.

(1) Notice that  $Z(S) = (Z(T) \times \mathbb{Z}_8) \cup (T \times Z(\mathbb{Z}_8)) = ((\mathfrak{p}(+)R) \times \mathbb{Z}_8) \cup (T \times 2\mathbb{Z}_8)$ . Let  $\mathfrak{p}_1 = (\mathfrak{p}(+)R) \times \mathbb{Z}_8$  and let  $\mathfrak{p}_2 = T \times 2\mathbb{Z}_8$ . Observe that  $\mathfrak{p}_i \in Max(S)$  for each  $i \in \{1, 2\}, \ \mathfrak{p}_1 \neq \mathfrak{p}_2$ , and  $Z(S) = \bigcup_{i=1}^2 \mathfrak{p}_i$ . Therefore, we get that  $\{\mathfrak{p}_i \mid i \in \{1, 2\}\}$  is the set of all maximal N-primes of the zero ideal in S.

(2) As  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{2} \mathfrak{p}_i = (\mathfrak{p}(+)R) \times 2\mathbb{Z}_8$  is not the zero ideal of S, we obtain from  $(2) \Rightarrow (1)$  of Proposition 2.5 that  $(A(S))^c$  is connected. It is already observed in the proof of Example 2.4 that  $\mathfrak{p}(+)R$  is not a B-prime of the zero ideal in T and hence, we obtain that  $\mathfrak{p}_1$  is not a B-prime of the zero ideal in S. Therefore, it follows from Proposition 2.6(1) and (2) that  $diam((A(S))^c) = 2$  and from Proposition 2.8, we obtain that  $r((A(S))^c) = 2$ .

(3) In the notation of Example 2.4, recall that  $f(X), g(X) \in T[X]$  are such that  $f(X) = (a^{n-1} + Vm, v + Vm) + (a^{n-1} + Vm, 1 + Vm)X$  and  $g(X) = (a^{n-1} + Vm, 0 + Vm) + (a^{n-1} + Vm, -1 + Vm)X$ . Let  $f_1(X), g_1(X) \in S[X]$  be given by  $f_1(X) = ((a^{n-1} + Vm, v + Vm), 0) + ((a^{n-1} + Vm, 1 + Vm), 0)X$  and  $g_1(X) = ((a^{n-1} + Vm, 0 + Vm), 0) + ((a^{n-1} + Vm, -1 + Vm), 0)X$ . From the choice of a and v, it follows as in the proof of Example 2.4 that  $f_1(X) \neq g_1(X), f_1(X)g_1(X)$  is the zero polynomial, and the product of the constant term of  $f_1(X)$  and the coefficient of X in  $g_1(X)$  is not the zero element of S. Therefore,  $f_1(X)$  and  $g_1(X)$  are not adjacent in  $(\Gamma(S[X]))^c$  but they are adjacent in  $(A(S))^c$ . Hence,  $(A(S))^c \neq (\Gamma(S[X]))^c$ .

**Example 2.10.** Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}_8(+)\mathbb{Z}_8$  be the ring obtained by using Nagata's principle of idealization. Let  $T = R \times R$  be the direct product of rings R and R. Then the following statements hold.

- (1) T has exactly two maximal N-primes of its zero ideal and both are B-primes of the zero ideal in T.
- (2)  $(A(T))^c$  is connected with  $diam((A(T))^c) = 3$  and  $r((A(T))^c) = 2$ .
- (3)  $(A(T))^c \neq (\Gamma(T[X]))^c$ .

**Proof.** Notice that  $R = \mathbb{Z}_8(+)\mathbb{Z}_8$  is local with  $\mathfrak{p} = 2\mathbb{Z}_8(+)\mathbb{Z}_8$  as its unique maximal ideal. Observe that  $Z(R) = \mathfrak{p} = ((0,0) :_R (0,4))$  is a B-prime of the zero ideal in R.

(1) As  $T = R \times R$ , we get that  $Z(T) = (Z(R) \times R) \cup (R \times Z(R)) = (\mathfrak{p} \times R) \cup (R \times \mathfrak{p})$ . **p**). Let  $\mathfrak{p}_1 = \mathfrak{p} \times R$  and let  $\mathfrak{p}_2 = R \times \mathfrak{p}$ . Notice that  $\mathfrak{p}_i \in Max(T)$  for each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ ,  $\mathfrak{p}_1 \neq \mathfrak{p}_2$ , and  $Z(T) = \bigcup_{i=1}^2 \mathfrak{p}_i$ . Hence, it follows that  $\{\mathfrak{p}_i \mid i \in \{1, 2\}\}$  is the set of all maximal N-primes of the zero ideal in T. Let u = ((0, 4), (0, 0)) and let v = ((0, 0), (0, 4)). It is clear that  $\mathfrak{p}_1 = ((0_R, 0_R) :_T u)$  and  $\mathfrak{p}_2 = ((0_R, 0_R) :_T v)$ , where  $0_R = (0, 0)$  is the zero element of R. Therefore,  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  is a B-prime of the zero ideal in T for each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ .

(2) As  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{2} \mathfrak{p}_i = \mathfrak{p} \times \mathfrak{p}$  is not the zero ideal of T, we obtain from (2)  $\Rightarrow$  (1) of Proposition 2.5 that  $(A(T))^c$  is connected. Since  $\mathfrak{p}_i$  is a B-prime of the zero ideal in T for each  $i \in \{1, 2\}$ , it follows from Proposition 2.6(2) that  $diam((A(T))^c) = 3$  and from Proposition 2.8, we obtain that  $r((A(T))^c) = 2$ .

(3) Let  $f(X), g(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  be given by f(X) = (4, 2) + (4, 1)X and g(X) = (4, 0) + (4, 1)X. It was already noted in the proof of [1, Example 2] that f(X)g(X) is the zero polynomial but f(X) and g(X) are not adjacent in A(R). Hence, f(X) and g(X) are not adjacent in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  but they are adjacent in  $(A(R))^c$ . Let  $f_1(X) = ((4, 2), (0, 0)) + ((4, 1), (0, 0))X$  and let  $g_1(X) = ((4, 0), (0, 0)) + ((4, 1), (0, 0))X$ . It can be shown as in the proof of Example 2.9(3) that  $f_1(X)$  and  $g_1(X)$  are not adjacent in  $(\Gamma(T[X]))^c$  but they are adjacent in  $(A(T))^c$ . Therefore,  $(A(T))^c \neq (\Gamma(T[X]))^c$ .

**Example 2.11.** Let T be as in Example 2.4 and let  $S = T \times \mathbb{Z}_8 \times \mathbb{Z}_8$  be the direct product of rings  $T, \mathbb{Z}_8$ , and  $\mathbb{Z}_8$ . Then the following statements hold:

- (1) S has exactly three maximal N-primes of its zero ideal.
- (2)  $(A(S))^c$  is connected with  $diam((A(S))^c) = r((A(S))^c) = 2$ .
- (3)  $(A(S))^c \neq (\Gamma(S[X]))^c$ .

**Proof.** In the notation of Example 2.4, T is quasi-local with  $Z(T) = \mathfrak{p}(+)R$  as its unique maximal ideal.

(1) It follows as in the proof of (1) of Example 2.10 that  $Z(S) = (Z(T) \times \mathbb{Z}_8 \times \mathbb{Z}_8) \cup (T \times 2\mathbb{Z}_8 \times \mathbb{Z}_8) \cup (T \times \mathbb{Z}_8 \times 2\mathbb{Z}_8)$ . Let  $\mathfrak{p}_1 = (\mathfrak{p}(+)R) \times \mathbb{Z}_8 \times \mathbb{Z}_8$ ,  $\mathfrak{p}_2 = T \times 2\mathbb{Z}_8 \times \mathbb{Z}_8$ , and  $\mathfrak{p}_3 = T \times \mathbb{Z}_8 \times 2\mathbb{Z}_8$ . It is clear that  $\mathfrak{p}_i \in Max(S)$  for each  $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $\mathfrak{p}_i \neq \mathfrak{p}_j$  for all distinct  $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ , and  $Z(S) = \bigcup_{i=1}^3 \mathfrak{p}_i$ . Hence, it follows that  $\{\mathfrak{p}_i \mid i \in \{1, 2, 3\}\}$  is the set of all maximal N-primes of the zero ideal in S.

(2) As S has more than two maximal N-primes of its zero ideal, it follows from Proposition 2.7 that  $(A(S))^c$  is connected and  $diam((A(S))^c) = 2$  and we know from Proposition 2.8 that  $r((A(S))^c) = 2$ .

(3) Using the fact that  $(A(T))^c \neq (\Gamma(T[X]))^c$  (see Example 2.4(3)), it can be shown as in the proof of Example 2.9(3) that  $(A(S))^c \neq (\Gamma(S[X]))^c$ .

In [20, Theorem 5.1], rings R with  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$  and  $(\Gamma(R))^c$  is connected were characterized in order that  $(\Gamma(R))^c$  to admit a cut vertex. If  $(A(R))^c$  is connected, then we prove in Theorem 2.12 that  $(A(R))^c$  does not admit any finite vertex cut.

**Theorem 2.12.** Let R be a ring such that  $(A(R))^c$  is connected. Let S be any finite non-empty subset of  $Z(R[X])^*$ . Then  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c - S$  is connected and so,  $(A(R))^c - S$  is connected.

**Proof.** We are assuming that  $(A(R))^c$  is connected. Hence, it follows from  $(1) \Rightarrow (3)$  of Proposition 2.3 (respectively, Proposition 2.5) and Proposition 2.7 that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is connected. Moreover, we obtain from [18, Propositions 2.2, 2.6, and 2.8] that  $diam((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) \in \{2,3\}$ . Let S be a finite non-empty subset of  $Z(R[X])^*$ . Let  $f(X), g(X) \in Z(R[X])^* \setminus S$  be such that  $f(X) \neq g(X)$ . Let  $S = \{f_i(X) \mid i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}\}$ . Let  $deg(f_i(X)) = n_i$  for each  $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ . If  $f(X)g(X) \neq 0$ , then f(X) - g(X) is a path in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c - S$ . Suppose that f(X)g(X) = 0. Notice that d(f(X), g(X)) = 2 or 3 in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ . Let  $f(X) - h_1(X) - \cdots - h_m(X) - g(X)$  be a path of shortest length between f(X) and g(X) in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ . It is clear that  $m \in \{1, 2\}$ . Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  be such that  $n > n_i$  for each  $i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$ . Let  $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$ . Observe that  $X^n h_i(X) \notin S$  and from the fact that  $X^n \notin Z(R[X])^*$ , it follows that  $X^n h_i(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$ . It is clear that  $M \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$  and  $f(X) - X^n h_i(X) - \cdots - X^n h_m(X) - g(X)$  is a path in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c - S$ .

From the above discussion, it is clear that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c - S$  is connected. Since  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c - S$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c - S$ , we obtain that  $(A(R))^c - S$  is connected.

**Corollary 2.13.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$  and  $(A(R))^c$  is connected. Then  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  and  $(A(R))^c$  do not admit any cut vertex.

**Proof.** Let  $f(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$ . We know from Theorem 2.12 that both  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c - f(X)$  and  $(A(R))^c - f(X)$  are connected. This proves that both the graphs  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  and  $(A(R))^c$  do not admit any cut vertex.

## 3. Some more results on $(A(R))^c$

Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . The aim of this section is to discuss some more properties of  $(A(R))^c$ . First, we prove some results on  $gr((A(R))^c)$ .

**Lemma 3.1.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . The following statements are equivalent:

- (1)  $(A(R))^c$  has no edges.
- (2)  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  has no edges.
- (3) Z(R) is an ideal of R with  $Z(R)^2 = (0)$ .

**Proof.** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) This is clear, since  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ .

 $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$  Suppose that  $R \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$  as rings. Let us denote  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$  by T. It was already noted in [6, page 2045] that  $f(X) = (1,0) + (1,0)X, g(X) = (1,0) + (1,0)X^2 \in Z(T[X])^*$  are such that f(X) - g(X) is an edge of  $(\Gamma(T[X]))^c$ . So, we

get that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  has at least one edge. Therefore, if (2) holds, then  $R \not\cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ as rings. As (2) holds, it follows that  $(\Gamma(R))^c$  has no edges (equivalently,  $\Gamma(R)$  is complete). In such a case, we obtain from [2, Theorem 2.8] that Z(R) is an ideal of R with  $Z(R)^2 = (0)$ .

 $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$  Let  $f(X), g(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  be distinct. Let  $f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i X^i$ and let  $g(X) = \sum_{j=0}^m b_j X^j$ . It follows from McCoy's Theorem [16, Theorem 2] that  $a_i, b_j \in Z(R)$  for all  $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$  and  $j \in \{0, \ldots, m\}$ . By (3), Z(R)is an ideal of R with  $Z(R)^2 = (0)$  and so,  $a_i b_j = 0$  for all  $i \in \{0, \ldots, n\}$  and  $j \in \{0, \ldots, m\}$ . Hence, f(X) and g(X) are not adjacent in  $(A(R))^c$ . Therefore,  $(A(R))^c$  has no edges.

**Proposition 3.2.** Let R be a ring and let  $f(X), g(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  be such that f(X) - g(X) is an edge of  $(A(R))^c$ . Then there exists  $h(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  such that f(X) - h(X) - g(X) - f(X) is a cycle of length three in  $(A(R))^c$  with  $f(X)h(X) \neq 0$  and  $h(X)g(X) \neq 0$ .

**Proof.** Let  $f(X), g(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  be such that f(X) - g(X) is an edge of  $(A(R))^c$ . Let deg(f(X)) = m and let deg(g(X)) = k. Let  $f(X) = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i X^i$  and let  $g(X) = \sum_{j=0}^k b_j X^j$ . It follows from f(X) - g(X) is an edge of  $(A(R))^c$  that  $a_s b_t \neq 0$  for some  $s \in \{0, \ldots, m\}$  and  $t \in \{0, \ldots, k\}$ . Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  be such that n > max(m, k). We consider the following cases.

Case (1).  $a_s^2 = 0 = b_t^2$ . Notice that  $a_s + b_t$  is nilpotent and from  $a_s^2 = 0$ and  $a_s b_t \neq 0$ , it follows that  $a_s + b_t \neq 0$ . It is clear that  $f(X)(a_s + b_t) \neq 0$  and  $g(X)(a_s + b_t) \neq 0$ . Let  $h(X) = (a_s + b_t)X^n$ . As  $X^n \notin Z(R[X])$  and  $a_s + b_t \in Z(R)^*$ , it follows that  $X^n(a_s + b_t) \in Z(R[X])^*$ ,  $f(X)h(X) \neq 0, h(X)g(X) \neq 0$ , and by the choice of n, we get that  $h(X) \notin \{f(X), g(X)\}$ . Therefore, h(X) is adjacent to both f(X) and g(X) in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  and so, in  $(A(R))^c$ . Hence, we obtain that f(X) - h(X) - g(X) - f(X) is a cycle of length three in  $(A(R))^c$  with  $f(X)h(X) \neq 0$  and  $h(X)g(X) \neq 0$ .

Case (2). At least one between  $a_s^2$  and  $b_t^2$  is not equal to 0. Without loss of generality, we can assume that  $a_s^2 \neq 0$ . Let  $h(X) = a_s X^n$ . It follows from [16, Theorem 2] that  $a_s \in Z(R)^*$ . From  $X^n \notin Z(R[X])$ , it follows that  $h(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$ . As  $a_s^2 \neq 0$ ,  $a_s b_t \neq 0$ , we obtain that  $f(X)h(X) \neq 0$  and  $h(X)g(X) \neq 0$ . By the choice of n, it is clear that  $h(X) \notin \{f(X), g(X)\}$ . Thus f(X) - h(X) - g(X) - f(X) is a cycle of length three in  $(A(R))^c$  with  $f(X)h(X) \neq 0$  and  $h(X)g(X) \neq 0$ .

This completes the proof.

**Corollary 3.3.** Let R be a ring such that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  admits at least one edge. Then any edge of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is an edge of a triangle in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ .

**Proof.** Let  $f(X), g(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  be such that f(X) - g(X) is an edge of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ . Then f(X) - g(X) is also an edge of  $(A(R))^c$ . Hence, we obtain from Proposition 3.2 that there exists  $h(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  such that f(X) - h(X) - g(X) - f(X) is a cycle of length three in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ . This proves that any edge of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is an edge of a triangle in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ .

**Corollary 3.4.** Let R be a ring such that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  admits at least one edge. Then  $gr((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = gr((A(R))^c) = 3$ .

**Proof.** We know from Corollary 3.3 that any edge of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is an edge of a triangle in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ . Therefore, we get that  $gr((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 3$ . Since  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ , it follows that  $gr((A(R))^c) = 3$ .

**Proposition 3.5.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . Then the following statements hold:

- (1)  $gr((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = gr((A(R))^c) \in \{3, \infty\}.$
- (2)  $gr((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = gr((A(R))^c) = \infty$  if and only if Z(R) is an ideal of R with  $Z(R)^2 = (0)$ .

**Proof.** (1) If  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  admits at least one edge, then we know from Corollary 3.4 that  $gr((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = gr((A(R))^c) = 3$ . Suppose that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  contains no cycle. Then  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  has no edges and hence, we obtain from  $(2) \Rightarrow (1)$  of Lemma 3.1 that  $(A(R))^c$  has no edges. Therefore,  $gr((A(R))^c) = \infty$ . If  $(A(R))^c$ does not contain any cycle, then as  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  being a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ , it follows that  $gr((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = \infty$ . This proves that  $gr((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) =$  $gr((A(R))^c) \in \{3, \infty\}$ .

(2) It follows from the proof of (1) that  $gr((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = gr((A(R))^c) = \infty$  if and only if  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  has no edges and we obtain from (2)  $\Leftrightarrow$  (3) of Lemma 3.1 that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  has no edges if and only if Z(R) is an ideal of R with  $Z(R)^2 = (0)$ .

Let G = (V, E) be a graph. Recall from [4] that two distinct vertices u, v of G are said to be orthogonal, written  $u \perp v$  if u and v are adjacent in G and there is no vertex w of G which is adjacent to both u and v in G. A vertex v of G is said to be a complement of u if  $u \perp v$  [4]. Moreover, recall from [4] that G is complemented if each vertex of G admits a complement in G. In Section 3 of [4] Anderson et al. determined rings R for which the zero-divisor graphs  $\Gamma(R)$  are complemented. For a ring R with  $|Z(R)^*| \geq 1$ , we verify in Corollary 3.6 that no vertex of  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ) admits a complement in  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ).

**Corollary 3.6.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . Then no vertex of  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ) admits a complement in  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ).

**Proof.** Let  $f(X) \in Z(R[X])^* = V((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = V((A(R))^c)$ . Since any edge of  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ) is an edge of a triangle in  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ) by Proposition 3.2 (respectively, Corollary 3.3), it follows that f(X) does not admit any complement in  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ).

Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \geq 1$ . We next discuss some results on the dominating sets and the domination number of  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c)$ . For a graph G, we denote the domination number of G by  $\gamma(G)$ .

**Lemma 3.7.** Let G = (V, E) be a simple graph such that  $|V| \ge 2$ . If G is connected, then  $\gamma(G^c) \ge 2$ .

**Proof.** Let  $v \in V$ . As  $|V| \ge 2$  and G is connected, we can find  $u \in V$  such that v and u are adjacent in G. Therefore, u is not adjacent to v in  $G^c$ . This implies that  $\{v\}$  is not a dominating set of  $G^c$  for any  $v \in V$ . Therefore,  $\gamma(G^c) \ge 2$ .

**Corollary 3.8.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . Then  $\gamma((A(R))^c) \ge 2$ (respectively,  $\gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) \ge 2$ ).

**Proof.** We know from Lemma 2.1 that  $Z(R[X])^*$  is infinite. It follows from [1, Theorem 4] (respectively, [2, Theorem 2.3]) and Lemma 3.7 that  $\gamma((A(R))^c) \ge 2$  (respectively,  $\gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) \ge 2)$ .

**Proposition 3.9.** Let R be a ring such that Z(R) is not an ideal of R. Then  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2.$ 

**Proof.** Notice that  $Z(R[X]) \cap R = Z(R)$ . As Z(R) is not an ideal of R by hypothesis, it follows that Z(R[X]) is not an ideal of R[X]. Hence, we obtain from [21, Lemma 2.3] that  $\gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ . Since  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ , we get that  $\gamma((A(R))^c) \leq 2$ . It now follows from Corollary 3.8 that  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$  and Z(R) is an ideal of R. We next discuss some results on the dominating sets and the domination number of  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ). We prove in Theorem 3.10 that  $(A(R))^c$ admits a finite dominating set if and only if Z(R[X]) is not an ideal of R[X].

**Theorem 3.10.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$  and Z(R) is an ideal of R. The following statements are equivalent:

(1)  $(A(R))^c$  admits a finite dominating set.

(2) Z(R[X]) is not an ideal of R[X].

(3)  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  admits a finite dominating set.

Moreover, if the statement (1) holds, then  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

**Proof.** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) Let D be a finite dominating set of  $(A(R))^c$ . Notice that  $D \subset Z(R[X])^*$ . Let  $D = \{f_i(X) \mid i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}\}$ . It follows from Corollary 3.8 that  $n \geq 2$ . Observe that  $\{Xf_i(X) \mid i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}\}$  is also a dominating set of  $(A(R))^c$ . Hence, on replacing  $f_i(X)$  by  $Xf_i(X)$  (if necessary) for each  $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ , we can assume without loss of generality that  $deg(f_i(X)) > 0$  for each  $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ . For each  $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ , let  $A_{f_i}$  denote the ideal of R generated by the coefficients of  $f_i(X)$  and it follows from [16, Theorem 2] that  $A_{f_i} \subseteq Z(R)$ . We assert that Z(R[X]) is not an ideal of R[X]. Suppose that Z(R[X]) is an ideal of R[X]. Notice that  $A = \sum_{i=1}^n A_{f_i}$  is a f.g. ideal of R and  $A \subseteq Z(R)$ . Hence, we obtain from [15, Theorem 3.3] that there exists  $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $rA_{f_i} = (0)$  for each  $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ . Observe that  $r \in Z(R)^* \subset Z(R[X])^*$ . It is clear that  $r \notin D$ . Since D is a dominating set of  $(A(R))^c$ , we obtain that there exists  $t \in \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$  such that r and  $f_t(X)$  are adjacent in  $(A(R))^c$ . This implies that  $rf_t(X) \neq 0$ . This is a contradiction and so, Z(R[X]) is not an ideal of R[X].

 $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$  As Z(R[X]) is not an ideal of R[X] by assumption, we obtain from [21, Lemma 2.3] that  $\gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ . If  $f(X), g(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  are such that  $f(X) + g(X) \notin Z(R[X])$ , then we know from the proof of [21, Lemma 2.3] that  $\{f(X), g(X)\}$  is a dominating set of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ .

 $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$  Since  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ , any dominating set of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a dominating set of  $(A(R))^c$ . As  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  admits a finite dominating set by assumption, we obtain that  $(A(R))^c$  admits a finite dominating set.

Assume that (1) holds. It is noted in the proof of  $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$  of this theorem that  $\gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ . Hence, we obtain that  $\gamma((A(R))^c) \leq 2$ . It now follows from Corollary 3.8 that  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = 2$ . Therefore,  $\gamma((A(R))^c) =$  $\gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . If Z(R) is a f.g. ideal of R and is not a B-prime of (0) in R, then we verify in Corollary 3.11 that  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

**Corollary 3.11.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$  and suppose that R admits  $\mathfrak{p}$  as its unique maximal N-prime of (0). If there exists a f.g. ideal I of R with  $I \subseteq \mathfrak{p}$  such that I is not annihilated by any non-zero element of R, then  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ . In particular, if  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a f.g. ideal of R and is not a B-prime of (0) in R, then  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

**Proof.** By hypothesis, Z(R) is an ideal of R and there exists a f.g. ideal I of R with  $I \subseteq Z(R)$  such that  $Ir \neq (0)$  for any non-zero  $r \in R$ . Hence, we obtain from [15, Theorem 3.3] that Z(R[X]) is not an ideal of R[X]. Therefore, we obtain from the moreover part of Theorem 3.10 that  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

Suppose that  $\mathfrak{p} = Z(R)$  is a f.g. ideal of R with  $\mathfrak{p}$  is not a B-prime of (0) in R. Hence,  $\mathfrak{p}r \neq (0)$  for any  $r \in R \setminus \{0\}$ . Therefore, we obtain using the arguments given in the previous paragraph of this proof that  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) = 2$ .

We provide Example 3.12 to illustrate Corollary 3.11.

**Example 3.12.** Let S = K[X, Y] be the polynomial ring in two variables X, Y over a field K. Let  $\mathfrak{m} = SX + SY$ . Let  $T = S_{\mathfrak{m}}$ . Let M be the T-module given by  $M = \frac{K(X,Y)}{T}$ , where K(X,Y) is the field of rational functions in two variables X, Y over K. Let R = T(+)M be the ring obtained by using Nagata's principle of idealization. Let  $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{m}T(+)M$ . Then R has  $\mathfrak{p}$  as its unique maximal N-prime of its zero ideal,  $\mathfrak{p}$  is not a B-prime of the zero ideal in R,  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[Z]))^c) = 2$ , where R[Z] is the polynomial ring in one variable Z over R.

**Proof.** It is clear that  $\mathfrak{m} \in Max(S)$ . It follows from [5, Example 1, page 38] that T has  $\mathfrak{m}T$  as its unique maximal ideal. We know from [5, Corollary 7.6 and Proposition 7.3] that T is Noetherian. Notice that K(X,Y) is the quotient field of T. As  $\mathfrak{m} = SX + SY$ , it follows that  $\mathfrak{m}T = TX + TY$ . We claim that Z(R) = $\mathfrak{m}T(+)M$ . Since  $\mathfrak{m}T$  is the unique maximal ideal of T, we obtain that  $\mathfrak{m}T(+)M$  is the unique maximal ideal of R. Hence,  $Z(R) \subseteq \mathfrak{m}T(+)M$ . Let  $(t,m) \in \mathfrak{m}T(+)M$ . It is clear that (t,m) = (t,0+T) + (0,m). From  $(0,m)^2 = (0,0+T)$ , in view of [15, Lemma 2.3] to prove  $(t, m) \in Z(R)$ , it is enough to show that  $(t, 0 + T) \in Z(R)$ . If t = 0, then it is clear that  $(0, 0+T) \in Z(R)$ . Suppose that  $t \neq 0$ . From  $t \in \mathfrak{m}T$ , it follows that  $\frac{1}{t} \in K(X,Y) \setminus T$ . Notice that  $\frac{1}{t} + T$  is a non-zero element of M and  $(t, 0 + T)(0, \frac{1}{t} + T) = (0, 0 + T)$  is the zero element of R. This shows that  $(t,m) \in Z(R)$  for any  $(t,m) \in \mathfrak{m}T(+)M$ . Therefore,  $\mathfrak{m}T(+)M \subseteq Z(R)$  and so,  $Z(R) = \mathfrak{m}T(+)M$ . This proves that  $\mathfrak{p} = \mathfrak{m}T(+)M$  is the unique maximal N-prime of the zero ideal in R. We verify that  $\mathfrak{p} = R(X, 0+T) + R(Y, 0+T)$ . It is clear that  $R(X, 0+T) + R(Y, 0+T) \subseteq \mathfrak{p}$ . Let  $(t, m) \in \mathfrak{p}$ . Notice that  $t \in \mathfrak{m}T$  and  $m \in M$ and (t,m) = (t, 0+T) + (0,m). Now,  $t = t_1 X + t_2 Y$  for some  $t_1, t_2 \in T$ . Hence,  $\begin{aligned} (t,0+T) &= (t_1X + t_2Y, 0+T) = (t_1, 0+T)(X, 0+T) + (t_2, 0+T)(Y, 0+T) \in \\ R(X,0+T) + R(Y, 0+T). &\text{Since } M = \frac{K(X,Y)}{T}, \ m = \frac{f(X,Y)}{g(X,Y)} + T \text{ for some } \\ f(X,Y), g(X,Y) \in S = K[X,Y]. &\text{Therefore, } (0,m) = (X,0+T)(0, \frac{f(X,Y)}{g(X,Y)X} + 1) \end{aligned}$  $T \in R(X, 0+T)$ . Hence,  $(t, m) \in R(X, 0+T) + R(Y, 0+T)$ . This proves that  $\mathfrak{p} \subseteq R(X, 0+T) + R(Y, 0+T)$  and so,  $\mathfrak{p} = R(X, 0+T) + R(Y, 0+T)$ . Thus  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a f.g. ideal of R. Suppose that  $\mathfrak{p}$  is a B-prime of the zero ideal in R. Then there exists  $(t,m) \in \mathfrak{p} \setminus \{(0,0+T)\}$  such that  $\mathfrak{p} = ((0,0+T) :_R (t,m))$ . This implies that (X, 0+T)(t, m) = (0, 0+T) and so, tX = 0. Hence, t = 0. Therefore,  $m \neq 0 + T$ . Since K[X, Y] is a unique factorization domain (UFD), it follows from [5, Proposition 3.11(iv)] and [14, Theorem 5] that T is a UFD. Notice that K(X,Y) is the quotient field of T. It is possible to find  $t_1, t_2 \in T$ 

such that  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are relatively prime in T and  $m = \frac{t_1}{t_2} + T$ . From  $m \neq 0 + T$ , it follows that  $\frac{t_1}{t_2} \notin T$ . Now, (X, 0)(0, m) = (Y, 0)(0, m) = (0, 0 + T). Hence,  $Xt_1 = t_2t_3$  and  $Yt_1 = t_2t_4$  for some  $t_3, t_4 \in T$ . Notice that  $TX \in Spec(T)$  and from  $\frac{t_1}{t_2} \notin T$ ,  $Xt_1 = t_2t_3$ , we get that  $t_2 \in TX$ . From  $Yt_1 = t_2t_4$ , it follows that  $Yt_1 \in TX$ . As  $Y \notin TX$ , we obtain that  $t_1 \in TX$ . This is impossible, as  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are relatively prime in T. This shows that there exists no non-zero  $r \in R$  such that  $\mathfrak{p} = ((0, 0 + T) :_R r)$  and so,  $\mathfrak{p}$  is not a B-prime of the zero ideal in R. Thus the ring R satisfies the hypotheses of Corollary 3.11 and hence, it follows from Corollary 3.11 that  $\gamma((A(R))^c) = \gamma((\Gamma(R[Z]))^c) = 2$ .

We provide Example 3.13 to illustrate that the in particular part of Corollary 3.11 can fail to hold if the ideal Z(R) is f.g. is omitted. The example of the reduced ring R given in Example 3.13 is due to Gilmer and Heinzer [11, Example, page 16].

**Example 3.13.** Let  $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be a set of indeterminates over a field K. Let  $D = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} K[[X_1, \ldots, X_n]]$ , where for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $K[[X_1, \ldots, X_n]]$  is the power series ring in  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  over K. Let I be the ideal of D generated by  $\{X_iX_j \mid i, j \in \mathbb{N}, i \neq j\}$ . Let  $R = \frac{D}{I}$ . Then  $(A(R))^c = (\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  and moreover,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  does not admit any finite dominating set.

**Proof.** For each  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , let us denote  $X_i + I$  by  $x_i$ . It was already noted in [11, Example, page 16] that R is reduced and it is quasi-local with  $\mathfrak{m} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Rx_n$  as its unique maximal ideal. It was observed in [21, Example 2.4] that  $Z(R) = \mathfrak{m}$ and so,  $\mathfrak{m}$  is the unique maximal N-prime of the zero ideal in R. As R is reduced, we get that  $\mathfrak{m}$  is not a B-prime of the zero ideal in R. By [16, Theorem 2], we obtain that  $Z(R[X]) \subseteq Z(R)[X] = \mathfrak{m}[X]$ . It was verified in the proof of [21, Example 2.4] that any f.g. proper ideal of R is annihilated by a non-zero element of R. Let  $f(X) \in \mathfrak{m}[X]$  with  $f(X) \neq 0$ . Let C be the ideal of R generated by the coefficients of f(X). Then C is a non-zero f.g. proper ideal of R. If  $r \in \mathbb{R}\setminus\{0+I\}$  is such that Cr = (0+I), then f(X)r = 0+I. Hence,  $f(X) \in Z(R[X])$ . This shows that  $\mathfrak{m}[X] \subseteq Z(R[X])$ . Therefore,  $Z(R[X]) = \mathfrak{m}[X]$ is an ideal of R[X]. Hence, we obtain from  $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$  of Theorem 3.10 that  $(A(R))^c$  does not admit any finite dominating set. Since R is reduced, it follows that  $(A(R))^c = (\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ . Therefore, we obtain that  $(A(R))^c = (\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ does not admit any finite dominating set. 

**Proposition 3.14.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . If  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  (respectively,  $(A(R))^c$ ) admits a finite dominating set, then so does  $(\Gamma(R))^c$ .

**Proof.** Suppose that  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ) admits a finite dominating set. In such a case, we know from  $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$  (respectively,  $(3) \Rightarrow (2)$ ) of Theorem 3.10 that Z(R[X]) is not an ideal of R[X]. If  $f_1(X), f_2(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$  are such that  $f_1(X) + f_2(X) \notin Z(R[X])$ , then  $A = \{f_1(X), f_2(X)\}$  is a dominating set of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  (respectively,  $(A(R))^c$ ). Notice that  $\{Xf_i(X) \mid i \in \{1,2\}\}$  is a dominating set of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  (respectively,  $(A(R))^c$ ). Hence on replacing  $f_i(X)$  by  $Xf_i(X)$  (if necessary) for each  $i \in \{1,2\}$ , we can assume without loss of generality that  $deg(f_i(X)) > 0$  for each  $i \in \{1,2\}$ . It is clear that  $A \subset Z(R[X])^*$ . Let  $i \in \{1,2\}$  and let  $C_i$  be the set consisting of distinct non-zero coefficients of  $f_i(X)$ . As  $f_i(X) \in Z(R[X])^*$ , it follows from [16, Theorem 2] that  $C_i \subseteq Z(R)^*$ . Let  $C = \bigcup_{i=1}^2 C_i$ . Then C is a finite non-empty subset of  $Z(R)^*$ . Let  $a \in Z(R)^* \setminus C$ . Notice that  $a \in Z(R[X])^* \setminus A$ . Since A is a dominating set of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  (respectively,  $(A(R))^c$ ), there exists  $i \in \{1,2\}$  such that a and  $f_i(X)$  are adjacent in  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  (respectively,  $(A(R))^c$ ). Hence, there exists  $c \in C_i$  such that  $ac \neq 0$  and so, a and c are adjacent in  $(\Gamma(R))^c$  admits a finite dominating set.

In Example 3.15, we mention an example of a ring R such that  $\gamma((\Gamma(R))^c) = 1$  but  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ) does not admit any finite dominating set.

**Example 3.15.** Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}_4$ . Then  $\gamma((\Gamma(R))^c) = 1$  but  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ) does not admit any finite dominating set.

**Proof.** Notice that R is local with 2R as its unique maximal ideal and Z(R) = 2R. As  $Z(R)^* = \{2\}$ , it follows that  $\gamma((\Gamma(R))^c) = 1$ . Observe that Z(R[X]) = 2R[X] is an ideal of R[X]. From  $Z(R[X])^2 = (0)$ , it follows from  $(3) \Rightarrow (1)$  (respectively,  $(3) \Rightarrow (2)$ ) of Lemma 3.1 that  $(A(R))^c$  (respectively,  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$ ) has no edges. Hence,  $(A(R))^c = (\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  and  $Z(R[X])^*$  is the only dominating set of  $(A(R))^c$ . As  $Z(R[X])^*$  is infinite, we get that  $(A(R))^c = (\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  does not admit any finite dominating set.

Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . We next discuss some results on  $\omega((A(R))^c)$  (respectively,  $\omega((\Gamma(R[X]))^c))$ ).

**Lemma 3.16.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . If there exists  $a \in Z(R)^*$  such that  $a^2 \ne 0$ , then  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  admits an infinite clique.

**Proof.** Notice that for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $aX^n \in Z(R[X])^*$  and for any distinct  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $aX^m \neq aX^n$ . From  $a^2 \neq 0$  and  $X \notin Z(R[X])^*$ , it follows that  $(aX^m)(aX^n) = a^2X^{m+n} \neq 0$ . Therefore, the subgraph of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  induced by  $\{aX^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is an infinite clique.

**Corollary 3.17.** Let R be a ring such that R has at least two maximal N-primes of (0). Then  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  admits an infinite clique.

**Proof.** By hypothesis, R has at least two maximal N-primes of (0). Let  $\mathfrak{p}_1, \mathfrak{p}_2$  be distinct maximal N-primes of (0) in R. Then  $\mathfrak{p}_1 \not\subseteq \mathfrak{p}_2$ . Let  $a \in \mathfrak{p}_1 \setminus \mathfrak{p}_2$ . Then  $a \in Z(R)^*$  and  $a^2 \neq 0$ . Hence, we obtain from Lemma 3.16 that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  admits an infinite clique.

**Proposition 3.18.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . Suppose that R has  $\mathfrak{p}$  as its unique maximal N-prime of (0). Then the following statements are equivalent:

(1)  $\omega((A(R))^c) < \infty$ .

(2)  $\omega((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) < \infty.$ 

(3)  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  does not admit any infinite clique.

(4)  $\mathfrak{p}^2 = (0).$ 

**Proof.** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) This is clear, since  $(\Gamma((R[X]))^c)$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$ .

 $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$  This is clear.

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (4) As  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  does not admit any infinite clique by assumption, it follows from Lemma 3.16 that  $a^2 = 0$  for each  $a \in Z(R) = \mathfrak{p}$ . Suppose that  $\mathfrak{p}^2 \neq (0)$ . Then there exist  $a, b \in Z(R)^* = \mathfrak{p} \setminus \{0\}$  such that  $ab \neq 0$ . Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . From  $a^2 = b^2 = 0$ , it follows that  $a + bX^n$  is a nilpotent element of R[X] and hence,  $a + bX^n \in Z(R[X])^*$ . Let us denote  $a + bX^n$  by  $f_n(X)$ . It is clear that  $f_m(X) \neq f_n(X)$  for all distinct  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $m \neq n$ . Observe that ab is the coefficient of  $X^m$  in  $f_m(X)f_n(X)$ . From  $ab \neq 0$ , we get that  $f_m(X)f_n(X) \neq 0$  and so, the subgraph of  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  induced by  $\{f_n(X) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ is an infinite clique. This is a contradiction and so, we obtain that  $\mathfrak{p}^2 = (0)$ .

(4)  $\Rightarrow$  (1) By hypothesis,  $Z(R) = \mathfrak{p}$  is an ideal of R. We are assuming that  $\mathfrak{p}^2 = (0)$ . Hence, we obtain from (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1) of Lemma 3.1 that  $(A(R))^c$  has no edges. Therefore,  $\omega((A(R))^c) = 1 < \infty$ .

**Corollary 3.19.** Let R be a ring such that  $|Z(R)^*| \ge 1$ . Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1)  $(A(R))^c$  is planar.
- (2)  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is planar.
- (3) Z(R) is an ideal of R with  $Z(R)^2 = (0)$ .
- (4)  $(A(R))^c$  has no edges.

**Proof.** (1)  $\Rightarrow$  (2) As  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is a spanning subgraph of  $(A(R))^c$  and  $(A(R))^c$  is planar, we obtain that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is planar.

 $(2) \Rightarrow (3)$  We are assuming that  $(\Gamma(R[X]))^c$  is planar. As  $K_5$  is non-planar by Kuratowski's Theorem [9, Theorem 5.9] we obtain that  $\omega((\Gamma(R[X]))^c) \leq 4$ . Therefore, it follows from Corollary 3.17 that Z(R) is necessarily an ideal of R. It now follows from  $(2) \Rightarrow (4)$  of Proposition 3.18 that  $Z(R)^2 = (0)$ .

(3)  $\Rightarrow$  (4) We are assuming that Z(R) is an ideal of R with  $Z(R)^2 = (0)$ . Hence, we obtain from (3)  $\Rightarrow$  (1) of Lemma 3.1 that  $(A(R))^c$  has no edges.

 $(4) \Rightarrow (1)$  This is clear.

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