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ON INTERSECTION GRAPH OF IDEALS OF A NEAR-RING IN TERMS OF ITS ESSENTIAL IDEALS

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15	${f Abstract}$
16	Let N be a near-ring and $I(N)$ denote the set of all non-trivial (i.e.,
17	non-zero proper) ideals of N . In this paper, the intersection graph of ideals
18	of N has been introduced as a simple undirected graph denoted by $G(N)$
19	whose vertex set is $I(N)$ and two vertices I and J are adjacent if and only
20	if $I \neq J$ and $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$. The graph $G(N)$ has been studied mainly using
21	the direct sum decomposition and the essential ideals of N . Here, some
22	necessary and sufficient conditions for $\mathrm{G}(N)$ to be connected and complete
23	have been obtained. Under some restrictions on N and $G(N)$, some graph
24	parameters such as chromatic number, independence number, domination

number, hull number, geodetic number as well as some graphical properties

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of G(N) such as being chordal, star etc. have been obtained.

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1. Introduction

One of the most important research areas of graph theory is algebraic graph theory where graphs are constructed depending on different algebraic structures. One of the main motivations to study such graphs is to find interplays between the graph theoretic properties and the properties of the algebraic structures under consideration.

Let $F = \{S_i : i \in I\}$ be an arbitrary family of sets. The intersection graph G(F) is the graph whose vertices are S_i , $i \in I$ and in which the vertices S_i and S_j $(i, j \in I)$ are adjacent if and only if $S_i \neq S_j$ and $S_i \cap S_j \neq \phi$. Due to Marczewski [16, 17], we have the result for intersection graph which states that "Every simple graph is an intersection graph, i.e., for any simple graph G there exists a family F of sets S_i , $i \in I$, such that G is isomorphic to the intersection graph G(F)". To make the study of the intersection graphs more interesting, Bosak [7] in 1964 defined intersection graph arising from a semigroup S. Then Csákány and Pollák [10] defined and studied the intersection graphs corresponding to finite groups. Zelinka [19] continued the work in the setting of finite Abelian groups. Later, Chakrabarty et al. [8] studied the intersection graph of ideals of a ring. For some other works of intersection graphs in the setting of groups and rings we may refer the readers to [1, 11, 14]. The theory of intersection graphs has a vast field of applications in different practical scenarios like secure sensor networks, wireless communication networks, epidemiology etc. (cf. [3, 5, 20]).

To continue the study of intersection graphs on different algebraic structures, in our present paper, we define the intersection graph G(N) on a near-ring N in terms of the non-zero proper ideals of N. The study of the intersection graphs in the setting of near-rings enriches the study of intersection graphs on various algebraic structures as the notion of near-rings indeed generalizes the notion of rings. In Section 3, G(N) is defined and studied mainly in terms of direct product of its subnear-rings. Among the other results, here we obtain a necessary and sufficient condition on a near-ring N so that G(N) becomes complete (cf. Theorem 3.4) and also we obtain that if G(N) is disconnected then the nearring N is a direct product of two simple near-rings (cf. Theorem 3.10). We also obtain the degree of a maximal ideal of a near-ring N in G(N) (cf. Theorem 3.18). In Section 4, we obtain another necessary and sufficient condition for completeness of G(N) in terms of essential ideals of N (cf. Theorem 4.4). Here, we determine the domination number of G(N) corresponding to a near-ring N containing an essential ideal (cf. Theorem 4.7). We also discuss about the graph connectivity properties (viz. vertex connectivity, strong vertex connectivity, edge connectivity etc.) of G(N) (cf. Theorems 4.13, 4.29, respectively). Here, we find some conditions on N so that the corresponding graph G(N) becomes star, asteroidal triple-free, chordal or non-bipartite (cf. Theorems 4.14, 4.23, 4.27,

Corollary 4.16, respectively). Also, we obtain the degree of vertices (cf. Theorem 4.17) and determine several graphical parameters such as chromatic number, independence number, geodetic number and hull number of a planar graph G(N) (cf. Theorems 4.22, 4.24, 4.25, 4.26, respectively).

2. Preliminaries

We first recall some definitions of the theory of near-rings (cf. [13]) for their use in the sequel.

- Definition 2.1. A near-ring is a set N together with two binary operations '+' and '·' such that
- (a) (N, +) is a group (not necessarily Abelian),
- 79 (b) (N, \cdot) is a semi-group and
- 80 (c) for all $n_1, n_2, n_3 \in N : (n_1 + n_2)n_3 = n_1n_3 + n_2n_3$ ("right distributive law").
- N is called zero-symmetric if for all $n \in N, n0 = 0$. N is called an integral if N
- has no non-zero divisors of zero. N has the DCCI if N satisfy DCC (descending
- chain condition) on ideals. If $(N^* = N \{0\}, \cdot)$ is a group, N is called a *near-field*.
- Definition 2.2. Let N be a near-ring. A normal subgroup I of (N, +) is called ideal of N if
- (i) $IN \subseteq I$ and

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- 87 (ii) $n(n'+i) nn' \in I$, for all $n, n' \in N$ and for all $i \in I$.
- An ideal I of a near-ring N is called a *direct-summand* of N if there exist an ideal J of N such that $N = I \bigoplus J$. J is then called a *direct complement* of I in N. A near-ring N is called *simple* if its ideals are $\{0\}$ and N only.
- Definition 2.3. A subdirect product N of near-rings N_i $(i \in I)$ is called *trivial* if there exists $i \in I$ such that the projection map $\pi_i : N \to N_i$ is an isomorphism. A near-ring N is called *subdirectly irreducible* if N is not isomorphic to a non-trivial subdirect product of near-rings.
- Definition 2.4. Let N be a near-ring. Then N is called decomposable, if it is the direct sum of non-trivial ideals (or, equivalently, it has a non-trivial direct summand), otherwise indecomposable.
- **Definition 2.5.** Let N be a near-ring and $(\Gamma, +)$ be a group. Let $f: N \times \Gamma \to \Gamma$. $(n, \gamma) \to n\gamma$
- Then (Γ, f) is called a N-group (denoted by N^{Γ}) if $(n + n')\gamma = n\gamma + n'\gamma$ and $(nn')\gamma = n(n'\gamma)$, for all $n, n' \in N$ and for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$. A subgroup Δ of N^{Γ} with $N\Delta \subseteq \Delta$ is said to be an N-subgroup of Γ . N is said to be local if N has a unique
- maximal N-subgroup.

Definition 2.6. Let N, N' be two near-rings. Then $h: N \to N'$ is called a near-ring homomorphism if h(m+n) = h(m) + h(n) and h(mn) = h(m)h(n), for all $m, n \in N$.

Definition 2.7. [15] A non-zero proper ideal I of a near-ring N is called an essential ideal of N if for any non-zero ideal J of N, $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$.

We recall the following notations of graph theory from [4, 6, 9, 12] and [18].

Definition 2.8. Let G = (V(G), E(G)) be a graph. A shortest path between 109 two vertices v_1 and v_2 in G is called a $v_1 - v_2$ geodesic. The distance d(x,y)110 between any two vertices x and y is the length of a shortest path from x to y. 111 The diameter of G is $diam(G) = \max\{d(x,y) : x,y \in V(G)\}$ and the girth of G is 112 the length of a smallest cycle in G. The eccentricity of a vertex x in G is defined 113 as $e(x) = \max\{d(x,z) : z \in V(G)\}$. The radius of G is the minimum eccentricity 114 among the vertices of G, which is denoted by rad(G). A vertex $v \in V(G)$ is said to 115 be central if e(v) = rad(G). The set of all vertices in G lying on a $v_1 - v_2$ geodesic 116 is denoted by $I[v_1, v_2]$. For any subset S of G, let $I[S] = \bigcup_{v_1, v_2 \in S} I[v_1, v_2]$. If I[S] = V(G), then S is called a geodetic set of G. The minimum cardinality 118 of a geodetic set of G is called the geodetic number g(G) of G. A vertex v of a 119 connected graph G is said to be a *cut vertex* if the deletion result of the vertex 120 v is a disconnected graph. A vertex cut of G is a subset $S \subseteq V(G)$ such that 121 the graph G-S is disconnected. The vertex connectivity of G is defined by 122 $\kappa(G) = \min\{n \geq 0 : \text{there exists a vertex cut } S \subseteq V(G) \text{ such that } |S| = n\}.$ A 123 graph whose edge set is empty is called a null graph or a totally disconnected 124 graph. The strong vertex connectivity of G is defined by $K(G) = \min\{n \geq 0 :$ 125 there exists a vertex subset $S \subseteq V(G)$ with |S| = n such that G - S is totally 126 disconnected \}. An edge cut of G is a subset $T \subseteq E(G)$ such that the graph 127 G-T, whose vertex set is V(G) and edge set is E(G)-T, is disconnected. The 128 edge connectivity of G is defined by $\lambda(G) = \min\{n \geq 0 : \text{there exists an edge cut}\}$ 129 $T \subseteq E(G)$ such that |S| = n. 130

Definition 2.9. A vertex set S of a graph G is a dominating set if each vertex of G either belongs to S or is adjacent to a vertex in S. The domination number $\gamma(G)$ of G is the minimum cardinality of S as S varies over all dominating sets of G.

Definition 2.10. An independent vertex set of a graph G is a subset of the vertices such that no two vertices in the subset represent an edge in G. The independence number $\alpha(G)$ of G is the cardinality of the largest independent vertex set.

Definition 2.11. A subset S of V(G) is convex if I[S] = S. If A is a subset of V(G), then the convex hull of A (denoted by [A]) is the smallest convex set in

G containing A. If [A] = V(G), then A is called a hull set of G. The smallest cardinality of a hull set of G is called the hull number of G and is denoted by h(G).

Definition 2.12. Let G be a graph. Suppose C is a cycle G with more than three vertices. A *chord* of C is an edge of G, which is not an edge of G, but whose endpoints are vertices of G. G is called *chordal* if every n-cycle in G with n > 3 possesses a chord.

Definition 2.13. An asteroidal triple of a graph (with at least six vertices) is an independent set of three vertices such that for any pair of distinct vertices of the set, there is a path between the two that contains no vertex adjacent to the third.

Definition 2.14. Two graphs are edge-disjoint if they have no edge in common.

A decomposition of a graph G is a family \mathcal{F} of edge-disjoint subgraphs of G such that $\bigcup_{F \in \mathcal{F}} E(F) = E(G)$. A separation of a connected graph is a decomposition of the graph into two nonempty connected subgraphs which have just one vertex in common. This common vertex is called a separating vertex of the graph G.

Definition 2.15. A circuit in a graph that includes all the edges of the graph is called an $Euler\ circuit$. A graph G is said to be Eulerian if either G is a trivial graph or G has an Euler circuit.

3. Interplay between the intersection graph of ideals of a near-ring and direct product of its subnear-rings

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Definition 3.1. Let I(N) be the set of all non-zero proper ideals of a near-ring N. The intersection graph of ideals of N, denoted by G(N), is a undirected simple graph (without loops and multiple edges) with vertex set I(N) and two vertices I and J are adjacent if and only if $I \neq J$ and $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$.

Example 3.2. Consider the near-ring $N = \{0, a, b, c\}$ together with two binary operations '+' and '.' defined by

+	0	a	b	c			0			
0	0	a	b	c	•	0	0	0	0	0
a	a	0	c	b	and	a	0	a	0	a
b	b	c	0	a		b	b	b	b	b
c	c	b	a	0		c	b	c	b	c

The non-zero proper ideals of N are $I = \{0, a\}$ and $J = \{0, b\}$. So, the intersection graph G(N) consists of two vertices I and J. The graph G(N) is:

I J • • •

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Figure 1.

Example 3.3. $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_n)$, the set of all constant mappings from \mathbb{Z}_n to \mathbb{Z}_n , forms a near-ring with pointwise addition and composition. The intersection graphs corresponding to $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ for $n = p^4$, p^2q , pqr, where p,q and r are distinct primes, are given below.

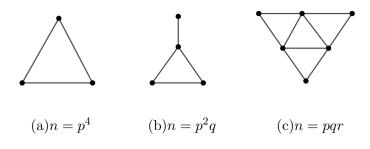


Figure 2.

Theorem 3.4. Let N be a near-ring. Then G(N) is complete if and only if N is subdirectly irreducible.

 $\bigcap_{I(\neq \{0\})\ ideal\ in\ N}$ **Proof.** Let N be a subdirectly irreducible near-ring. Then 176 $\{0\}$ (cf. Theorem 1.60, pp. 25 [13]). This implies that $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$, for 177 any two non-trivial ideals I and J. Hence, G(N) is complete. Conversely, 178 let G(N) be complete. To prove N is subdirectly irreducible, it is enough to $\bigcap_{K(\neq\{0\})\ ideal\ in\ N}K\neq\{0\}\ \text{in view of Theorem 1.60[13]}.\ \text{If possible, let}$ prove that 180 $K = \{0\}$. Then there exist at least two non-zero proper ideals 181 L, M such that $L \cap M = \{0\}$, which contradicts the fact that G(N) is complete. 182 This proves the result. 183

Though the following results can be proved in a similar fashion to those in rings (cf. [2, 8]). We state them for their immediate use.

Theorem 3.5. The graph G(N) of a near-ring N is disconnected if and only if N contains at least two minimal ideals which are maximal, too and every non-trivial ideal of N is minimal as well as maximal.

- Corollary 3.6. For any G(N) of a near-ring N, whenever G(N) is disconnected, it is a null-graph.
- Theorem 3.7. Let N be a near-ring and G(N) be a connected graph. Then $diam(G(N)) \leq 2$.
- Theorem 3.8. The graph G(N) of a zero-symmetric integral near-ring N (but not a near-field) is complete.
- Theorem 3.9. Let N be a near-ring which has the DCCI. Then G(N) is complete if and only if N has a unique minimal ideal.
- Theorem 3.10. Let N be a near-ring. If G(N) is disconnected, then N is a direct product of two simple near-rings.
- **Proof.** Since G(N) is disconnected, Theorem 3.5 shows that there exist at least 199 two maximal ideals I and J of N such that $I \cap J = \{0\}$ and I + J = J + I = N. 200 Now, we are going to show that N is isomorphic to the direct product $N/I \times N/J$. 201 Define $\phi: N \to N/I \times N/J$ by $\phi(n) = (n+I, n+J)$. Let $n_1, n_2 \in N$. Then $\phi(n_1) +$ 202 $\phi(n_2) = (n_1 + I, n_1 + J) + (n_2 + I, n_2 + J) = (n_1 + n_2 + I, n_1 + n_2 + J) = \phi(n_1 + n_2)$ and 203 $\phi(n_1)\phi(n_2) = (n_1 + I, n_1 + J)(n_2 + I, n_2 + J) = (n_1n_2 + I, n_1n_2 + J) = \phi(n_1n_2).$ 204 Therefore, ϕ is a near-ring homomorphism. Now, $Ker\phi = \{n \in N | \phi(n) = 0\}$ $\{(0+I,0+J)\} = \{n \in N | (n+I,n+J) = (0+I,0+J)\} = \{n \in N | n+I = 0+I\}$ 206 and n+J=0+J = $\{n \in N | n \in I \text{ and } n \in J\} = \{n \in N | n \in I \cap J = \{0\}\} = \{0\}.$ 207 So, ϕ is one-one. Now, suppose that $(n_1+I, n_2+J) \in N/I \times N/J$. Since N=I+J, 208 there exist $i_1, i_2 \in I$ and $j_1, j_2 \in J$ such that $n_1 = i_1 + j_1, n_2 = i_2 + j_2$. Now, 209 since I is normal in $(N,+), -j_1+i_1+j_1 \in I \Rightarrow -j_1+i_1+j_1=i_1'$, for some 210 $i_1' \in I \Rightarrow i_1 + j_1 = j_1 + i_1'$. Also, $-j_1 + i_2 + j_1 \in I \Rightarrow -j_1 + i_2 + j_1 = i_2'$, for 211 some $i'_2 \in I \Rightarrow i_2 = j_1 + i'_2 - j_1 \Rightarrow i_2 + j_1 = j_1 + i'_2$. We have, $\phi(j_1 + i'_2) = j_1 + i'_2 = j_$ $(j_1 + i'_2 + I, j_1 + i'_2 + J) = (j_1 + I, i_2 + j_1 + J) = (j_1 + i'_1 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + i'_2 + I, i_2 + J) = (i_1 + I, i_2 + J) = ($ j_1+I, i_2+j_2+J) = (n_1+I, n_2+J) . So, ϕ is onto. Hence, ϕ is an isomorphism. 214 Also, since I and J are maximal in N, N/I and N/J are simple. 215
- Theorem 3.11. Let N be a near-ring containing a non-zero proper direct summand. Then G(N) is never a complete graph.
- **Proof.** Let I be a non-zero proper direct summand of N. By Definition 4.7, there exists a non-zero proper ideal J of N such that $I \bigoplus J = N$. This implies that $I \cap J = \{0\}$. So, the vertices I and J are not adjacent. Hence, G(N) is not complete.
- Lemma 3.12. Let I be a non-zero proper direct summand of a near-ring N. If deg(I) is finite, then N has the DCCI.

Proof. Suppose that $I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq I_3 \supseteq \cdots$ is a chain of ideals of I. Then each I_i is an ideal of N (cf. Theorem 2.12, pp. 46 [13]). So, each $I_i \not= \{0\}$ is a vertex in G(N) and is adjacent with I. If I does not have the DCCI, then deg(I) is not finite, a contradiction. Thus, I has the DCCI. In a similar way, we can show that N/I has the DCCI. Hence, N has the DCCI (cf. Theorem 2.35, pp. 51 [13]).

Theorem 3.13. Let N be a near-ring containing a non-zero proper direct summand and G(N) be regular. Then G(N) is a null graph.

Proof. Let N be a near-ring containing a non-zero proper direct summand I 231 and G(N) be regular. If possible, suppose that G(N) is not null. By Corollary 232 3.6, G(N) is connected. Then G(N) is either complete or not. But Theorem 3.11 233 shows that G(N) is not complete. Clearly, deq(I) is finite as G(N) is regular. So, 234 from Lemma 3.12, N has the DCCI, which confirms the existence of a minimal 235 ideal of N. Now, from Theorem 3.9, N has at least two minimal ideals I_1 and 236 I_2 (say). Clearly, I_1 and I_2 are not adjacent and $diam(G(N)) \leq 2$ (by Theorem 237 3.7). Therefore, there exists a non-trivial ideal J of N such that I_1 -J- I_2 is a 238 path. So, $I_1, I_2 \subseteq J$. Thus, each vertex adjacent to I_1 is adjacent to J, too. 239 Again, J is adjacent to I_2 but I_1 is not adjacent to I_2 . This argument shows that 240 $deg(J) > deg(I_1)$, which contradicts the fact that G(N) is regular. Hence, G(N)241 is a null graph. 242

Theorem 3.14. Let N be a finite near-ring such that (N, +) is cyclic and let M be a maximal ideal of N. Then M is a non-zero proper direct summand of N if and only if deg(M) = n - 2, where |V(G(N)| = n.

Proof. Suppose that M is a non-zero proper direct summand of N. Then there 246 exists a non-zero proper ideal I such that M+I=N and $M\cap I=\{0\}$. This implies that $deg(M) \leq n-2$. If possible, let $deg(M) \leq n-2$. Then there exists 248 a non-zero proper ideal $J \neq I$ such that $M \cap J = \{0\}$. Since M is maximal, 249 M + J = N. Clearly, |N| = |M + I| = |M||I| and |N| = |M + J| = |M||J| as 250 M+I=M+J=N and $M\cap I=M\cap J=\{0\}$. So, |I|=|J|=|N|/|M|. 251 Since (N, +) is a finite cyclic group, I = J which is a contradiction. Therefore, 252 deg(M) = n - 2. Conversely, let deg(M) = n - 2, where |V(G(N))| = n. Then 253 there exists a non-zero proper ideal K of N such that $M \cap K = \{0\}$. Hence, 254 M+K=N as M is maximal. This implies that $M \bigoplus K=N$. Thus, M is a 255 non-zero proper direct summand of N. 256

Note 3.15. It is clear from the proof that N need not be finite and (N, +) need not be cyclic for the converse part of the above theorem.

The following corollary comes directly from the above theorem.

Corollary 3.16. Let N be a near-ring. If M is a maximal ideal of N such that deg(M) = n - 2, where |V(G(N))| = n, then M is not essential.

Theorem 3.17. Let N be a near-ring and M be a maximal ideal of N. If M is not a direct summand of N, then G(N) is connected. Moreover, deg(M) = n-1, where |V(G(N))| = n.

Proof. Suppose that $M \cap J = \{0\}$, where J is any ideal of N. If possible, let $J \neq \{0\}$. Then $M \subsetneq M + J$. We have, $M + J \subsetneq N$. Otherwise, if M + J = N, then M is a direct summand, a contradiction. Therefore, $M \subsetneq M + J \subsetneq N$, which contradicts the fact that M is maximal. Thus, $M \cap J = \{0\}$ implies $J = \{0\}$. So, we can conclude that M is adjacent to all other non-trivial ideals of N and hence, G(N) is connected and deg(M) = n - 1.

Theorem 3.18. Let N be a finite near-ring such that (N,+) is a cyclic group. If M is a maximal ideal of N, then deg(M) is either (n-1) or (n-2), where |V(G(N))| = n.

Proof. Suppose that M is a non-zero proper direct summand of N. Then, from Theorem 3.14, we have deg(M) = (n-2). If M is not a direct summand of N, then, from Theorem 3.17, we have deg(M) = (n-1). This completes the proof.

Note that the above result is not true for a near-ring N such that (N, +) is not cyclic, which is clear from the following example.

Example 3.19. Consider the near-ring $N = \{0, a, b, c\}$ together with two binary operations '+' and '.' defined by

+	0	a	b	c			0	a	b	c
0	0	a	b	c		0	0	0	0	0
a	a	0	c	b	and	a	a	a	a	a
b	b	c	0	a		b	b	b	b	b
c	c	b	a	0		c	c	c	c	c

Here, (N,+) is not cyclic and the non-zero proper ideals of the near-ring N are $I=\{0,a\},\ J=\{0,b\}$ and $K=\{0,c\}$. Clearly, I,J and K are non-zero maximal ideals of N. But deg(I)=deg(J)=deg(K)=0=|V(G(N))|-3.

Theorem 3.20. If N is an indecomposable near-ring, then G(N) is connected.

Proof. Let N be an indecomposable near-ring and let I, J be any two distinct non-zero proper ideals of N.

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Case I. If $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$, then G(N) becomes complete and hence, connected.

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Case II. Suppose that $I \cap J = 0$. We have, $I + J \neq N$. Otherwise, if I + J = N, then N becomes decomposable, a contradiction. So, $I + J \in V(G(N))$ and I-292 (I + J) - J is path between I and J. Thus, in any case, there exists a path between any two distinct vertices. Hence, G(N) is connected.

- Remark 3.21. Note that the converse of the above result is not true in general. For example, if we consider the near-ring $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30})$ with pointwise addition and composition, where $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30})$ denotes the set of all constant mappings from \mathbb{Z}_{30} to \mathbb{Z}_{30} , then $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30}))$ is connected, but $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30})$ is decomposable.
- Corollary 3.22. For a local near-ring N, G(N) is connected. Moreover, $diam(G(N)) \leq 2$.
- Proof. Let N be a local near-ring. Then N is indecomposable (cf. pp. 400 [13]). Thus, G(N) is connected. Hence, by Theorem 3.7, $diam(G(N)) \le 2$.
- Theorem 3.23. Let N be a near-ring. If I is a non-zero proper direct summand of N, then G(I) is an induced subgraph of G(N).
- **Proof.** Let I be a non-zero proper direct summand of N. Then each ideal of I is an ideal of N (cf. Theorem 2.12, pp. 46 [13]). So, $V(G(I)) \subseteq V(G(N))$. By Definition 3.1, it is clear that two vertices in G(I) are adjacent if and only if they are adjacent in G(N). Hence, G(I) is an induced subgraph of G(N).
- Note that the converse is not true. As example: consider the near-ring $(\mathbb{Z}_8,+,\cdot)$. Here, $G((\bar{2}))$ is an induced subgraph of $G(\mathbb{Z}_8)$. But $(\bar{2})$ is not a direct summand of \mathbb{Z}_8 .
- 311 4. Interplay between intersection graph and essential ideals of a Near-Ring
- Theorem 4.1. An ideal I of a near-ring N is essential if and only if deg(I) = n 1, where |V(G(N))| = n. Hence, the maximum degree of G(N), $\Delta(G(N)) = n$ deg(I).
- **Proof.** Let I be an essential ideal of a near-ring N with |V(G(N))| = n. Then $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$ for any non-trivial ideal J, which implies that I is adjacent with all other vertices in G(N). Thus, deg(I) = |V(G(N))| 1. Conversely, let deg(I) = |V(G(N))| 1. Then I is adjacent with all other vertices in G(N). Therefore, $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$, for any non-trivial ideal $J \neq I$ of I. Hence, I is an essential ideal of I.
- Theorem 4.2. Let N be a near-ring. If N contains an essential ideal, then G(N) is connected.

- **Proof.** Let N be a near-ring containing an essential ideal I. Since I is an essential ideal of $N, I \cap J \neq \{0\}$ for any non-trivial ideal $J \neq I$ of N which implies that I is adjacent to all other vertices in G(N). Thus, for any two distinct vertices M and K, there exists a path M-I-K from M to K. Hence, G(N) is connected.
- Note that the converse of this result is not true. For example: consider the near-ring $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30})$ with pointwise addition and composition, where $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30})$ denotes the set of all constant mappings from \mathbb{Z}_{30} to \mathbb{Z}_{30} . Here, $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30}))$ is connected (cf. Figure 2), but $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30})$ does not contain any essential ideal.
- Theorem 4.3. Let N be a near-ring. If G(N) is complete, then N contains an essential ideal.
- Proof. Let G(N) be complete. Suppose that I is a vertex in G(N). Since G(N) is complete, deg(I) = |V(G(N))| 1. Hence, from Theorem 4.1, I is an essential ideal of N.
- Note that the converse of the result is not true in general. As example: consider the near-ring $(\mathbb{Z}_{18},+,\cdot)$. Here, $(\bar{3})$ is an essential ideal. But $G(\mathbb{Z}_{18})$ is not complete (cf. Figure 3 [8]).
- Theorem 4.4. Let I be a minimal ideal of a near-ring N which has the DCCI. Then G(N) is complete if and only if I is essential.
- **Proof.** Let G(N) be complete. Then, from the proof of Theorem 4.3, it is clear that I is an essential ideal of N. Conversely, let I be a minimal as well as an essential ideal of N. Then I is the unique minimal ideal of N. Otherwise, if there exists another minimal ideal J ($\neq I$), $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$, which contradicts the fact that I is an essential ideal of N. Hence, from Theorem 3.9, G(N) is complete.
- Theorem 4.5. Let N be a near-ring. If I is an essential ideal of N, then the eccentricity of I is 1.
- **Proof.** Let I be an essential ideal of N. Then, for any non-trivial ideal J of N, $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$ which implies that the distance between I and J, d(I,J) = 1. Thus, the eccentricity of I, $e(I) = \max\{d(I,J) : J \in V(G(N))\} = 1$.
- Theorem 4.6. Let N be a near-ring. If I is an essential ideal of N, then I is central.
- Proof. Let I be an essential ideal of a near-ring N. Then, by Theorem 4.5, the eccentricity of I is 1 which implies that the radius of the graph G(N) is 1. Thus, e(I) = rad(G(N)). Hence, I is central.
- Theorem 4.7. A near-ring N contains an essential ideal if and only if the domination number, $\gamma(G(N)) = 1$.

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Proof. Let us consider that N contains an essential ideal I. Then I is adjacent to all other vertices in G(N). This implies that \{I\} is a dominating set. Therefore, the minimum cardinality of any dominating set of G(N) is 1. Thus, the domination number, \gamma(G(N)) = 1. Conversely, suppose that domination number, \gamma(G(N)) = 1. Then there exists a dominating set \{J\} in G(N) whence any non-trivial ideal K (\neq \{0\}) of N, K is adjacent to J. This implies that J \cap K \neq \{0\} for any non-trivial ideal K of N. Therefore, J is an essential ideal of N.
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- Theorem 4.8. Let N be a near-ring. If N contains an essential ideal, then the complement $\overline{G(N)}$ of G(N) is disconnected.
- **Proof.** Let N be a near-ring containing an essential ideal I. Then, by Theorem 4.1, deg(I) = |V(G(N)| 1 in G(N) which implies that deg(I) = 0 in $\overline{G(N)}$. So, I is an isolated vertex in $\overline{G(N)}$. Hence $\overline{G(N)}$ is disconnected.
- Theorem 4.9. Let N be a near-ring and I be the unique essential ideal of N. If G(N) contains at least one vertex of degree one and $|V(G(N))| \geq 3$, then I is a cut vertex. Moreover, I is a separating vertex.
- **Proof.** Let J be a non-trivial ideal such that deg(J)=1. Now, $|V(G(N))|\geq 3$ implies that $I\neq J$. Theorem 4.2 shows that G(N) is connected. Clearly, I is the only vertex adjacent with J. So, J is an isolated vertex in the induced subgraph G'(N) with vertex set $V(G(N))-\{I\}$. Hence, I is a cut vertex in G(N). Again, since every cut vertex is a separating vertex, I is a separating vertex.
- Theorem 4.10. Let N be a near-ring containing a unique essential ideal I. If all non-trivial ideals except I are minimal, then G(N) is a star.
- **Proof.** Let $\{I_i: i \in H\}$, where H is an index set, be the set of all non-zero proper ideals (except I) of N. Since I is an essential ideal, I is adjacent to I_i for all $i \in H$. Also, since I_i 's are minimal, $I_i \cap I_j = 0$ for all $i, j \ (i \neq j)$ implies I_i and I_j are not adjacent for all $i, j \in H$. So, the vertex set can be partitioned into two subsets $X = \{I\}$ and $Y = \{I_j: j \in H\}$ such that each edge has one end in X and one end in Y. Hence, G(N) is a star graph.

The following corollary comes directly from the above theorem.

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- Corollary 4.11. Let N be a near-ring containing a unique essential ideal I. If all non-trivial ideals except I are minimal, then G(N) is a rooted tree with root vertex I.
- Theorem 4.12. Let N be a near-ring containing at least one essential ideal. If $|V(G(N))| = n \ (\geq 2)$, then $1 \leq \kappa(G(N)) \leq \lambda(G(N)) \leq \delta(G(N)) \leq n-1$, where $\kappa(G(N))$, $\lambda(G(N))$ and $\delta(G(N))$ denote the vertex connectivity, the edge connectivity and the minimum degree of G(N) respectively.

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Proof. Let I an essential ideal of N. Theorem 4.2 shows that G(N) is connected, which implies that the minimum cardinality of a vertex cut is 1. Hence, 1 \le \kappa(G(N)). Now, Theorem 4.1 shows that \Delta(G(N)) = deg(I), which implies that \delta(G(N)) \le deg(I) = n - 1. Also, for any graph G, it is well known that \kappa(G) \le \lambda(G) \le \delta(G). Hence, the result is proved.
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- Theorem 4.13. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly r $(r \ge 1)$ essential ideals. If |V(G(N))| = n $(\ge r)$, then $r \le \kappa(G(N)) \le \lambda(G(N)) \le \delta(G(N)) \le n-1$, where $\kappa(G(N))$, $\lambda(G(N))$ and $\delta(G(N))$ denote the vertex connectivity, the edge connectivity and the minimum degree of G(N) respectively.
- Proof. Let $S = \{I_i : i = 1, 2, \dots, r\}$ be the finite set of essential ideals of N.

 Theorem 4.12 shows that the result is true for r = 1. Suppose that $r \geq 2$. Let $S' \subseteq V(G(N))$ such that V(G(N)) S' contains at least one essential ideal.

 Then, by Theorem 4.2, it is clear that G(N) S' is connected. So, S' can not be a vertex cut. Therefore, any vertex cut V' is a superset of S. Thus, the vertex connectivity $\kappa(G(N)) \geq r$. Hence, by Theorem 4.12, we have $r \leq \kappa(G(N)) \leq 1$.
- Theorem 4.14. Let N be a near-ring containing a unique essential ideal I.
- (i) If G(N) does not contain a cycle, then G(N) is a star.
- 414 (ii) If G(N) contains a cycle, then I is contained in a 3-cycle.
- **Proof.** (i) Suppose that G(N) does not contain a cycle. Then any two distinct vertices different from I are not adjacent. Since I is an essential ideal of N, I is adjacent with all other vertices in G(N). Thus, G(N) is a star.
- (ii) Let us consider that G(N) contains a cycle $C_n = I_1 I_2 \cdots I_n I_1$ ($n \geq 3$). First consider that I is in C_n . If n = 3, then we are done. Suppose $n \geq 4$. Let $I = I_k$ ($k \notin \{1, n\}$). Then $I_1 - I_k - I_n - I_1$ forms a 3-cycle. If $I = I_1$, then $I_1 - I_2 - I_3 - I_1$ forms a 3-cycle. If $I = I_n$, then $I_n - I_1 - I_2 - I_n$ forms a 3-cycle. Now, suppose that I is not in C_n . Since I is adjacent with I_1 and I_2 , $I - I_1 - I_2 - I$ forms a 3-cycle. Hence, the result is proved.
- Theorem 4.15. Let N be a near-ring containing at least two essential ideals. If $|V(G(N))| \ge 3$, then G(N) contains a 3-cycle.
- **Proof.** Let I, J be two essential ideals and $K (\neq I, J)$ be any non-trivial ideal of N. Clearly, I and J are adjacent and K is adjacent with I, J. Thus, I-J-K-I forms a 3-cycle.
 - The following corollary comes directly from the above theorem.

Corollary 4.16. Let N be a near-ring containing at least two essential ideals. If $|V(G(N))| \ge 3$, then

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- (i) G(N) cannot be a tree,
- 433 (ii) the girth of G(N) is 3, and
- 434 (iii) G(N) is never bipartite.
- Note that the converse of Corollary 4.16(iii) is not true in general. For example: consider the near-ring $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{12})$ with pointwise addition and composition, where $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{12})$ denotes the set of all constant mappings from \mathbb{Z}_{12} to \mathbb{Z}_{12} . Here, G(\mathbb{Z}_{12}) is not bipartite (cf. Figure 2), but $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{12})$ contains exactly one essential ideal.
- Theorem 4.17. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals. If G(N) is planar, then deg(I) = 3, for any non-essential ideal I of N.
- **Proof.** Let J, K, L be three essential ideals and I be any non-trivial non-essential ideal of N. Clearly, $deg(I) \geq 3$. If possible, let $deg(I) \geq 3$. Then there exists at least one non-trivial ideal $P \neq I, J, K, L$ of N such that I is adjacent to P. Since J, K, L are essential ideals, they are adjacent to P also. Thus, the graph induced by the following set of vertices $\{I, J, K, L, P\}$ is isomorphic to K_5 , which contradicts the fact that G(N) is planar. Hence, deg(I) = 3.
- Example 4.18. If N is a near-ring containing no essential ideal, then the above result in Theorem 4.17 is not true in general. Consider the near-ring $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30})$, the set of all constant mappings from \mathbb{Z}_{30} to \mathbb{Z}_{30} , with pointwise addition and composition. Here, $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30})$ contains no essential ideal and $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{30}))$ is planar (cf. Figure 2). But there is no non-essential ideal of degree 3.
- Example 4.19. If N is a near-ring containing exactly one essential ideal, then the above result in Theorem 4.17 is not true in general. Because, the near-ring $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{12})$ contains exactly one essential ideal and $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{12}))$ is planar (cf. Figure 2.), but there is no non-essential ideal of degree 3 in $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{12}))$.
- Example 4.20. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly two essential ideals. If G(N) is non-planar, then the above result in Theorem 4.17 is not true in general. Because, the near-ring $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{24})$ contains exactly two essential ideals and $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{24}))$ is non-planar, but there is no non-essential ideal of degree 3 in $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{24}))$.
- Example 4.21. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals. If G(N) is non-planar, then the above result in Theorem 4.17 is not true in general. Because, the near-ring $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{36})$ contains exactly three essential ideals and $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{36}))$ is non-planar, but there is no ideal of degree 3 in $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{36}))$.
- Theorem 4.22. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals. If G(N) is planar and $|V(G(N))| \ge 4$, then the chromatic number of G(N) is 4.

Proof. Let J, K, L be three essential ideals and $\{I_i : i \in H\}$, where H is an index set, be the set of non-zero proper non-essential ideals of N. Clearly, J, K, L are adjacent to each other. This shows that we need 3 different colours to colour J, K, L. Moreover, Theorem 4.17 shows that each I_i is adjacent to J, K, L and I_i, I_j are not adjacent for all i, j ($i \neq j$). So, all I_i 's can be coloured by only one colour different from the colours of J, K, L. Thus, the chromatic number of G(N) is 4.

Theorem 4.23. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals. If G(N) is planar and |V(G(N))| = n+3 $(n \ge 3)$, then G(N) contains no asteroidal triple.

Proof. Suppose that $\{I_i: i=1,2,\ldots,n\}$ is the set of all non-zero proper non-essential ideals of N. Then $V'=\{I_1,I_2,\ldots,I_n\}$ is the largest independent vertex subset of V(G(N)). We take a vertex subset $\bar{V}=\{u,v,w\}$ of V'. Note that any two among these three vertices are connected by an essential ideal which is adjacent with the third one. Thus, any vertex subset \bar{V} of V' is not an asteroidal triple. Hence, the theorem is proved.

Theorem 4.24. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals. If G(N) is planar and |V(G(N))| = n+3 $(n \in \mathbb{N})$, then the independence number $\alpha(G(N)) = n$.

Proof. Let I, J, K be three essential ideals and $\{I_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$ be the set of non-zero proper non-essential ideals of N. Since G(N) is planar, Theorem 4.17 shows that $deg(I_i) = 3$ for all i = 1, 2, ..., n. So, each I_i is adjacent with I, J, K only. Thus, $\{I_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$ is the largest independent vertex set in G(N). Hence, the independence number $\alpha(G) = |\{I_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\}| = n$.

Theorem 4.25. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals. If G(N) is planar and |V(G(N))| = n + 3 $(n \ge 3)$, then the geodetic number g(G(N)) = n.

Proof. Let I, J, K be three essential ideals and $\{I_i : i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ be the set 495 non-trivial non-essential ideals of N, where $n \geq 3$. We are going to show that 496 $S = \{I_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\}$ is a geodetic set of G(N). Since G(N) is planar, Theorem 4.17 shows that $deg(I_i) = 3$ i.e., I_i is adjacent with I, J, K only, for 498 all i = 1, 2, ..., n. We take the vertices $I_1, I_2, I_3 \in S$. Clearly, the paths I_1 -I-499 I_2 , I_1 -J- I_3 , I_2 -K- I_3 are I_1 - I_2 , I_1 - I_2 , I_2 - I_3 geodesics (respectively). This implies 500 that $I, J, K \in I[S]$. So, I[S] = V(G) i.e., S is a geodetic set of G. To prove the 501 theorem it is enough to show that S is a geodetic set with minimum cardinality. If possible, let there exist $S' \subseteq S$ such that S' is a geodetic set of G(N). Without loss of generality, suppose that $S' = S - \{I_r\}$ for some $r \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}$. Since

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each I_i is adjacent with I, J, K only, there is no shortest path from I_i to I_j
    (i, j \neq r) through I_r. This implies that I_r does not belong to I[S']. Therefore,
    I[S'] \neq V(G(N)), which contradicts the fact that S' is a geodetic set of G(N).
507
    Hence, S is a geodetic set of G(N) with minimum cardinality. Thus, the geodetic
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    number g(G(N)) = |S| = n.
509
    Theorem 4.26. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals.
    If G(N) is planar and |V(G(N))| = n+3 (n \ge 3), then the hull number h(G(N))
511
    is 2.
512
    Proof. Let I, J, K be three essential ideals and \{I_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\} be the set
513
    non-trivial non-essential ideals of N, where n \geq 3. Theorem 4.17 shows that
514
    each vertex I_i of V = \{I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n\} is adjacent with I, J, K only. Clearly, the
515
    convex hull [v] of any single vertex v is \{v\}. Now, we take the vertex subset
516
    S = \{I_i, I_j\} for some i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}. We are to show that S is a hull set
    with minimum cardinality. Now, for any vertex subset S' of V(G(N)) such that
518
    S \subseteq S' \subseteq \overline{V}, I[S'] \neq S' as at least one of I, J, or K belongs to I[V'], where
519
    V' \subseteq \bar{V} such that |V'| = k \ (2 \le k \le n). Now, \bar{V} \cup \{I\} \cup \{J\} \subseteq I[\bar{V} \cup \{I\}]
520
    and I[\bar{V} \cup \{I\} \cup \{J\}] = V(G(N)). Therefore, V(G(N)) is the smallest convex
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    set containing S. So, S is a hull set with minimum cardinality. Hence, the hull
    number h(G(N)) = |S| = 2.
523
    Theorem 4.27. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals.
    If G(N) is planar and |V(G(N))| = n + 3 (n \ge 2), then G(N) is chordal.
525
    Proof. Let I, J, K be three essential ideals and \{I_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\} be the finite
526
    set of non-trivial non-essential ideals of N, where n \geq 1. Theorem 4.17 shows
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    that no two vertices of \{I_i : i = 1, 2, ..., n\} are adjacent. So, any n-cycles
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    C_n (n \geq 4) contains at least two vertices of \{I, J, K\} which are not adjacent
529
    in C_n but adjacent in G(N) because I, J, K are adjacent with each other. This
530
    implies that every n-cycle (n \ge 4) possesses a chord. Hence, G(N) is chordal.
531
    Theorem 4.28. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals.
532
    If G(N) is planar and |V(G(N))| = n + 3 (n \ge 2), then G(N) is never Eulerian.
533
    Proof. Let G(N) be planar and |V(G(N))| = n + 3 (n \ge 2). Theorem 4.17
534
    shows that deg(I) = 3 for any non-essential ideal I. Clearly, G(N) is connected
535
    and degree of each vertex is not even. Hence, G(N) is not Eulerian (cf. Theorem
536
    3.1.1 [12]).
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    Theorem 4.29. Let N be a near-ring containing exactly three essential ideals.
    If G(N) is planar and |V(G(N))| = n + 3, then the vertex connectivity \kappa(G(N))
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and the edge connectivity $\lambda(G(N))$ are 3. Moreover, the strong vertex connectivity

 $K(G(N)) = \kappa(G(N)) = 3.$

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Proof. Let $S = \{I, J, K\}$ be the set of essential ideals and $\{I_i : i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$ be the finite set of non-trivial non-essential ideals of N, where $n \geq 2$. Since G(N)543 is planar, Theorem 4.17 shows that $deg(I_i) = 3$ for all $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. So, the 544 minimum degree $\delta(G(N)) = 3$. Then, by Theorem 4.13, we have $3 \le \kappa(G(N)) \le$ 545 $\lambda(G(N)) \leq 3$ which implies that $\kappa(G(N)) = \lambda(G(N)) = 3$. Moreover, since G(N) - S is a null set i.e., G(N) - S is totally disconnected, S is a strong vertex 547 cut. Clearly, S is a minimum strong vertex cut. So, the strong vertex connectivity 548 K(G(N)) is 3. Hence, the result is proved. 549

Theorem 4.30. Let N be a near-ring containing at least four essential ideals. 550 If $|V(G(N))| \geq 5$, then G(N) is non-planar. 551

Proof. Let I_1, I_2, I_3, I_4 be essential ideals and J be an non-trivial ideal of N 552 different from I_i (i = 1, 2, 3, 4). Then the induced subgraph of G(N) with vertex 553 set $\{I_1, I_2, I_3, I_4, J\}$ is K_5 . Hence, G(N) is non-planar. 554

Note that the converse of the above theorem is not true in general. For example: consider the near-ring $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{56})$ with pointwise addition and composition, where $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{56})$ denotes the set of all constant mappings from \mathbb{Z}_{56} to \mathbb{Z}_{56} . Here, $G(M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{56}))$ is non-planar, but $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_{56})$ contains exactly two essential ideals.

5. Concluding remarks

In this paper, we have studied several graphical properties of the intersection 560 graph of ideals of a near-ring N in terms of direct summand and essential ideal of 561 N. Based on our work done here, we mention below some possible future scope 562 for further study. 563

- 1. One can determine the chromatic number, the independence number, the geodetic number and the hull number of a non-planar intersection graph. 565
- 2. One can study the graphical properties of the intersection graph of ideals of 566 the direct product of near-rings. 567
 - 3. It will be nice if one can exhibit a near-ring containing a unique essential ideal I such that I is a cut vertex as well as a separating vertex but the corresponding intersection graph has no vertex of degree one to counter the converse part of Theorem 4.9.
- 4. $M(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ denotes the set of all mappings from \mathbb{Z}_n to \mathbb{Z}_n and $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ denotes 572 the set of all constant mappings from \mathbb{Z}_n to \mathbb{Z}_n . Here, we observed that the 573 intersection graph of $M_c(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ and the intersection graph of \mathbb{Z}_n are isomorphic 574 (cf. Figure 2 and Figure 3 [8]). One can establish the relation between 575 the intersection graphs corresponding to \mathbb{Z}_n and $M(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ and hence one can 576 generalize that result for an arbitrary additively written group Γ . 577

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