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ABSTRACT. Let R be a commutative ring with nonzero identity, Z(R) be its set of zero-divisors, and if $a \in Z(R)$, then let $ann_R(a) = \{d \in R \mid da = 0\}$. The annihilator graph of R is the (undirected) graph AG(R) with vertices $Z(R)^* = Z(R) \setminus \{0\}$, and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if $ann_R(xy) \neq ann_R(x) \cup ann_R(y)$. It follows that each edge (path) of the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(R)$ is an edge (path) of AG(R). The extended zerodivisor graph of R is the undirected (simple) graph EG(R) with the vertex set $Z(R)^*$, and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if either $Rx \cap ann_R(y) \neq \{0\}$ or $Ry \cap ann_R(x) \neq \{0\}$. Hence it follows that the zerodivisor graph $\Gamma(R)$ is a subgraph of EG(R). In this paper, we collect some properties (many are recent) of the two graphs AG(R) and EG(R).

1. INTRODUCTION

Let R be a commutative ring with nonzero identity, and let Z(R) be its set of zero-divisors. Over the past several years, there has been considerable attention in the literature to associating graphs with commutative rings (and other algebraic structures) and studying the interplay between ring-theoretic and graph-theoretic properties; see the recent survey articles [10] and [47]. For example, as in [16], the zero-divisor graph of R is the (simple) graph $\Gamma(R)$ with vertices $Z(R) \setminus \{0\}$, and distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if xy = 0. This concept is due to Beck [29], who let all the elements of R be vertices and was mainly interested in colorings. The zero-divisor graph of a ring R has been studied extensively by many authors, for example see([1]-[3], [11], [20]-[21], [39]-[44], [48]-[54], [58]). We recall from [12], the total graph of R, denoted by $T(\Gamma(R))$ is the (undirected) graph with all elements of R as vertices, and for distinct $x, y \in R$, the vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if $x + y \in Z(R)$. The total graph (as in [12]) has been investigated in [8], [7], [6], [5], [47], [49], [52], [36] and [56]; and several variants of the total graph have been studied in [4], [13], [14], [15], [19], [28], [35], [32], [33], [34], [37], [38], and [45]. Let $a \in Z(R)$ and let $ann_R(a) = \{r \in R \mid ra = 0\}$. In 2014, Badawi [23] introduced the annihilator graph of R. We recall from [23] that the annihilator graph of R is the (undirected) graph AG(R) with vertices $Z(R)^* = Z(R) \setminus \{0\}$, and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if $ann_R(xy) \neq ann_R(x) \cup ann_R(y)$. It follows that each edge (path) of the classical zero-divisor of R is an edge (path) of AG(R). For Further investigations of AG(R), see [24], [25], and [31]. The authors in [26] and [27] introduced the extended zero-divisor graph of R. We recall from [26] that the extended zero-divisor graph of R is the undirected (simple) graph EG(R)

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with the vertex set $Z(R)^*$, and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if either $Rx \cap ann_R(y) \neq \{0\}$ or $Ry \cap ann_R(x) \neq \{0\}$. Hence it follows that the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(R)$ is a subgraph of EG(R).

Let G be a (undirected) graph. We say that G is connected if there is a path between any two distinct vertices. For vertices x and y of G, we define d(x, y) to be the length of a shortest path from x to y (d(x, x) = 0 and $d(x, y) = \infty$ if there is no path). Then the diameter of G is $diam(G) = \sup\{ d(x, y) \mid x \text{ and } y \text{ are vertices} of G \}$. The girth of G, denoted by gr(G), is the length of a shortest cycle in G ($gr(G) = \infty$ if G contains no cycles).

A graph G is complete if any two distinct vertices are adjacent. The complete graph with n vertices will be denoted by K^n (we allow n to be an infinite cardinal). A complete bipartite graph is a graph G which may be partitioned into two disjoint nonempty vertex sets A and B such that two distinct vertices are adjacent if and only if they are in distinct vertex sets. If one of the vertex sets is a singleton, then we call G a star graph. We denote the complete bipartite graph by $K^{m,n}$, where |A| = m and |B| = n (again, we allow m and n to be infinite cardinals); so a star graph is a $K^{1,n}$ and $K^{1,\infty}$ denotes a star graph with infinitely many vertices. By \overline{G} , we mean the complement graph of G. Let G_1, G_2 be two graphs. The join of G_1 and G_2 , denoted by $G_1 \vee G_2$, is a graph with the vertex set $V(G_1 \cup G_2) = V(G_1) \cup V(G_2)$ and edge set $E(G_1 \cup G_2) = E(G_1) \cup E(G_2) \cup \{u - v | u \in G_1, v \in G_2\}$. Finally, let $\overline{K}^{m,3}$ be the graph formed by joining $G_1 = K^{m,3}$ (= $A \cup B$ with |A| = m and |B| = 3) to the star graph $G_2 = K^{1,m}$ by identifying the center of G_2 and a point of B.

Throughout, R will be a commutative ring with nonzero identity, Z(R) its set of zero-divisors, Nil(R) its set of nilpotent elements, U(R) its group of units, T(R) its total quotient ring, and Min(R) its set of minimal prime ideals. For any $A \subseteq R$, let $A^* = A \setminus \{0\}$. We say that R is reduced if $Nil(R) = \{0\}$ and that R is quasi-local if R has a unique maximal ideal. A prime ideal P of R is called an associated prime ideal, if $ann_R(x) = P$, for some non-zero element $x \in R$. The set of all associated prime ideals of R is denoted by Ass(R), and $\sum = \{ann_R(x)|0 \neq x \in R\}$. The distance between two distinct vertices a, b of $\Gamma(R)$ is denoted by $d_{\Gamma(R)}(a, b)$. If AG(R) is identical to $\Gamma(R)$, then we write $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$; otherwise, we write $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$. As usual, \mathbb{Z} and \mathbb{Z}_n will denote the integers and integers modulo n, respectively.

2. Basic properties of AG(R)

We recall the following basic results from [23].

Theorem 2.1. ([23, Theorem 2.2]) Let R be a commutative ring with $|Z(R)^*| \ge 2$. Then AG(R) is connected and $diam(AG(R)) \le 2$.

Theorem 2.2. ([23, Theorem 2.4]) Let R be a commutative ring. Suppose that x-y is an edge of AG(R) that is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$ for some distinct $x, y \in Z(R)^*$. If $xy^2 \neq 0$ and $x^2y \neq 0$, then there is a $w \in Z(R)^*$ such that x - w - y is a path in AG(R) that is not a path in $\Gamma(R)$, and hence C : x - w - y - x is a cycle in AG(R) of length three and each edge of C is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$.

In view of Theorem 2.2, we have the following result.

Corollary 2.3. ([23, Corollary 2.5])

Let R be a reduced commutative ring. Suppose that x - y is an edge of AG(R)that is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$ for some distinct $x, y \in Z(R)^*$. Then there is a $w \in$ $ann_R(xy) \setminus \{x, y\}$ such that x - w - y is a path in AG(R) that is not a path in $\Gamma(R)$, and hence C : x - w - y - x is a cycle in AG(R) of length three and each edge of C is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$.

In light of Corollary 2.3, the following result follows.

Theorem 2.4. ([23, Theorem 2.6]) Let R be a reduced commutative ring and suppose that $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$. Then gr(AG(R)) = 3. Furthermore, there is a cycle C of length three in AG(R) such that each edge of C is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$.

In view of Theorem 2.2, the following is an example of a non-reduced commutative ring R where x - y is an edge of AG(R) that is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$ for some distinct $x, y \in Z(R)^*$, but every path in AG(R) of length two from x to y is also a path in $\Gamma(R)$.

Example 2.5. Let $R = \mathbb{Z}_8$. Then 2 - 6 is an edge of AG(R) that is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$. Now 2 - 4 - 6 is the only path in AG(R) of length two from 2 to 6 and it is also a path in $\Gamma(R)$. Note that $AG(R) = K^3$, $\Gamma(R) = K^{1,2}$, $gr(\Gamma(R)) = \infty$, gr(AG(R)) = 3, $diam(\Gamma(R)) = 2$, and diam(AG(R)) = 1.

The following is an example of a non-reduced commutative ring R such that $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$ and if x - y is an edge of AG(R) that is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$ for some distinct $x, y \in Z(R)^*$, then there is no path in AG(R) of length two from x to y.

- **Example 2.6.** (1) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$ and let a = (0, 1), b = (1, 2), and c = (0, 3). Then a - b and c - b are the only two edges of AG(R) that are not edges of $\Gamma(R)$, but there is no path in AG(R) of length two from a to b and there is no path in AG(R) of length two from c to b. Note that $AG(R) = K^{2,3}$, $\Gamma(R) = \overline{K}^{1,3}, gr(AG(R)) = 4, gr(\Gamma(R)) = \infty, diam(AG(R) = 2, and$ $diam(\Gamma(R)) = 3.$
 - (2) Let $R = \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[X]/(X^2)$. Let $x = X + (X^2) \in \mathbb{Z}_2[X]/(X^2)$, a = (0, 1), b = (1, x), and c = (0, 1 + x). Then a b and c b are the only two edges of AG(R) that are not edges of $\Gamma(R)$, but there is no path in AG(R) of length two from a to b and there is no path in AG(R) of length two from c to b. Again, note that $AG(R) = K^{2,3}$, $\Gamma(R) = \overline{K}^{1,3}$, gr(AG(R)) = 4, $gr(\Gamma(R)) = \infty$, diam(AG(R) = 2, and $diam(\Gamma(R)) = 3$.

If $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$ and gr(AG(R)) = 4, then the following result characterize, up to isomorphism, all such rings.

Theorem 2.7. ([23, Theorem 2.9]) Let R be a commutative ring and suppose that $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) gr(AG(R)) = 4;
- (2) $gr(AG(R)) \neq 3;$
- (3) If x y is an edge of AG(R) that is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$ for some distinct $x, y \in Z(R)^*$, then there is no path in AG(R) of length two from x to y;
- (4) There are some distinct $x, y \in Z(R)^*$ such that x y is an edge of AG(R) that is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$ and there is no path in AG(R) of length two from x to y;

(5) R is ring-isomorphic to either $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$ or $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[X]/(X^2)$.

In view of Theorem 2.7, the following result follows

Corollary 2.8. ([23, Corollary 2.10]) Let R be a commutative ring such that $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$ and assume that R is not ring-isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times B$, where $B = \mathbb{Z}_4$ or $B = \mathbb{Z}_2[X]/(X^2)$. If E is an edge of AG(R) that is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$, then E is an edge of a cycle of length three in AG(R).

A direct implication of Theorem 2.7 and Corollary 2.8 is the following result.

Corollary 2.9. ([23, Corollary 2.11]) Let R be a commutative ring such that $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$. Then $gr(AG(R)) \in \{3, 4\}$.

Theorem 2.10. ([24, Theorem 2.5]) Let R be a non-reduced ring such that R is not ring-isomorphic to $Z_2 \times B$, where $B = Z_4$ or $B = \frac{Z_2[X]}{(X^2)}$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) $gr(AG(R)) = \infty;$
- (2) AG(R) is a star graph;
- (3) AG(R) is a bipartite graph;
- (4) AG(R) is a complete bipartite graph;
- (5) $\sum^* = Ass(R) = \{ann_R(x), ann_R(y)\}$ for some $x, y \in Z(R)^*$. Furthermore, if $ann_R(x) = ann_R(y)$, then $|ann_R(x)| = |Z(R)| = 3$ and if $ann_R(x) \neq ann_R(y)$, then $\sum^* = \{Z(R), ann_R(Z(R))\}$ and $|ann_R(Z(R))^*| = 1$.

Theorem 2.11. ([24, Corollary 2.3]) Let R be a ring. Then AG(R) is a complete bipartite graph if and only if one of the following statements holds:

- (1) $Nil(R) = \{0\}$ and |Min(R)| = 2;
- (2) $Nil(R) \neq \{0\}$ and either $AG(R) = K^{1,n}$ or $AG(R) = K^{2,3}$, where $1 \le n \le \infty$.

Let x be a vertex of AG(R). In the following result, the authors in [24] gave conditions under which x is adjacent to every vertex in $\Gamma(R)$.

Theorem 2.12. ([24, Theorem 2.6]) Let R be a ring and x be a vertex of AG(R). Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) x is adjacent to every other vertex of $\Gamma(R)$;
- (2) $ann_R(x)$ is a maximal element of \sum and x is adjacent to every other vertex of AG(R).

Recall that a undirected simple graph G = (V, E) is called an *n*-partite graph if $V = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n$ for some $n \ge 2$, where each $A_i \ne \phi$, $A_i \cap A_j = \phi$, $i \ne j$, $1 \le i, j \le n$, and $x, y \in A_i$ implies x - y is not an edge of G.

The authors in [25] prove the following result.

Theorem 2.13. ([25, Theorem 2.1]) Let $R = D_1 \times \cdots \times D_n$, where $n \ge 2$ and D_i is an integral domain for every $1 \le i \le n$. Then the following statements hold:

(1) AG(R) is an $nC\left\lceil \frac{n}{2}\right\rceil$ -partite graph (Recall that mCn (m choose n) = $\frac{m!}{n!(m-n)!}$.)

(2) AG(R) is not an $nC\lceil \frac{n}{2}\rceil - 1$ -partite graph.

3. When does
$$AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$$
?

It is natural to ask when does $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$? For a reduced ring R that is not an integral domain, we have the following results.

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3.1. Case I: R is reduced.

Theorem 3.1. ([23, Theorem 3.3]) Let R be a reduced commutative ring that is not an integral domain. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(1) AG(R) is complete;

(2) $\Gamma(R)$ is complete (and hence $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$);

(3) R is ring-isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$.

Theorem 3.2. ([23, Theorem 3.4]) Let R be a reduced commutative ring that is not an integral domain and assume that Z(R) is an ideal of R. Then $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$ and gr(AG(R)) = 3.

Theorem 3.3. ([23, Theorem 3.5]) Let R be a reduced commutative ring with $|Min(R)| \ge 3$ (possibly Min(R) is infinite). Then $AG(R) \ne \Gamma(R)$ and gr(AG(R)) = 3.

Theorem 3.4. ([23, Theorem 3.6]) Let R be a reduced commutative ring that is not an integral domain. Then $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$ if and only if |Min(R)| = 2.

Theorem 3.5. ([23, Theorem 3.7]) Let R be a reduced commutative ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(1) gr(AG(R)) = 4;

(2) $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$ and $gr(\Gamma(R)) = 4$;

(3) $gr(\Gamma(R)) = 4;$

(4) T(R) is ring-isomorphic to $K_1 \times K_2$, where each K_i is a field with $|K_i| \ge 3$; (5) |Min(R)| = 2 and each minimal prime ideal of R has at least three distinct elements;

(6) $\Gamma(R) = K^{m,n}$ with $m, n \ge 2$;

(7) $AG(R) = K^{m,n}$ with $m, n \geq 2$.

Theorem 3.6. ([23, Theorem 3.8]) Let R be a reduced commutative ring that is not an integral domain. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(1) $gr(AG(R)) = \infty;$

(2) $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$ and $gr(AG(R)) = \infty$;

(3) $gr(\Gamma(R)) = \infty;$

(4) T(R) is ring-isomorphic to $Z_2 \times K$, where K is a field;

(5) |Min(R)| = 2 and at least one minimal prime ideal ideal of R has exactly two distinct elements;

(6) $\Gamma(R) = K^{1,n}$ for some $n \ge 1$;

(7) $AG(R) = K^{1,n}$ for some $n \ge 1$.

In view of Theorem 3.5 and Theorem 3.6, we have the following result.

Corollary 3.7. ([23, Corollary 3.9]) Let R be a reduced commutative ring. Then $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$ if and only if $gr(AG(R)) = gr(\Gamma(R)) \in \{4, \infty\}$.

If R is non-reduced, then we have the following results.

3.2. Case II: R is non-reduced.

Theorem 3.8. ([24, Theorem 2.2]) Let R be a ring such that for each edge of AG(R), say x-y, either $ann_R(x) \in Ass(R)$ or $ann_R(y) \in Ass(R)$. Then $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$. In particular, if $\sum^* = Ass(R)$, then $\Gamma(R) = AG(R)$.

Theorem 3.9. ([24, Theorem 2.3]) Let R be a non-reduced ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) $\Gamma(R) = AG(R) = K^n \vee \overline{K^m}$, where $n = |Nil(R)^*|$ and $m = |Z(R) \setminus Nil(R)|$.
- (2) $ann_R(Z(R))$ is a prime ideal of R.
- (3) $\sum^* = Ass(R)$ and $|\sum^*| \le 2$.

Theorem 3.10. ([23, Theorem 3.15]) Let R be a non-reduced commutative ring such that Z(R) is not an ideal of R. Then $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$.

Theorem 3.11. ([23, Theorem 3.16]) Let R be a non-reduced commutative ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:

(1) gr(AG(R)) = 4;(2) $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$ and gr(AG(R)) = 4; (3) R is ring-isomorphic to either $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_4$ or $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2[X]/(X^2)$; (4) $\Gamma(R) = \overline{K}^{1,3}$; (5) $AG(R) = K^{2,3}$.

We observe that $gr(\Gamma(\mathbb{Z}_8)) = \infty$, but $gr(AG(\mathbb{Z}_8)) = 3$. We have the following result.

Theorem 3.12. ([23, Theorem 3.17]) Let R be a commutative ring such that $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) $\Gamma(R)$ is a star graph;
- (2) $\Gamma(R) = K^{1,2};$
- (3) $AG(R) = K^3$.

Theorem 3.13. ([23, Theorem 3.18]) Let R be a non-reduced commutative ring with $|Z(R)^*| \geq 2$. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) AG(R) is a star graph;
- (2) $gr(AG(R)) = \infty;$
- (3) $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$ and $gr(\Gamma(R)) = \infty$;

(4) Nil(R) is a prime ideal of R and either $Z(R) = Nil(R) = \{0, -w, w\}$ $(w \neq -w)$ for some nonzero $w \in R$ or $Z(R) \neq Nil(R)$ and $Nil(R) = \{0, w\}$ for some nonzero $w \in R$ (and hence $wZ(R) = \{0\}$); (5) Either $AG(R) = K^{1,1}$ or $AG(R) = K^{1,\infty}$; (6) Either $\Gamma(R) = K^{1,1}$ or $\Gamma(R) = K^{1,\infty}$.

Corollary 3.14. ([23, Corollary 3.19]) Let R be a non-reduced commutative ring with $|Z(R)^*| \geq 2$. Then $\Gamma(R)$ is a star graph if and only if $\Gamma(R) = K^{1,1}$, $\Gamma(R) = K^{1,1}$. $K^{1,2}, \ or \ \Gamma(R) = K^{1,\infty}.$

Remark 3.15. In view of Theorem 2.10, the authors in [24] gave an alternative proof of Theorem 3.13 (see [24, Corollary 2.4]).

In the following example, we construct two non-reduced commutative rings say R_1 and R_2 , where $AG(R_1) = K^{1,1}$ and $AG(R_2) = K^{1,\infty}$.

- (1) Let $R_1 = \mathbb{Z}_3[X]/(X^2)$ and let $x = X + (X^2) \in R_1$. Then Example 3.16. $Z(R_1) = Nil(R_1) = \{0, -x, x\}$ and $AG(R_1) = \Gamma(R_1) = K^{1,1}$. Also note that $AG(\mathbb{Z}_9) = \Gamma(\mathbb{Z}_9) = K^{1,1}$.
 - (2) Let $R_2 = \mathbb{Z}_2[X,Y]/(XY,X^2)$. Then let $x = X + (XY + X^2)$ and y = $Y + (XY + X^2) \in R_2$. Then $Z(R_2) = (x, y)R_2$, $Nil(R_2) = \{0, x\}$, and $Z(R_2) \neq Nil(R_2)$. It is clear that $AG(R_2) = \Gamma(R_2) = K^{1,\infty}$.

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Remark 3.17. Let R be a non-reduced commutative ring. In view of Theorem 3.10, Theorem 3.11, and Theorem 3.13, if $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$, then Z(R) is an ideal of R and $gr(AG(R)) = gr(\Gamma(R)) \in \{3,\infty\}$. The converse is true if $gr(AG(R) = gr(\Gamma(R)) = \infty$ (see Theorem 3.10 and 3.13). However, if Z(R) is an ideal of R and $gr(AG(R)) = gr(\Gamma(R)) = 3$, then it is possible to have all the following cases:

- (1) It is possible to have a commutative ring R such that Z(R) is an ideal of R, $Z(R) \neq Nil(R), AG(R) = \Gamma(R), and gr(AG(R)) = 3.$ See Example 3.18.
- (2) It is possible to have a commutative ring R such that Z(R) is an ideal of R, $Z(R) \neq Nil(R)$, $Nil(R)^2 = \{0\}$, $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$, $diam(AG(R)) = diam(\Gamma(R)) = 2$, and $gr(AG(R)) = gr(\Gamma(R)) = 3$. See Example 3.19.
- (3) It is possible to have a commutative ring R such that Z(R) is an ideal of R, $Z(R) \neq Nil(R)$, $Nil(R)^2 = \{0\}$, AG(R) is a complete graph (i.e., diam(AG(R)) = 1), $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$, $diam(\Gamma(R)) = 2$, and $gr(AG(R)) = gr(\Gamma(R)) = 3$. See Theorem 3.20.

Example 3.18. Let $D = \mathbb{Z}_2[X, Y, W]$, $I = (X^2, Y^2, XY, XW)D$ is an ideal of D, and let R = D/I. Then let x = X + I, y = Y + I, and w = W + I be elements of R. Then Nil(R) = (x, y)R and Z(R) = (x, y, w)R is an ideal of R. By construction, we have $Nil(R)^2 = \{0\}$, $AG(R) = \Gamma(R)$, $diam(AG(R)) = diam(\Gamma(R)) = 2$, and $gr(AG(R)) = gr(\Gamma(R)) = 3$ (for example, x - (x + y) - y - x is a cycle of length three).

Example 3.19. Let $D = \mathbb{Z}_2[X, Y, W]$, $I = (X^2, Y^2, XY, XW, YW^3)D$ is an ideal of D, and let R = D/I. Then let x = X + I, y = Y + I, and w = W + I be elements of R. Then Nil(R) = (x, y)R and Z(R) = (x, y, w)R is an ideal of R. By construction, $Nil(R)^2 = \{0\}$, $diam(AG(R)) = diam(\Gamma(R)) = 2$, $gr(AG(R)) = gr(\Gamma(R)) = 3$. However, since $w^3 \neq 0$ and $y \in ann_R(w^3) \setminus (ann_R(w) \cup ann_R(w^2))$, we have $w - w^2$ is an edge of AG(R) that is not an edge of $\Gamma(R)$, and hence $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$.

Given a commutative ring R and an R-module M, the *idealization* of M is the ring $R(+)M = R \times M$ with addition defined by (r, m) + (s, n) = (r + s, m + n) and multiplication defined by (r, m)(s, n) = (rs, rn + sm) for all $r, s \in R$ and $m, n \in M$. Note that $\{0\}(+)M \subseteq Nil(R(+)M)$ since $(\{0\}(+)M)^2 = \{(0, 0)\}$. We have the following result

Theorem 3.20. ([23, Theorem 3.24]) Let D be a principal ideal domain that is not a field with quotient field K (for example, let $D = \mathbb{Z}$ or D = F[X] for some field F) and let Q = (p) be a nonzero prime ideal of D for some prime (irreducible) element $p \in D$. Set $M = K/D_Q$ and R = D(+)M. Then $Z(R) \neq Nil(R)$, AG(R)is a complete graph, $AG(R) \neq \Gamma(R)$, and $gr(AG(R)) = gr(\Gamma(R)) = 3$.

The following example shows that the hypothesis "Q is principal" in the above Theorem is crucial.

Example 3.21. Let $D = \mathbb{Z}[X]$ with quotient field K and Q = (2, X)D. Then Q is a nonprincipal prime ideal of D. Set $M = K/D_Q$ and R = D(+)M. Then Z(R) = Q(+)M, $Nil(R) = \{0\}(+)M$, and $Nil(R)^2 = \{(0,0)\}$. Let a = (2,0) and $b = (0, \frac{1}{X} + D_Q)$. Then $ab = (0, \frac{2}{X} + D_Q) \in Nil(R)^*$. Since $ann_R(ab) = ann_R(b)$, we have a - b is not an edge of AG(R). Thus AG(R) is not a complete graph.

We terminate this section with the following open question.

(Open question, [24]): Let R be a non-reduced ring and x - y be an edge of AG(R). If $\Gamma(R) = AG(R)$, then is it true either $ann_R(x) \in Ass(R)$ or $ann_R(y) \in Ass(R)$?

4. CLIQUE NUMBER AND CHROMATIC NUMBER OF AG(R)

Let G = (V, E) be a graph. The clique number of G, denoted by w(G), is the largest positive integer n such that K_n is a subgraph of G. The chromatic number of G, denoted by $\chi(G)$, is the the minimal number of colors which can be assigned to the vertices of G in such a way that every two adjacent vertices have different colors. It should be clear that $w(G) \leq \chi(G)$. Again, recall that mCn (m choose n) $= \frac{m!}{n!(m-n)!}$.

Theorem 4.1. ([25, Theorem 2.2]) Assume that R is ring-isomorphic to $D_1 \times \cdots \times D_n$, where $n \geq 2$ and D_i is an integral domain for every $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then $w(AG(R)) = \chi(AG(R)) = nC\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$. In particular, if R is an Artinian ring, then $w(AG(R)) = \chi(AG(R)) = |Max(R)|C\lceil \frac{|Max(R)|}{2} \rceil$.

Theorem 4.2. ([25, Theorem 2.3]) Let R be a non-reduced ring. Then the following statements hold.

- (1) If $|Z(R)| < \infty$, then the following statements are equivalent:
 - (a) w(AG(R)) = |Nil(R)|.
 - (b) $\chi(AG(R)) = |Nil(R)|.$
 - (c) $AG(R) = K^{2,3}$.
- (2) If $|Z(R)| = \infty$, $w(AG(R)) < \infty$ and Z(R) is an ideal of R, then the following statements are equivalent:
 - (a) W(AG(R)) = |Nil(R)|.
 - (b) $\chi(AG(R)) = |Nil(R)|.$
 - (c) $AG(R) = K_{|Nil(R)^*|} \vee \overline{K_{\infty}}.$
 - (d) x y is not an edge of AG(R), for every $x, y \in Z(R) \setminus Nil(R)$.

It is well-known that if G is a bipartite graph, then $\chi(AG(R)) = 2$. In the following result, the authors in [25] classified all bipartite annihilator graphs of rings.

Theorem 4.3. ([25, Theorem 2.4]) Let R be a non-reduced ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) w(AG(R)) = 2;
- (2) $\chi(AG(R)) = 2;$
- (3) $AG(R) = K_{2,3} \text{ or } AG(R) = K_2 \text{ or } AG(R) = K_1 \vee \overline{K_{\infty}}.$

5. Genus of AG(R)

The genus of a graph G, denoted by g(G), is the minimal integer n such that the graph can be embedded in S_n . Intuitively, G is embedded in a surface if it can be drawn in the surface so that its edges intersect only at their common vertices. A graph G with genus 0 is called a planar graph and a graph G with genus 1 is called as a toroidal graph. Note that if H is a subgraph of a graph G, then $g(H) \leq g(G)$. In the following result, the authors in [31] classified all quasi-local rings (up to isomorphism) that have planar annihilator graphs.

Theorem 5.1. ([31, Theorem 15]) Let R be a quasi-local ring. Then AG(R)is a planar if and only if R is ring-isomorphic to one of the following rings: $Z_4, \frac{Z_2[X]}{(X^2)}, Z_9, \frac{Z_3[X]}{(X^3)}, Z_8, \frac{Z_2[X]}{(X^3)}, \frac{Z_4[X]}{(X^3, X^2 - 2)}, \frac{Z_2[X, Y]}{(X^2, XY, Y^2)}, \frac{Z_4[X]}{(2X, X^2)}, \frac{F_4[X]}{(X^2)}$ (where F_4 denotes a field with 4 elements), $\frac{Z_4[X]}{(X^2 + X + 1)}, Z_{25}$, or $\frac{Z_5[X]}{(X^2)}$.

For a reduced finite ring, we have the following result.

Theorem 5.2. ([31, Theorem 16]) Let R be a reduced finite ring that is not a field, i.e., $R = F_1 \times \cdots \times F_n$, where each F_i is a finite field and $n \geq 2$. Then AG(R) is planar if and only if R is ring-isomorphic to one of the following rings: $Z_2 \times F, Z_3 \times F, Z_2 \times Z_2 \times Z_2, Z_2 \times Z_2 \times Z_3$, where F is a finite field.

If R is a non-reduced finite ring, then we have the following.

Theorem 5.3. ([31, Theorem 17]) Assume that R is ring-isomorphic to $R_1 \times \cdots \times$ $R_n \times F_1 \times \cdots \times F_m$, where each R_i is a finite quasi-local ring that is not a field, each F_i is a finite field, and $n, m \ge 1$. Then AG(R) is planar if and only if R is ring-isomorphic to one of the following rings: $Z_4 \times Z_2$, $\frac{Z_2[X]}{(X^2)} \times Z_2$.

The following result classifies (up to isomorphism) all quasi-local rings that have genus one annihilator graphs.

Theorem 5.4. ([31, Theorem 18]) Let R be a quasi-local ring. Then g(AG(R)) = 1

The following result classifies (up to isomorphism) all finite reduced rings that have genus one annihilator graphs.

Theorem 5.5. ([31, Theorem 19]) Let R be a reduced finite ring that is not a field, *i.e.*, R is ring-isomorphic to $F_1 \times \cdots \times F_n$, where each F_i is a finite field and $n \ge 2$. Then g(AG(R)) = 1 if and only if R is ring-isomorphic to one of the following rings: $F_4 \times F_4, F_4 \times Z_5, Z_5 \times Z_5, \text{ or } F_4 \times Z_7.$

If R is a non-reduced finite ring, then we have the following.

Theorem 5.6. (31, Theorem 20) Assume that R is ring-isomorphic to $R_1 \times \cdots \times$ $R_n \times F_1 \times \cdots \times F_m$, where each R_i is a finite quasi-local ring that is not a field, each F_i is a finite field, and $n, m \ge 1$. Then g(AG(R)) = 1 if and only if R is ring-isomorphic to one of the following rings: $Z_4 \times Z_3$, or $\frac{Z_2[X]}{(X^2)} \times Z_3$.

6. Extended zero-divisor graph of R: EG(R)

Recall ([26]) that the extended zero-divisor graph of R is the undirected (simple) graph EG(R) with the vertex set $Z(R)^*$, and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if either $Rx \cap ann_R(y) \neq \{0\}$ or $Ry \cap ann_R(x) \neq \{0\}$. Hence it follows that the zero-divisor graph $\Gamma(R)$ is a subgraph of EG(R).

In the following result, we collect some basic properties of EG(R).

Theorem 6.1. ([26]) Let R be a ring. Then

- (1) ([26, Theorem 2.1]) EG(R) is connected and $diam(EG(R)) \le 2$. Moreover, if E(G) has a cycle, then $gr(EG(R)) \le 4$.
- (2) ([26, Theorem 2.2]) If EG(R) has a cycle, then gr(E(G)) = 4 if and only if R is reduced with |Min(R)| = 2.
- (3) ([26, Theorem 3.2]) EG(R) is a star graph if and only if one of the following statements holds:
 - (a) R is ring-isomorphic to $Z_2 \times D$, where D is an integral domain.
 - (b) |Z(R)| = 3.
 - (c) Nil(R) is a prime ideal of R and |Nil(R)| = 2.
- (4) ([26, Theorem 3.3]) Suppose that R is a non-reduced ring such that EG(R) is a star graph. Then the following statements hold:
 - (a) R is indecomposable.
 - (b) Either |Z(R)| = 3 or $|Z(R)| = \infty$.
- (5) Assume that R is ring-isomorphic to $D_1 \times \cdots \times D_n$, where $n \ge 2$ and each D_i is an integral domain. Then EG(R) is a complete (2^n-2) -partite graph.

Let R be a ring and $x, y \in R$. The authors in [26] called an element x an Ry-regular element if $x \notin Z(Ry)$ and $RxRy \neq Ry$.

Theorem 6.2. ([26, Theorem 3.5]) Let R be a non-reduced ring. Then EG(R) is complete if and only if R is indecomposable and either x is not Ry-regular or y is not Rx-regular, for every distinct $x, y \in Z(R)^*$.

7. WHEN DOES
$$EG(R) = \Gamma(R)$$
?

Since $\Gamma(R)$ is always an induced subgraph of EG(R), it is natural to ask when does $EG(R) = \Gamma(R)$? First, we consider the case when R is reduced.

7.1. Case I: R is reduced.

Theorem 7.1. ([26]) Let R be a reduced ring that is not an integral domain.

- (1) ([26, Theorem 4.1, Corollary 4.3]) Assume |Min(R)| = n. The following statements are equivalent:
 - (a) n = 2;
 - (b) $\Gamma(R) = EG(R);$
 - (c) $gr(EG(R)) = gr(\Gamma(R)) \in \{4, \infty\}.$
- (2) ([26, Corollary 4.1]) The following statements are equivalent:
 - (a) $gr(EG) = \infty$;
 - (b) $EG(R) = \Gamma(R)$ and $gr(EG(R)) = \infty$;
 - (c) $gr(\Gamma(R)) = \infty$;
 - (d) |Min(R)| = 2 and at least one minimal prime ideal of R has exactly two distinct elements;
 - (e) $\Gamma(R) = K_{1,n}$ for some $n \ge 1$.
 - (f) $EG(R) = K_{1,n}$ for some $n \ge 1$.
- (3) ([26, Corollary 4.2]) The following statements are equivalent:
 - (a) gr(EG(R)) = 4;
 - (b) $EG(R) = \Gamma(R)$ and $gr(\Gamma(R)) = 4$;
 - (c) gr(EG(R)) = 4;
 - (d) |Min(R)| = 2 and each minimal prime ideal of R has at least three distinct elements;
 - (e) $EG(R) = K_{m,n}$ for some $m, n \ge 2$;

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(f)
$$\Gamma(R) = K_{m,n}$$
 for some $m, n \ge 2$.

Now we consider the case when R is non-reduced.

7.2. Case II: R is non-reduced.

Theorem 7.2. ([26, Theorem 4.3]) Let R be a non-reduced ring. Then the following statements are equivalent:

- (1) $gr(EG(R)) = \infty;$
- (2) EG(R) is a star graph;
- (3) $EG(R) = \Gamma(R)$ and $gr(\Gamma(R)) = \infty$;
- (4) $ann_R(Z(R))$ is a prime ideal of R and either $|Z(R)| = |ann_R(Z(R))| = 3$ or $|ann_R(Z(R))| = 2$ and $|Z(R)| = \infty$;
- (5) $EG(R) = K_{1,1}$ or $EG(R) = K_{1,\infty}$;
- (6) $\Gamma(R) = K_{1,1} \text{ or } \Gamma(R) = K_{1,\infty}.$

8. When is EG(R) planar?

Recall that a graph G is called a planar if it can be drawn in the plane so that the edges of G do not cross.

Theorem 8.1. ([27, Theorem 3.2]) Let R be a ring such that either R is ringisomorphic to $R_1 \times R_2 \times R_3$ (for some rings R_1, R_2, R_3) or $|Min(R)| \ge 3$ and R is ring-isomorphic to $R_1 \times R_2$ (for some rings R_1, R_2), then EG(R) is not a planar.

For a reduced ring R, we have the following result.

Theorem 8.2. ([27, Theorem 3.3]) Let R be a reduced ring. Then the following statements hold:

- (1) EG(R) is planar;
- (2) |Min(R)| = 2 and one of the minimal prime ideals of R has at most three distinct elements.

For a non-reduced ring R, we have the following result.

Theorem 8.3. ([27]) Let R be a non-reduced ring. Then

- (1) ([27, Theorem 3.4]) Suppose that R is not ring-isomorphic to either Z_4 or $\frac{Z_2[X]}{(X^2)}$. Then
 - (a) Suppose that $|Z(R)| < \infty$. Then EG(R) is planar if and only if R is
 - ring-isomorphic to either $Z_2 \times Z_4$ or $Z_2 \times \frac{Z_2[X]}{(X^2)}$. (b) Suppose that $|Z(R)| = \infty$. Then EG(R) is planar if and only if $ann_R(R)$ is a prime ideal of R.
- (2) ([27, Theorem 3.5]) Suppose that |Nil(R)| = 3. Then $ann_R(Z(R))$ is a prime ideal of R if and only if EG(R) is planar.
- (3) ([27, Theorem 3.6]) If $|Nil(R)| \geq 6$, then EG(R) is not planar. If $4 \leq 1$ $|Nil(R)| \leq 5$, then EG(R) is planar if and only if Z(R) = Nil(R).

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