# The annihilator ideal graph of a commutative ring

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**Abstract.** Let R be a commutative ring with nonzero identity and I be a proper ideal of R. The annihilator graph of R with respect to I, which is denoted by  $AG_I(R)$ , is the undirected graph with vertex-set  $V(AG_I(R)) = \{x \in R \setminus I : xy \in I \text{ for some } y \notin I\}$  and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if  $A_I(xy) \neq A_I(x) \cup A_I(y)$ , where  $A_I(x) = \{r \in R : rx \in I\}$ . In this paper, we study some basic properties of  $AG_I(R)$ , and we characterise when  $AG_I(R)$  is planar, outerplanar or a ring graph. Also, we study the graph  $AG_I(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ , where  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is the ring of integers modulo n.

**Keywords:** Zero-divisor graph, Annihilator graph, Girth, Planar graph, Outerplanar, Ring graph

MSC 2000 classification: primary 05C10, 05C99, secondary 13A99

#### Introduction

Let R be a commutative ring with nonzero identity and let Z(R) be the set of zero-divisors of R. Recently, there has been considerable attention in the literature to associating graphs with algebraic structures (see [1, 9, 10, 11, 12]). Probably the most attention has been to the zero-divisor graph, which is denoted by  $\Gamma(R)$ . The set of vertices of  $\Gamma(R)$  is  $Z(R)^* = Z(R) \setminus \{0\}$ , and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if xy = 0. The concept of the zero-divisor graph goes back to Beck [5], who let all elements of R be vertices and was mainly interested in colorings. The zero-divisor graph was introduced and studied by D. F.

Anderson and P. S. Livingston in [2]. For a recent survey article on zero-divisor graphs see [3]. In [4], A. Badawi introduced the annihilator graph AG(R) for a commutative ring R. Let  $a \in R$  and  $\operatorname{ann}_R(a) = \{r \in R : ra = 0\}$ . The annihilator graph of R is the (undirected) graph with vertices  $Z(R)^*$ , and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if  $\operatorname{ann}_R(xy) \neq \operatorname{ann}_R(x) \cup \operatorname{ann}_R(y)$ . Clearly, each edge of  $\Gamma(R)$  is an edge of AG(R), and so  $\Gamma(R)$  is a subgraph of AG(R).

In [13], S. P. Redmond introduced the zero-divisor graph of a commutative ring R with respect to an ideal I of R. Let I be a proper ideal of R. The zero-divisor graph of R with respect to I, denoted by  $\Gamma_I(R)$ , is the graph whose vertices are the set

$$\{x \in R \setminus I : xy \in I \text{ for some } y \notin I\},\$$

and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if  $xy \in I$ . In [13], among other results the relationship between the graphs  $\Gamma_I(R)$  and  $\Gamma(R/I)$  was explored.

In this article, we introduce the annihilator graph of R with respect to a proper ideal I of R, which is denoted by  $AG_I(R)$ . Let  $x \in R$  and  $A_I(x) = \{r \in R : rx \in I\}$ . The annihilator graph of R with respect to I is the (undirected) graph  $AG_I(R)$  with vertices  $V(AG_I(R)) = \{x \in R \setminus I : xy \in I \text{ for some } y \notin I\}$ , and two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if  $A_I(xy) \neq A_I(x) \cup A_I(y)$ . In other words, two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if there exists  $x \in R \setminus I$  such that  $xxy \in I$  and  $xx, xy \notin I$ . Note that  $xxy \in I$  is a subgraph of  $xy \in I$ . Also if  $xy \in I$  and  $xy \in I$  is a subgraph of  $xy \in I$ . Also if  $xy \in I$  and  $xy \in I$  here we have  $xy \in I$ . We call the graph  $xy \in I$  the annihilator ideal graph.

In Section 2 of this paper, we study some basic properties of  $AG_I(R)$ . For instance, we show that if  $AG_I(R)$  is not identical to  $\Gamma_I(R)$ , then the girth of the graph  $AG_I(R)$  is at most 4 (see Theorem 2.7). In the third section, we study the planarity of  $AG_I(R)$ . In Section 4, we obtain some results on the annihilator ideal graph of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ , where  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is the ring of integers modulo n for a positive integer n. We also study situations under which the graphs  $AG_I(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  and  $\Gamma_I(\mathbb{Z}_n)$  are isomorphic.

Now, we give a brief necessary background of graph theory. Let X be an undirected graph. We use the notation V(X) for the set of vertices of X. Also, for a vertex  $x \in V(X)$ , N(x) denotes the set of vertices adjacent to x, and |N(X)| is called the *degree* of x. We say that the graph X is connected if there is a path between each pair of distinct vertices of X. For two distinct vertices x and y, we define d(x,y) to be the length of a shortest path between x and y ( $d(x,y) = \infty$  if there is no such path). The *diameter* of X is diam(X) =  $\sup\{d(x,y) : x \text{ and } y \text{ are distinct vertices of } X\}$ . The girth of X is the length

of a shortest cycle in X, denoted by gr(X) ( $gr(X) = \infty$  if X has no cycles). A clique of a graph is any complete subgraph of the graph and the number of vertices in a largest clique of X, denoted by  $\omega(X)$ , is called the clique number of X. A planar graph is a graph that can be embedded in the plane, that is, it can be drawn in the plane in such a way that its edges intersect only at their endpoints. Kuratowski provided a characterization of planar graphs, which is now known as Kuratowski's Theorem: A finite graph is planar if and only if it does not contain a subdivision of  $K_5$  or  $K_{3,3}$  [6, Theorem 9.10]. Suppose that X is a graph with n vertices and q edges. Also, assume that C is a cycle of X. A chord in X is any edge of X joining two non-adjacent vertices in C. A primitive cycle is a cycle without chords. Moreover, we say that a graph Xhas the primitive cycle property (PCP) if any two primitive cycles intersect in at most one edge. The free rank of X, denoted by frank(X), is the number of primitive cycles of X. Also, the number rank(X) = q - n + r, where r is the number of connected components of X, is called the cycle rank of X. The cycle rank of X can be expressed as the dimension of the cycle space of X. These two numbers satisfy the inequality  $\operatorname{rank}(X) \leq \operatorname{frank}(X)$ , as is seen in [7, Proposition 2.2]. The precise definition of a ring graph can be found in Section 2 of [7]; the authors showed that, for the graph X, the following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) X is a ring graph,
- (ii) rank(X) = frank(X),
- (iii) X satisfies PCP and X does not contain a subdivision of  $K_4$  as a subgraph.

Clearly ring graphs are planar. An undirected graph is an *outerplanar* graph if it can be drawn in the plane without crossings in such a way that all of the vertices belong to the unbounded face of the drawing. There is a characterization of outerplanar graphs that says a graph is outerplanar if and only if it does not contain a subdivision of the complete graph  $K_4$  or the complete bipartite graph  $K_{2,3}$  [8, Theorem 11.10]. Clearly, every outerplanar graph is planar. Let G and H be graphs. We use the notations G = H and  $G \cong H$  to denote identical and isomorphic graphs, respectively.

As usual,  $\mathbb{Z}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  will denote the rings of integers and integers modulo n, respectively.

## 1 Basic properties of $AG_I(R)$

In this section, we investigate the basic properties of  $AG_I(R)$ . Also, we study the relations between the graphs  $AG_I(R)$  and AG(R/I). The following proposition immediately follows from the definition of the graph  $AG_I(R)$ .

**Proposition 1.1.** Let I be a proper ideal of R. Then  $AG_I(R) = \emptyset$  if and only if I is a prime ideal.

**Proposition 1.2.** Let x + I and y + I be distinct elements in R/I. Then x + I is adjacent to y + I in AG(R/I) if and only if x is adjacent to y in  $AG_I(R)$ .

Proof. Since  $A_I(xy) \neq A_I(x) \cup A_I(y)$  if and only if  $ann_{R/I}(xy+I) \neq ann_{R/I}(x+I) \cup ann_{R/I}(y+I)$ , we have x+I is adjacent to y+I in AG(R/I) if and only if x is adjacent to y in  $AG_I(R)$ .

**Theorem 1.3.** If x + i is adjacent to y + i in  $AG_I(R)$ , for some  $i \in I$ , then all elements of x + I and y + I are adjacent in  $AG_I(R)$ .

*Proof.* Assume that x+i is adjacent to y+i, for some  $i \in I$ . Hence there exists  $r \in R \setminus I$  such that  $r(x+i)(y+i) \in I$ ,  $r(x+i) \notin I$ , and  $r(y+i) \notin I$ . Then, for every  $j, k \in I$ , we have  $r(x+j)(y+k) \in I$ ,  $r(x+j) \notin I$ , and  $r(y+k) \notin I$ . So all vertices of x+I and y+I are adjacent in  $AG_I(R)$ .

In the following example, we show that if  $AG(R/I) \cong AG(S/J)$ , where I and J are ideals of the rings R and S, respectively, then the graphs  $AG_I(R)$  and  $AG_J(S)$  are not necessarily isomorphic.

**Example 1.4.** Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}_6 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$  and  $I = 0 \times \mathbb{Z}_3$ . Then  $AG(R/I) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_6)$  with vertex-set  $\{(\overline{2},0),(\overline{3},0),(\overline{4},0)\}$ , where  $(\overline{3},0)$  is adjacent to both vertices  $(\overline{2},0)$  and  $(\overline{4},0)$ . Let  $S = \mathbb{Z}_{24}$  and J = < 8 >. Then  $AG(S/J) \cong AG(\mathbb{Z}_8)$  with vertex-set  $\{\overline{2},\overline{4},\overline{6}\}$ , where the vertex  $\overline{4}$  is adjacent to the vertices  $\overline{2}$  and  $\overline{6}$ . Now the graph  $AG_I(R)$  is pictured in Figure 1 while  $AG_J(S)$  is a complete graph. Hence  $AG(R/I) \cong AG(S/J)$ , but the graphs  $AG_I(R)$  and  $AG_J(S)$  are not isomorphic.

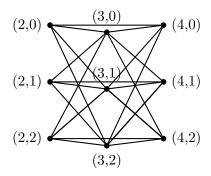


Figure 1

Let  $\{a_{\lambda}\}_{{\lambda}\in\Lambda}\subseteq R$  be a set of coset representatives of the vertices of AG(R/I). In [13], S. P. Redmond defined the concept of a column and a connected column. Here, we call the subset  $a_{\lambda}+I=\{a_{\lambda}+i:i\in I\}$  a column of  $AG_I(R)$ . Moreover, if there exists  $r\in R\setminus I$  such that  $ra_{\lambda}\notin I$  and  $ra_{\lambda}^2\in I$ , then we say that  $a_{\lambda}+I$  is a connected column of  $AG_I(R)$ .

Now the following two theorems follow immediately from the previous paragraph.

**Theorem 1.5.** If a + I is a connected column of  $AG_I(R)$ , then a + I is a complete subgraph of  $AG_I(R)$  and  $\omega(AG_I(R)) \geq |I|$ .

**Theorem 1.6.** If  $AG_I(R)$  has a connected column and  $|V(AG(R/I))| \ge 2$ , then  $\omega(AG_I(R)) \ge |I| + 1$ .

In the next theorem, we study the girth of the graph  $AG_I(R)$ .

**Theorem 1.7.** Let  $AG_I(R) \neq \Gamma_I(R)$ . Then  $gr(AG_I(R)) \leq 4$ .

Proof. Since  $AG_I(R) \neq \Gamma_I(R)$ , there exist adjacent vertices x and y such that  $xy \notin I$ . Thus there exists  $1 \neq r \in R \setminus I$  such that  $rxy \in I$ ,  $rx \notin I$  and  $ry \notin I$ . Now, if  $r \notin \{x,y\}$ , then it is easy to see that r is a vertex of  $AG_I(R)$  which is adjacent to both vertices x and y, and so we have the cycle x - r - y - x. Without loss of generality, we may assume that r = x. Then clearly  $x \neq x^2$ ,  $y \neq xy$  and we have the cycle  $x - y - x^2 - xy - x$ . So the result holds.

# 2 Planar, outerplanar and ring graph annihilator ideal graphs

We begin this section with the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.1.** Let |V(AG(R/I))| = 1. Then  $AG_I(R)$  is planar if and only if  $|I| \leq 4$ .

Proof. Suppose that  $V(AG(R/I)) = \{x + I\}$ . Clearly  $x^2 \in I$  and x + I is a connected column of  $AG_I(R)$ . Hence, by Theorem 1.5,  $AG_I(R)$  is isomorphic to the complete graph  $K_{|I|}$ . Therefore  $AG_I(R)$  is planar if and only if  $|I| \leq 4$ .

**Lemma 2.2.** Let  $|V(AG(R/I))| \ge 2$  and  $|I| \ge 3$ . Then  $AG_I(R)$  is not planar.

*Proof.* Suppose that a+I is a vertex of AG(R/I). Note that AG(R) is connected since  $\Gamma(R)$  is connected [2, Theorem 2.3], and  $\Gamma(R)$  is a subgraph of AG(R) with  $V(\Gamma(R)) = V(AG(R))$ . Now since  $|V(AG(R/I))| \ge 2$  and AG(R/I) is connected, there exists  $b \in R \setminus I$  such that the vertices a and b are adjacent

in  $AG_I(R)$ . Hence  $AG_I(R)$  has a subgraph isomorphic to  $K_{3,3}$  with vertex-set  $\{a, a+x_1, a+x_2\} \cup \{b, b+x_1, b+x_2\}$ , where  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are distinct elements in  $I \setminus \{0\}$ . So  $AG_I(R)$  contains a subgraph which is isomorphic to  $K_{3,3}$ . Thus  $AG_I(R)$  is not planar.

**Theorem 2.3.** Let |V(AG(R/I))| = 3 and |I| = 2. Then  $AG_I(R)$  is not planar if and only if AG(R/I) is complete such that at least one of its vertices is a connected column in  $AG_I(R)$ .

*Proof.* First assume that AG(R/I) is a complete graph with vertices a+I, b+I and c+I. Without loss of generality, we may assume that a+I is a connected column. Then  $AG_I(R)$  has a subgraph isomorphism to  $K_{3,3}$  with vertex-set  $\{b, b+x, a\} \cup \{c, c+x, a+x\}$ , where  $x \in I \setminus \{0\}$ . Hence  $AG_I(R)$  contains a copy of  $K_{3,3}$ , which means that it is not planar.

For the converse statement, assume to the contrary that if AG(R/I) is complete, then none of its vertices is a connected column, or AG(R/I) is not complete. If AG(R/I) is complete and no vertex is a connected column, then  $AG_I(R)$  is pictured in Figure 2, which is planar, and this is a contradiction.

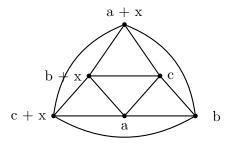


Figure 2

Now assume that AG(R/I) is not a triangle, say that a+I and c+I are not adjacent. Then  $AG_I(R)$  is pictured in Figure 3, which is planar, and this is a contradiction.

Hence the result holds.

QED

**Theorem 2.4.** Let  $|V(AG(R/I))| \ge 4$  and |I| = 2. Then  $AG_I(R)$  is not planar if and only if there exists a subdivision of the complete graph  $K_3$  in AG(R/I).

*Proof.* First assume that there exists a subdivision of the complete graph  $K_3$  in AG(R/I). Suppose that a+I, b+I, c+I and d+I are distinct vertices in AG(R/I). Now if these vertices form a square in AG(R/I), then  $AG_I(R)$  has a

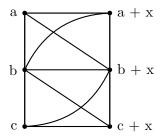


Figure 3

subgraph isomorphic to  $K_{3,3}$  with vertex-set  $\{a, a + x, c\} \cup \{b, b + x, d\}$ , where  $x \in I \setminus \{0\}$ . Hence  $AG_I(R)$  contains a subgraph isomorphic to  $K_{3,3}$ . So  $AG_I(R)$  is not planar. If a, b and c form a triangle in  $AG_I(R/I)$ , then, in view of Figure 4, the graph  $AG_I(R)$  contains a subdivision of  $K_{3,3}$ . So  $AG_I(R)$  is not planar.

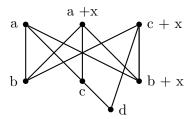


Figure 4

The converse statement is clear.

QED

**Theorem 2.5.** Let |V(AG(R/I))| = 1. Then  $|I| \le 3$  if and only if  $AG_I(R)$  is a ring graph and an outerplanar graph.

*Proof.* Since |V(A(R/I))| = 1, then, in view of the proof of Theorem 2.1,  $AG_I(R)$  is isomorphic to  $K_{|I|}$ . If  $|I| \ge 4$ , then  $AG_I(R)$  contains a subgraph which is isomorphic to  $K_4$ . So  $AG_I(R)$  is neither a ring graph nor an outerplanar graph.

The converse statement is clear.

QED

Since the graph  $AG_I(R)$  is isomorphic to AG(R) whenever |I| = 1, in the following theorem, we verify the case that  $|I| \ge 2$  and  $|V(A(R/I))| \ge 2$ .

**Theorem 2.6.** Assume that  $|I|, |V(AG(R/I))| \ge 2$ , and at least one of the sets V(AG(R/I)) or I has three elements. Then  $AG_I(R)$  is neither outerplanar nor a ring graph.

Proof. First, suppose that  $|I| \geq 3$ . Then the set of vertices  $\{a, a + x_1, a + x_2\} \cup \{b, b + x_1\}$ , where  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are distinct nonzero elements of I and a, b are distinct elements of  $R \setminus I$ , forms the graph  $K_{2,3}$ . So  $AG_I(R)$  contains a subgraph which is isomorphic to  $K_{2,3}$ . Assume that  $|V(AG(R/I))| \geq 3$  and that a + I, b + I, c + I are distinct vertices of AG(R/I). Since AG(R/I) is connected, we may assume that a + I and c + I are adjacent to b + I. Thus the vertices a and c are adjacent to b in  $AG_I(R)$ . Therefore the set of vertices  $\{a, a + x_1, c\} \cup \{b, b + x_1\}$  forms the graph  $K_{2,3}$ . Hence  $AG_I(R)$  contains a subgraph which is isomorphic to  $K_{2,3}$ . So  $AG_I(R)$  is neither outerplanar nor a ring graph.

In the following theorem, we study the outerplanar and ring graph annihilator ideal graphs in the remaining case |I| = 2 and |V(A(R/I))| = 2.

**Theorem 2.7.** Let |I| = |V(AG(R/I))| = 2. Then  $AG_I(R)$  is neither outerplanar nor a ring graph if and only if there exist two connected columns in  $AG_I(R)$ .

Proof. Note that  $AG_I(R)$  is connected since  $\Gamma_I(R)$  is connected [13, Theorem 2.4], and  $\Gamma_I(R)$  is a subgraph of  $AG_I(R)$  with  $V(\Gamma_I(R)) = V(AG_I(R))$ . We have |I| = |V(AG(R/I))| = 2, and  $|V(AG_I(R))| = 4$ . So it is easy to see that there exist two connected columns in  $AG_I(R)$  if and only if  $AG_I(R)$  is isomorphic to  $K_4$ . Therefore the result holds.

## 3 Annihilator ideal graph of $\mathbb{Z}_n$

In this section, we assume that n is a positive integer and p, q are distinct prime numbers that divide n. Also, for  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ ,  $\langle x \rangle$  denotes the ideal generated by x in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$ .

**Theorem 3.1.** Let 
$$R = \mathbb{Z}_n$$
 and  $I = \langle pq \rangle$ . Then  $AG_I(\mathbb{Z}_n) = \Gamma_I(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ .

Proof. Let x and y be adjacent vertices of  $AG_I(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ . Then there exists  $r \in R \setminus I$  such that  $rxy \in I$ ,  $rx \in R \setminus I$ , and  $ry \in R \setminus I$ . It is enough to show that  $xy \in I$ . Since  $rxy \in I$  and  $p \mid pq$ , we have  $p \mid rxy$ , which implies that  $p \mid r$ ,  $p \mid x$  or  $p \mid y$ , and  $q \mid r$ ,  $q \mid x$  or  $q \mid y$ . Let  $p \mid r$ . Since  $pq \nmid rx$  and  $pq \nmid ry$ , we have  $q \mid r$ . Thus  $pq \mid r^2$ , and this implies that  $pq \mid r$ . So  $r \in I$ , which is a contradiction. Let  $p \mid x$ . Then  $q \mid y$ . So  $xy \in I$ . The case that  $p \mid y$  is obtained in a similar way.

**Theorem 3.2.** Let 
$$R = \mathbb{Z}_n$$
 and  $I = \langle p^2 \rangle$ . Then  $AG_I(\mathbb{Z}_n) = \Gamma_I(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ .

*Proof.* The proof is similar to the proof of Theorem 3.1.

**Theorem 3.3.** Let  $R = \mathbb{Z}_{p^n}$  and  $I = \langle p^{n-i} \rangle$ , for some  $1 \leq i \leq n-1$ . Then  $AG_I(R)$  is a complete graph.

Proof. Let x and y be distinct vertices of  $V(AG_I(\mathbb{Z}_{p^n}))$ . Then  $xx' \in I$  and  $yy' \in I$ , for some vertices  $x', y' \in V(A_I(\mathbb{Z}_{p^n}))$ . Hence  $p^{n-i} \mid xx'$  and  $p^{n-i} \mid yy'$ . Set  $\alpha = \operatorname{Max}\{\alpha' \in \mathbb{N} : p^{\alpha'} \mid x\}$  and  $\beta = \operatorname{Max}\{\beta' \in \mathbb{N} : p^{\beta'} \mid y\}$ . Then we have  $p^{\alpha+\beta} \mid xy$ . Now, if  $\alpha+\beta \geq n-i$ , then  $xy \in I$ , which implies that x is adjacent to y. Let  $\alpha+\beta < n-i$  and put  $r=p^{n-i-(\alpha+\beta)}$ . This implies that  $rxy \in I$ , and we have that  $rx \in R \setminus I$ . Assume that  $rx \in I$ . Then  $p^{n-i} \mid p^{n-i-(\alpha+\beta)}p^{\alpha}a$ , where there exists  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $p^{\alpha}a = x$ . Thus  $p^{\beta} \mid a$ , and hence  $p^{\alpha+\beta} \mid x$ . Therefore we have  $\alpha+\beta \leq \alpha$  which implies that  $\beta=0$  and  $p^{n-i} \mid y'$ . This is a contradiction.

**Theorem 3.4.** Suppose that  $R = \mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $I = \langle k \rangle$ , where  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ . If there exist vertices  $a, b, k \in \mathbb{Z}_n$  such that gcd(a, k) = gcd(b, k), then deg(a) = deg(b) and  $N(a) \setminus \{b\} = N(b) \setminus \{a\}$ .

Proof. Let  $s \neq b$  be an adjacent vertex to a. Then there exists  $r \in R \setminus I$  such that  $rsa \in I, rs \notin I$ , and  $ra \notin I$ . Thus  $k \mid rsa$ ,  $k \nmid rs$ , and  $k \nmid ra$ . In order to show that  $s \in N(b)$ , it is enough to prove that  $k \mid rsb$ , and  $k \nmid rb$ . Set  $d = \gcd(a, k) = \gcd(b, k)$ . Then we have  $\frac{k}{d} \mid rs\frac{a}{d}$ , and so  $\frac{k}{d} \mid rs$ ,  $k \mid rsd$  and  $k \mid rsb$ . Now, assume on the contrary that  $k \mid rb$ . Then  $\frac{k}{d} \mid r\frac{b}{d}$ , and so  $\frac{k}{d} \mid r$ ,  $\frac{k}{d} \mid r\frac{a}{d}$ , and  $k \mid ra$ , which is contradiction. Therefore  $s \in N(b) \setminus \{a\}$ , and so the results hold.

**Theorem 3.5.** Suppose that  $R = \mathbb{Z}_n$  and  $I = \langle k \rangle$ , where  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ . If there exists an integer d > 1 such that  $d^2 \mid k$ , then  $gr(AG_I(\mathbb{Z}_n)) = 3$ .

Proof. Consider two distinct integers  $s_1, s_2$  such that  $gcd(s_1, k) = gcd(s_2, k) = 1$ . Then  $gcd(s_1d, k) = gcd(s_2d, k) = d$  and, by Theorem 3.4,  $N(s_1d) \setminus \{s_2d\} = N(s_2d) \setminus \{s_1d\}$ . Now it is easy to see that  $s_1d$  is adjacent to  $s_2d$  and there exist at least three vertices in  $AG_I(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ , which completes the proof.

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