# Total graph of a 0-distributive lattice 

S. Ebrahimi Atani, S. Dolati, M. Khoramdel*, and M. Sedghi


#### Abstract

Let $£$ be a 0 -distributive lattice with the least element 0 , the greatest element 1 , and $Z(£)$ its set of zero-divisors. In this paper, we introduce the total graph of $£$, denoted by $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$. It is the graph with all elements of $£$ as vertices, and for distinct $x, y \in £$, the vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if and only if $x \vee y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$. The basic properties of the graph $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$ and its subgraphs are studied. We investigate the properties of the total graph of 0 -distributive lattices as diameter, girth, clique number, radius, and the independence number.


## 1 Introduction

There has been a lot of activity over the past several years in associating a graph to an algebraic system such as a ring or semiring $[1,3,5,8,9,11,14]$. Recently, the study of the total graph property in the rings and modules has become quite popular. In many ways this program began with the paper in 2008, by D.F. Anderson and A. Badawi [2]. They introduced the total graph of a commutative ring $R$. Let $\mathrm{Z}(R)$ be the set of zero-divisors of $R$. The total graph of $R$, denoted by $\mathrm{T}(\Gamma(R))$, is the graph with all elements

[^0]of $R$ as vertices, and two distinct vertices $x, y \in R$ are adjacent if and only if $x+y \in \mathrm{Z}(R)$. In [2], they studied the three (induced) subgraphs $\operatorname{Nil}(\Gamma(R)), \mathrm{Z}(\Gamma(R))$, and $\operatorname{Reg}(\Gamma(R))$ of $\mathrm{T}(\Gamma(R))$ with vertices $\operatorname{Nil}(R), \mathrm{Z}(R)$, and $\operatorname{Reg}(R)$, respectively.

The study of zero-divisor graph of a poset was initiated by Halaš and Jukl [13]. There are many papers which study the zero-divisor graph of lattices $[11,14,16,17]$. Let $£$ be a lattice with the least element 0 and the greatest element 1. An element $a$ of $£$ is said to be zero-divisor if there exists $0 \neq b \in £$ such that $a \wedge b=0$. Let $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ be its set of zero-divisors. The zero-divisor graph, $G(£)$, is the graph with vertices $\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}=\mathrm{Z}(£) \backslash\{0\}$, the set of non-zero zero-divisors of $£$, and for distinct $x, y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$, the vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if and only if $x \wedge y=0$.

In this paper, we introduce the total graph of a lattice $£$ with respect to zero-divisor elements of $£$, denoted by $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$. It is the graph with all elements of $£$ as vertices, and for distinct $x, y \in £$, the vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if and only if $x \vee y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$. We are interested in investigating the total graph of a lattice to use other notions of total graph and associate which exist in the literature as laid forth in [2].

Now, we summarize the content of the paper. In the present paper, we study three (induced) subgraphs $\mathrm{Z}(G(£)), \operatorname{Reg}(G(£))$, and $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ of $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$, with vertices $\mathrm{Z}(£), £ \backslash \mathrm{Z}(£)$, and $\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$, respectively. In Section 2, we show that $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$ is not connected, but its subgraph $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ is always connected with $\operatorname{diam}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))) \in\{1,2\}$ and $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))) \in\{3, \infty\}$. It is shown that $\operatorname{diam}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=1$ if and only if $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is an ideal of $£$ and $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=3$ if and only if $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \geq 4$. Moreover, we give a description of a lower bound for the clique number of $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$. In Section 3 , it is proved that $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is connected if and only if $|\min (£)| \neq 2$. Also, if $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is connected, then $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right) \in\{1,2\}$. Moreover, $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right) \in\{3, \infty\}$. It is investigated when $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=$ $\operatorname{diam}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))$ or $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)$. Further, we prove that if $£$ is a lattice with $\min (£)$ is finite, then there is no vertex of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ which is adjacent to every other vertex of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ and the radius of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is 2 , provided that $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is connected. It is shown that if $£$ is a lattice with $\min (£)$ is finite, then the independence number of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is equal to $|\min (£)|$.

In order to make this paper easier to follow, we recall in this section
various notions which will be used in the sequel. For a graph $G$ by $E(G)$ and $V(G)$ we denote the set of all edges and vertices, respectively. We recall that a graph is connected if every two distinct vertices is connected by a path. A graph $G$ is said to be totally disconnected if it has no edge. The distance between two distinct vertices $a$ and $b$, denoted by $\mathrm{d}(a, b)$, is the length of the shortest path connecting them (if such a path does not exist, then $d(a, a)=0$ and $d(a, b)=\infty)$. The diameter of a graph $G$, denoted by $\operatorname{diam}(G)$, is equal to $\sup \{d(a, b): a, b \in V(G)\}$. If $a$ and $b$ are two adjacent vertices of $G$, then we write $a-b$. The eccentricity of a vertex $a$ is defined as $\mathrm{e}(a)=\max \{d(a, b): b \in V(G)\}$ and the radius of $G$ is given by $\operatorname{rad}(G)=\min \{\mathrm{e}(x): x \in V(G)\}$. A graph is complete if it is connected with diameter less than or equal to one. We denote the complete graph on $n$ vertices by $K_{n}$. The girth of a graph $G$, denoted by $\operatorname{gr}(G)$, is the length of the shortest cycle in $G$, provided $G$ contains a cycle; otherwise, $\operatorname{gr}(G)=\infty$. A complete bipartite graph with part sizes $m$ and $n$ is denoted by $K_{m, n}$. A clique of a graph is its maximal complete subgraph and the number of vertices in the largest clique of a graph $G$, denoted by $w(G)$, is called the clique number of $G$. An induced subgraph of a graph $G$ by the set $S \subseteq V(G)$ is a subgraph $H$ of $G$ where vertices are adjacent in $H$ precisely when adjacent in $G$. In a graph $G=(V, E)$, a set $S \subseteq V$ is an independent set if the subgraph induced by $S$ is totally disconnected. The independence number $\alpha(G)$ is the maximum size of an independent set in $G$ [7].

A lattice is a poset $(£, \leq)$ in which every pair of elements $x, y$ has a g.l.b. (called the meet of $x$ and $y$, and written $x \wedge y$ ) and a l.u.b. (called the join of $x$ and $y$, and written $x \vee y$ ). A lattice $£$ is complete when each of its subsets $X$ has a l.u.b. and a g.l.b. in $£$. Setting $X=£$, we see that any complete lattice contains the least element 0 and the greatest element 1 (in this case, we say that $£$ is a lattice with 0 and 1 ). A non-empty subset $I$ of a lattice $£$ is called an ideal, if for $a \in I, b \in £, b \leq a$ implies $b \in I$ (then $I$ is called a down-directed set) and for every $a, b \in I$ we have $a \vee b \in I$. A non-empty subset $F$ of a lattice $£$ is called a filter, if for $a \in F, b \in £$, $a \leq b$ implies $b \in F$, and $x \wedge y \in F$ for all $x, y \in F$ (so if $£$ is a lattice with 1 , then $\{1\}$ is a filter of $£)$. A lattice $£$ with 0 is called $£$-domain if $a \wedge b=0(a, b \in £)$, then $a=0$ or $b=0$. We say that a subset $D \subseteq £$ is meet closed if $1 \in D$ and $a \wedge b \in D$ for all $a, b \in D$. A proper ideal $P$ of $£$ is called prime if $x \wedge y \in P$, then $x \in P$ or $y \in P$. A prime ideal $P$ of
a lattice $£$ is said to be a minimal prime ideal, if it is minimal among all prime ideals containing $\{0\}$ (note that in an $£$-domain, the only minimal prime ideal is $\{0\})$. The set of all minimal prime ideals of $£$ is denoted by $\min (£)$. An element $a$ of a lattice $£$ is called an atom, if there is no $y \in £$ such that $0<y<a[6]$. A 0 -distributive lattice $£$ is a lattice with 0 in which $a \wedge b=0=a \wedge c$ implies $a \wedge(b \vee c)=0$ [4]. Note that every distributive lattice with 0 is a 0 -distributive lattice. Let $I$ be an ideal of a lattice $£$. A prime ideal $P$ containing an ideal $I$ of a lattice $£$ is said to be a maximal $N$-prime of $I$, if $P$ is maximal with respect to the property of being contained in $\mathrm{Z}_{I}(£)=\{x \in £: x \wedge y \in I$ for some $y \in £ \backslash I\}[15]$.

Proposition 1.1. (1) Let $£$ be a lattice with the least element 0 and the greatest element 1. A non-empty subset $I$ of $£$ is an ideal of $£$ if and only if $a \wedge c \in I$ and $a \vee b \in I$ for all $a, b \in I$ and $c \in £$. Moreover, if $I$ is an ideal and $x \vee y \in I$, then $x, y \in I$ for every $x, y \in £$ and $0 \in I$.
(2) Let $£$ be a lattice with 0 and $a \in £$. Then the set $(0: a)=\{b \in £$ : $b \wedge a=0\}$ is a down-directed set. Moreover, $£$ is a 0-distributive lattice if and only if $(0: a)$ is an ideal for every $a \in £$.

Proposition 1.2. [4, Theorem 3.1] Let $£$ be a 0-distributive lattice and $\left\{P_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ the set of all prime ideals of $£$. Then $\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} P_{\alpha}=\{0\}$. Moreover, if $P_{1}, \cdots, P_{n}$ are the only distinct minimal prime ideals of $£$, then $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=$ $\{0\}$.

## 2 Basic structures of $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$ and the subgraph $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$

In this section, we study two (induced) subgraphs $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ and $\operatorname{Reg}(G(£))$ of $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$, with vertices $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ and $£ \backslash \mathrm{Z}(£)$, respectively. It is clear that $V(\mathrm{~T}(G(£)))=\mathrm{Z}(£) \cup(£ \backslash \mathrm{Z}(£))$.

Proposition 2.1. $\mathrm{T}(G(£))=\emptyset$ if and only if $£$ is an $£$-domain.
Proof. Suppose that $\mathrm{T}(G(£))=\emptyset$ and let $x \wedge y=0$ with $x \neq 0$. If $y \neq 0$, then $x \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$; hence $0-x$ is a path in $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$, a contradiction. Thus $£$ is an $£$-domain. Conversely, assume on the contrary, $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$. Then there exist $a, b \in £$ such that $a \vee b \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$ with $a \neq b$, so $(a \vee b) \wedge c=0$ for some $0 \neq c \in £$. It is clear that $(a \wedge c) \vee(b \wedge c) \leq(a \vee b) \wedge c$. Therefore
$a \wedge c=0=b \wedge c$. Thus $a=b=0$, which is a contradiction. Hence $\mathrm{T}(G(£))=\emptyset$.

Theorem 2.2. $\operatorname{Reg}(G(£))$ is totally disconnected. Thus, in particular, $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$ is always disconnected.

Proof. First, we show that no element of $£ \backslash \mathrm{Z}(£)$ is adjacent to any element of $\mathrm{Z}(£)$. Let $x \in £ \backslash \mathrm{Z}(£)$ (so $x \neq 0$ ). If $x \vee y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$ for some $y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$, then there exists $0 \neq r \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$ such that $(x \vee y) \wedge r=0$, so $x \vee y \in(0: r)$. As $(x \wedge r) \vee(y \wedge r) \leq(x \vee y) \wedge r=0, x \in(0: r) \subseteq \mathrm{Z}(£)$, a contradiction. Similarly, if $x, y \in £ \backslash \mathrm{Z}(£)$, then $x \vee y \notin \mathrm{Z}(£)$. Finally, $\operatorname{Reg}(G(£))$ being totally disconnected gives $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$ is always disconnected.

From now on, unless otherwise stated, we assume that $£$ is a 0 -distributive lattice with the least element 0 and the greatest element 1.

Remark 2.3. It is well-known that $\operatorname{diam}(G(£)) \leq 3$ and if $G(£)$ contains a cycle, then $\operatorname{gr}(G(£)) \leq 4([11]$ and [17]). Assume that $G(£)$ is complete and let $a, b$, and $c$ be distinct elements of $\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$. Then $a \wedge b=0, a \wedge c=0$, and $b \wedge c=0$. Thus $b \vee c \in(0: a)$, since $(0: a)$ is an ideal of $£$. Clearly, $b \vee c \neq 0$. Hence $b \vee c \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$. If $b \vee c=c$, then $b \leq c$, so $0=b \wedge c$ implies $b=0$, which is a contradiction. So $b \vee c \neq c$. Since $G(£)$ is complete, $(b \vee c) \wedge c=0$; hence $c=0$ which is impossible. Therefore $G(£)$ is not complete. Also, $G(£)$ contains no loop. Thus if $\left|\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}\right| \geq 3$, then $\operatorname{diam}(G(£)) \in\{2,3\}$.

The next theorem gives a more explicit description of the diameter of $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$.

Theorem 2.4. The following hold:
(1) $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ is connected with $\operatorname{diam}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))) \leq 2$.
(2) If $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$, then $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ is a complete graph if and only if $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is a complete graph if and only if $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is an ideal of $£$ if and only if $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is a join sub-semilattice of $£$.
(3) If $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$, then $\operatorname{diam}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=2$ if and only if $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is not an ideal of $£$.

Proof. (1) Since $0 \wedge a=0$ for every $a \in £, 0 \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$. Thus $x-0-y$ is a path in $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ for distinct $x, y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$. Thus $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ is connected with $\operatorname{diam}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))) \in\{1,2\}$.
(2) Let $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ be a complete graph and $x, y \in \mathrm{Z}(£), z \in £$. Then $x \vee y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$ and $x \wedge c=0$ for some $0 \neq c \in £$. Now $(x \wedge z) \wedge c=0 \wedge z=0$ gives $x \wedge z \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$. Thus $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is an ideal of $£$. The other implications are clear.
(3) It is clear from (2).

Our next theorem characterizes the girth of subgraph $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ of $\mathrm{T}(G(£))$.
Theorem 2.5. The following hold:
(1) $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))) \in\{3, \infty\}$.
(2) If $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$, then $|\mathrm{Z}(£)|=3$ if and only if $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=\infty$.
(3) If $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$, then $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \geq 4$ if and only if $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=3$.

Proof. (1) If $x \vee y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$ for some $x, y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$ with $x \neq y$, then $0-x-y-0$ is a cycle in $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$; hence $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=3$. Let $x \vee y \notin \mathrm{Z}(£)$ for each $x, y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$. So $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ does not contain any cycle; hence $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=$ $\infty$.
(2) Let $\mathrm{Z}(£)=\{0, a, b\}$. If $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is an ideal of $£$, then either $a \vee b=b$ or $a \vee b=a$. We can assume that $a \vee b=b$. Then $a \wedge b=0$ gives $a=a \wedge(a \vee b)=a \wedge b=0$, which is impossible. Thus $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is not an ideal of $£$, and so $a \vee b \notin \mathrm{Z}(£)$; hence we have the path $a-0-b$, which gives $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=\infty$. Conversely, let $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=\infty$. By Proposition 2.1, it is not hard to see that $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \neq 1,2$. We show that $|\mathrm{Z}(£)|=3$. Suppose on the contrary that $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \geq 4$. Since $\operatorname{diam}(G(£)) \in\{2,3\}$, by Remark 2.3 , there exist $a, b \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$ such that $d(a, b)=2$. Thus there is $c \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$ such that $a-c-b$ is a path in $G(£)$; hence $a \wedge c=0$ and $b \wedge c=0$. So $a, b \in(0: c)$ which gives $a \vee b \in(0: c) \subseteq \mathrm{Z}(£)$, because $(0: c)$ is an ideal of $£$. So $0-a-b-0$ is a cycle in $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ and $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=3$, a contradiction.
(3) Let $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \geq 4$. Since $G(£)$ is not complete and $\operatorname{diam}(G(£)) \in\{2,3\}$, by Remark 2.3, there exist $a, b \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$ such that $d(a, b)=2$ in $G(£)$, so there exists $c \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$ such that $a-c-b$ is a path in $G(£)$; hence $a, b \in(0: c)$, which gives $a \vee b \in(0: c) \subseteq \mathrm{Z}(£)$. This implies $0-a-b-0$ is a cycle in $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ and $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=3$. Conversely, assume that $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=3$; we show that $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \geq 4$. Clearly, $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \neq 1,2$. Suppose, on the contrary, that $\mathrm{Z}(£)=\{0, a, b\}$. Since $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=3, a$ and $b$ are adjacent in $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$, which gives $a \vee b \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$. Hence $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is an ideal of $£$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \geq 4$.

The next theorem gives a description of a lower bound for the clique number of $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ in terms of the number of atoms in $£$.

Theorem 2.6. Let $A(£)$ be the set of all atoms in $£$. Then we have $\omega(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))) \geq|A(£)|$.

Proof. If $|A(£)| \in\{1,2\}$, then there is nothing to prove, because $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$ is connected. Let $|A(£)|>2$ and $x, y \in A(£)$. As $|A(£)| \geq 3$, there exists $z \in A(£)$ such that $x \neq z$ and $y \neq z$. Clearly, $x \wedge z=0$ and $y \wedge z=0$. Thus $(x \vee y) \wedge z=0$; and $x \vee y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$. Therefore $A(£)$ is a clique in $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$, and so $\omega(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))) \geq|A(£)|$.

Proposition 2.7. $\omega(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))) \geq \mid\{|\mathcal{C}|: \mathcal{C}$ is a chain in $Z(£)\} \mid$.
Proof. It is clear.

## 3 Properties of the subgraph $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$

We continue to use the notations already established, so $£$ is a 0 -distributive lattice with 0 and 1. In this section, we refine our results on $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)$, $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)$, and the relation between $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ and $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$.

Remark 3.1. It is not hard to see that (using mathematical induction on $n)$ : If $I$ is an ideal and $P_{1}, P_{2}, \cdots, P_{n}$ are prime ideals of $£$ with $I \subseteq \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}$, then $I \subseteq P_{r}$ for some $1 \leq r \leq n$.

Theorem 3.2. The following hold:
(1) If $\min (£)=\left\{P_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$, then $\mathrm{Z}(£)=\cup_{\alpha \in \Lambda} P_{\alpha}$.
(2) If $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$, then $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is connected if and only if $|\min (£)| \neq$
2. Moreover, if $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is connected, then we have $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right) \in$ $\{1,2\}$.
(3) If $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$ and $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is a complete graph, then both $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ and $\min (£)$ are infinite.

Proof. (1) It follows on the lines of Remark 1.2 of [15].
(2) Assume that $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is connected and let $\min (£)=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}\right\}$. Then $\mathrm{Z}(£)=P_{1} \cup P_{2}$, by (1). If $0 \neq x \in P_{1}$ and $0 \neq y \in P_{2}$, then $x \vee y \notin \mathrm{Z}(£)$ (for if $x \vee y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$, then $x \vee y \in P_{1}$ or $x \vee y \in P_{2}$ and so $x \in P_{2} \cap P_{1}=\{0\}$
or $y \in P_{1} \cap P_{2}=\{0\}$, which is a contradiction, by Proposition 1.2). Then $x \vee y \notin \mathrm{Z}(£)$ gives none of elements of $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are adjacent in $\mathrm{Z}(G(£))$; so $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is not connected, a contradiction. Conversely, suppose that $|\min (£)| \neq 2$. If $|\min (£)|=1$, then $\mathrm{Z}(£)=P=\{0\}$ for some minimal prime ideal $P$ of $£$, by (1) and Proposition 1.2. Let $a \wedge b=0$ for some $a, b \in £$ with $a \neq 0$; so $b \in \mathrm{Z}(£)=\{0\}$. Hence $£$ is an $£$-domain, which is impossible by Proposition 2.1. Therefore $|\min (£)| \geq 3$. We claim that $P_{i} \cap P_{j} \neq\{0\}$ for each $P_{i}, P_{j} \in \min (£)$. Suppose, on the contrary, that $P_{i} \cap P_{j}=\{0\}$ for some $P_{i}, P_{j} \in \min (£)$. We show that $\mathrm{Z}(£)=P_{i} \cup P_{j}$. If $x \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*} \backslash P_{i} \cup P_{j}$, then there exists $y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$ such that $x \wedge y=0 \in$ $P_{i} \cap P_{j}$. Since $x \notin P_{i}, P_{j}$, we have $y \in P_{i} \cap P_{j}=\{0\}$, a contradiction. Thus $\mathrm{Z}(£) \subseteq P_{i} \cup P_{j}$; hence $\mathrm{Z}(£)=P_{i} \cup P_{j}$, which implies $\min (£)=\left\{P_{i}, P_{j}\right\}$ (because, if there exists $P_{k} \in \min (£) \backslash\left\{P_{i}, P_{j}\right\}$, then $P_{k} \subseteq \mathrm{Z}(£)=P_{i} \cup P_{j}$, by (1), which implies $P_{k} \subseteq P_{i}$ or $P_{k} \subseteq P_{j}$, by Remark 3.1, a contradiction). Thus $P_{i} \cap P_{j} \neq\{0\}$ for each minimal prime ideals $P_{i}, P_{j}$ of $£$. Now, let $x, y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$. If $x \vee y \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$, then $d(x, y)=1$. Let $x \vee y \notin \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$. So $x \in P_{i}$ and $y \in P_{j}$, where $P_{i}, P_{j}$ are distinct minimal prime ideals of $£$. Choose $0 \neq z \in P_{i} \cap P_{j}$. Then $x-z-y$ is a path in $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ and $d(x, y)=2$.
(3) Since $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is a complete graph, $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is an ideal of $£$. If $\mathrm{Z}(£)=$ $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}\right\}$, then $\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$; hence $\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} x_{i}=x_{j} \neq 0$ for some $1 \leq j \leq n$. Since $x_{j} \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$, there exists $0 \neq x_{k} \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$ such that $x_{j} \wedge x_{k}=0$. So $x_{k}=\left(x_{1} \vee x_{2} \vee \cdots \vee x_{n}\right) \wedge x_{k}=x_{j} \wedge x_{k}=0$, a contradiction. Hence $Z(£)$ is infinite. We show that $\min (£)$ is infinite. Suppose $\min (£)$ is finite. $\mathrm{So} \mathrm{Z}(£)=\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}$, where $P_{i}^{\prime}$ s are minimal prime ideals of $£$, by (1). Since $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is an ideal of $£, \mathrm{Z}(£)=P_{i}$ for some $1 \leq i \leq n$, by Remark 3.1. Thus $\mathrm{Z}(£)=P_{i}=\{0\}$, by Proposition 1.2 , which gives $£$ is an $£$-domain, which is a contradiction, by Proposition 2.1.

Proposition 3.3. Let $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$. If $\operatorname{diam}(G(£))=2$ and $\min (£)$ is a finite set, then $|\min (£)|=2$.

Proof. Since $\operatorname{diam}(G(£))=2$, $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \geq 3$; hence $|\min (£)| \neq 1$. Let $\min (£)=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \cdots, P_{n}\right\}$. By Remark 3.1, $P_{1} \nsubseteq \bigcup_{i=2}^{n} P_{i}$, so there exists an element in $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ which is contained in a unique minimal prime ideal $P_{1}$ of $£$. Let $a \in P_{1} \backslash \bigcup_{i=2}^{n} P_{i}$. Suppose, on the contrary, that there are at least two other minimal prime ideals $P_{2}$ and $P_{3}$. If $P_{2} \backslash P_{1} \cup P_{3}=\emptyset$, then
$P_{2} \subseteq P_{1} \cup P_{3}$, and so $P_{2} \subseteq P_{1}$ or $P_{2} \subseteq P_{3}$, by Remark 3.1, a contradiction. Thus $P_{2} \backslash P_{1} \cup P_{3} \neq \emptyset$. Let $b \in P_{2} \backslash P_{1} \cup P_{3}$. We show that $a \vee b \in £ \backslash \mathrm{Z}(£)$. Since $a \notin \bigcup_{i=2}^{n} P_{i}, a \in \bigcap_{i=2}^{n}\left(£ \backslash P_{i}\right)$. It is not hard to see that $£ \backslash P_{i}$ is a filter for each $i$. It follows that $a \vee b \in \bigcap_{i=2}^{n}\left(£ \backslash P_{i}\right)$. Since $b \notin P_{1}, b \in £ \backslash P_{1}$, which gives $a \vee b \in £ \backslash P_{1}$, since it is a filter. Thus $a \vee b \in \bigcap_{i=1}^{n}\left(£ \backslash P_{i}\right)=£ \backslash \mathrm{Z}(£)$. If $d(a, b)=1$ in $G(£)$, then $a \wedge b=0 \in P_{3}$, which gives $a \in P_{3}$ or $b \in P_{3}$, since $P_{3}$ is a prime ideal of $£$, a contradiction. If $d(a, b)=2$ in $G(£)$, then $a, b \in(0: c)$ for some $c \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$, which gives $a \vee b \in(0: c) \subseteq \mathrm{Z}(£)$, a contradiction with $a \vee b \in £ \backslash \mathrm{Z}(£)$. Hence $|\min (£)|=2$.

Theorem 3.4. If $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$ and $\min (£)$ is a finite set, then the following hold:
(1) $\operatorname{diam}(G(£))=2$ if and only if $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is not connected and $\left|\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}\right| \geq$ 3.
(2) $\operatorname{diam}(G(£))=3$ if and only if $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is connected.

Proof. (1) Let $\operatorname{diam}(G(£))=2$ (so $\left|\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}\right| \geq 3$ ). Thus $|\min (£)|=2$, by Proposition 3.3; hence $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is not connected, by Theorem 3.2(2). Conversely, assume that $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is not connected and $\left|\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}\right| \geq 3$. So $|\min (£)|=2$, by Theorem $3.2(2)$, say $\min (£)=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}\right\}$. Then $P_{1} \cap P_{2}=$ $\{0\}$, by Proposition 1.2. Moreover, $\mathrm{Z}(£)=P_{1} \cup P_{2}$, by Theorem 3.2(1). Set $V_{1}=P_{1} \backslash\{0\}$ and $V_{2}=P_{2} \backslash\{0\}$. Let $x, y \in V_{1}$. If $x \wedge y=0 \in P_{2}$, then $x \in P_{2}$ or $y \in P_{2}$, which is a contradiction. Thus none of the elements of $V_{1}$ are adjacent together. Similarly, none of the elements of $V_{2}$ are adjacent. This means that $G(£)$ is a bipartite graph with parts $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ (note that at least one of the parts has more than one vertex). Thus $\operatorname{diam}(G(£))=2$.
(2) If $\operatorname{diam}(G(£))=3$, then $G(£)$ is not complete bipartite. If $|\min (£)|=$ 2 , then by an argument like that in $(1), G(£)$ is complete bipartite, which is impossible. So $\min (£) \neq 2$, and hence $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is connected, by Theorem $3.2(2)$. Conversely, assume that $\operatorname{diam}(G(£)) \neq 3$. By $(1), \operatorname{diam}(G(£)) \neq 2$. Hence $\operatorname{diam}(G(£))=1$ and $\left|\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}\right|=2$, by Remark 2.3. Hence $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is not an ideal of $£$ (see Theorem $2.5(2)$ ). Now $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ being connected gives $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ is an ideal of $£$, a contradiction. Thus $\operatorname{diam}(G(£))=3$.

Theorem 3.5. The following hold:
(1) $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right) \in\{3, \infty\}$.
(2) If $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$ and $|\min (£)| \neq 2$, then

$$
\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=\operatorname{diam}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))) ;
$$

(3) If $\mathrm{T}(G(£)) \neq \emptyset$ and $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \neq 4,5$, then we have $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=$ $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)$.

Proof. (1) By Theorem 3.2(1), $\mathrm{Z}(£)=\bigcup P_{i}$, where $P_{i}^{\prime}$ s are minimal prime ideals of $£$. If $|\min (£)|=1$, then there is nothing to prove. If $|\min (£)|=2$, then $\mathrm{Z}(£)=P_{1} \cup P_{2}$. If $\left|P_{1}\right| \geq 4$ or $\left|P_{2}\right| \geq 4$, then $P_{1} \backslash\{0\}$ and $P_{2} \backslash\{0\}$ are complete subgraphs of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$; so $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=3$. If $\left|P_{1}\right|,\left|P_{2}\right| \leq 3$, then there is no cycle in $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$. Also there is no cycle between the elements of $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$, since none of the elements of $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are adjacent, by the proof of Theorem $3.2(2)$. Hence there is no cycle in $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$, and so $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=\infty$. Thus, suppose that $|\min (£)| \geq 3$. We show that for each $P_{i} \in \min (£),\left|P_{i}\right| \geq 3$. If there exists a minimal prime ideal $P_{i}$ of $£$ such that $P_{i}=\{0, x\}$, then, by the proof of Theorem 3.2(2), $P_{i} \cap P_{j} \neq\{0\}$ for each $P_{j} \in \min (£)$. Hence $P_{i} \cap P_{j}=\{0, x\}$, which implies $P_{i} \subseteq P_{j}$, a contradiction. So $\left|P_{i}\right| \geq 3$ for any minimal prime ideal $P_{i}$ of $£$. If $\left|P_{i}\right| \geq 4$ for some $P_{i} \in \min (£)$, then $P_{i} \backslash\{0\}$ is a complete subgraph of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$, and so $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=3$. Now suppose that $\left|P_{i}\right|=3$ for each minimal prime ideal $P_{i}$ of $£$, and set $P_{i}=\left\{0, x_{1}, x_{2}\right\}$. Since $x_{1} \neq 0$, there exists a minimal prime ideal $P_{j}$ of $£$ such that $x_{1} \notin P_{j}$, by Proposition 1.2. Hence $P_{i} \cap P_{j}=\left\{0, x_{2}\right\}$, since $P_{i} \cap P_{j} \neq\{0\}$. As $x_{2} \neq 0$, there exists $P_{j} \neq P_{k} \in \min (£)$ such that $x_{2} \notin P_{k} ;$ so $P_{i} \cap P_{k}=\left\{0, x_{1}\right\}$. On the other hand, $P_{k} \cap P_{j} \neq\{0\}, x_{2} \in P_{j} \backslash P_{k}$, and $x_{1} \in P_{k} \backslash P_{j}$, and so there exists $0 \neq x \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$ such that $x \in P_{j} \cap P_{k}$. Thus $P_{j}=\left\{0, x_{1}, x\right\}$ and $P_{k}=\left\{0, x_{2}, x\right\}$. So $x_{1}-x-x_{2}-x_{1}$ is a cycle in $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ and $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(\mathrm{G}(£))\right)=3$.
(2) If $\operatorname{diam}(\mathrm{Z}(\mathrm{G}(£)))=1$, then $\mathrm{Z}(£)$ being an ideal of $£$ gives $a \vee$ $b \in Z(£)^{*}$ for each $a, b \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$, which implies $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=1$. If $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}(G(£))=2\right.$, then there exist $c, d \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$ such that $c \vee d \notin$ $\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$. By Theorem 3.2(2), there exists $e \in \mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}$ such that $c-e-d$ is a path in $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$; hence $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=2$. Thus $\operatorname{diam}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=$ $\operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)$.
(3) By Proposition 2.1, $£$ is not an $£$-domain, and so $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \neq 1,2$. If $|\mathrm{Z}(£)|=3$, then $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=\infty$, by Theorem 2.5(2). Also $\left|\mathrm{Z}(£)^{*}\right|=2$ gives $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ contains no cycle; so $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=\infty$. Thus $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=$ $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)$. If $|\mathrm{Z}(£)| \geq 6$, then $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=3$, by Theorem 2.5(3).

Now we show that $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=3$. If $|\min (£)| \geq 3$, then $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=$ 3 , by the proof of $(1)$. If $|\min (£)|=2$ and $P_{1}, P_{2}$ are two minimal prime ideals of $£$, then at least one of the $P_{i}^{\prime}$ s has more than 3 vertices, and thus each $P_{i} \backslash\{0\}$ is a complete subgraph of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$; hence $\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=3$. Therefore $\operatorname{gr}(\mathrm{Z}(G(£)))=\operatorname{gr}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)$.

Proposition 3.6. Let $£$ be a lattice and $\min (£)$ be finite. Then the following hold:
(1) There is no vertex of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ which is adjacent to every other vertex of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$.
(2) If $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is connected, then $\operatorname{rad}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=2$.

Proof. (1) Let $x$ be a vertex of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ which is adjacent to every other vertex of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$. As $x \neq 0, x \notin P_{i}$ for some $P_{i} \in \min (£)$. Let $y \in$ $P_{i} \backslash \bigcup_{j \neq i, P_{j} \in \min (£)} P_{j}$ (by Remark 3.1, $\left.P_{i} \backslash \bigcup_{j \neq i, P_{j} \in \min (£)} P_{j} \neq \emptyset\right)$. As $x \vee y \in$ $\mathrm{Z}(£)$, we have either $x \vee y \in P_{i}$ or $x \vee y \in \bigcup_{j \neq i, P_{j} \in \min (£)} P_{j}$. In two cases, we have a contradiction. Hence, there is no vertex of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ which is adjacent to every other vertex of $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$.
(2) By (1), $\mathrm{e}(x) \neq 1$ for all $x \in V\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)$. Therefore, $\operatorname{rad}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)$ is not equal to 1. As $\operatorname{rad}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right) \leq \operatorname{diam}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right) \leq 2$, we get $\operatorname{rad}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=2$ 。

Theorem 3.7. Let $£$ be a lattice and $\min (£)$ be finite. Then we have $\alpha\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=|\min (£)|$ 。

Proof. Let $\min (£)=\left\{P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$. For each $1 \leq i \leq n$, let $x_{i} \in$ $P_{i} \backslash \bigcup_{j \neq i, P_{j} \in \min (£)} P_{j}$. Set $I=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$. We will show that $I$ is an independent set. If $x_{s} \vee x_{t} \in \mathrm{Z}(£)$ for some $x_{s}, x_{t} \in I$, where $s \neq t$, then $x_{s} \vee x_{t} \in P_{k}$ for some $1 \leq k \leq n$. This implies that $x_{s} \in P_{k}$ and $x_{t} \in P_{k}$. Hence $s=t=k$, a contradiction. Thus $I$ is an independent set and so $\alpha\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right) \geq n$. Now, let $\alpha\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=m$ and $S=\left\{y_{1}, y_{2}, \ldots, y_{m}\right\}$ be a maximal independent set in $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$. If $m>n$, then by Pigeon hole principle, there exist $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ and $P \in \min (£)$ such that $y_{i}, y_{j} \in P$. Hence $y_{i} \vee y_{j} \in P \subseteq \mathrm{Z}(£)$, a contradiction. Hence $\alpha\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=|\min (£)|$.

The following example shows that the condition " $\min (£)$ is finite" is not superficial in Proposition 3.6 and Theorem 3.7.

Example 3.8. Consider the set $\mathbb{N}$ of natural numbers. Let $£=\mathbb{N} \cup\{0\}$ and $a, b \in £$. We write $a \leq b$ if and only if $a \mid b$, that is, $b=a c$ for some $c \in £$. Then $£$ becomes a lattice with the smallest element 1 , the greatest element 0 , and $x \wedge y=\operatorname{gcd}(x, y), x \vee y=l c m(x, y)$. One can show that $Z^{*}(£)=\mathbb{N}$ and the number of minimal prime ideals is infinite. However $\alpha\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=0$ (because $\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))$ is complete). Moreover $\operatorname{rad}\left(\mathrm{Z}^{*}(G(£))\right)=1$.

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Shahabaddin Ebrahimi Atani Faculty of Mathematical Sciences, University of Guilan, P.O. Box 1914, Rasht, Iran.
Email: ebrahimi@guilan.ac.ir

Saboura Dolati Pish Hesari Faculty of Mathematical Sciences, University of Guilan, P.O. Box 1914, Rasht, Iran.
Email: saboura_dolati@yahoo.com

Mehdi Khoramdel Faculty of Mathematical Sciences, University of Guilan, P.O. Box 1914, Rasht, Iran.

Email: mehdikhoramdel@gmail.com

Maryam Sedghi Shanbeh Bazari Faculty of Mathematical Sciences, University of Guilan, P.O. Box 1914, Rasht, Iran.

Email: ms.maryamsedghi55@gmail.com


[^0]:    * Corresponding author

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