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**Research Article** 

# On the zero-divisor graphs of finite free semilattices

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Abstract: Let  $SL_X$  be the free semilattice on a finite nonempty set X. There exists an undirected graph  $\Gamma(SL_X)$ associated with  $SL_X$  whose vertices are the proper subsets of X, except the empty set, and two distinct vertices A and B of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$  are adjacent if and only if  $A \cup B = X$ . In this paper, the diameter, radius, girth, degree of any vertex, domination number, independence number, clique number, chromatic number, and chromatic index of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$ have been established. Moreover, we have determined when  $\Gamma(SL_X)$  is a perfect graph and when the core of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$  is a Hamiltonian graph.

Key words: Finite free semilattice, zero-divisor graph, clique number, domination number, perfect graph, Hamiltonian graph

## 1. Introduction

The zero-divisor graph was first introduced by Beck in the study of commutative rings [3], and later studied by Anderson et al. [1, 2]. In [6, 7] DeMeyer et al. considered the zero-divisor graph on a commutative semigroup S with 0. If the set of zero-divisor elements in S is Z(S), then the zero-divisor graph  $\Gamma(S)$  is defined as an undirected graph with vertices  $Z(S) \setminus \{0\}$  and the vertices x and y are adjacent with a single edge if and only if xy = 0. It is known that  $\Gamma(S)$  is a connected graph (see [7]).

Let X be a finite nonempty set, and let  $SL_X$  be the set consisting of all subsets of X except the empty set. Then  $SL_X$  is a commutative semigroup of idempotents with the multiplication  $A \cdot B = A \cup B$  for  $A, B \in SL_X$  and it is called the free semilattice on X. The zero-divisor graph  $\Gamma(SL_X)$  is associated with  $SL_X$ and defined by:

- the vertex set of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$ , denoted by  $V(\Gamma(SL_X))$ , which is the proper subsets of X except the empty set; and
- the undirected edge set of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$ , denoted by  $E(\Gamma(SL_X))$  and

 $E(\Gamma(SL_X)) = \{A - B \mid A, B \in V(\Gamma(SL_X)); A \cup B = X\}.$ 

Moreover, we say that A and B are adjacent or A is adjacent to B if  $A - B \in E(\Gamma(SL_X))$ . Throughout this paper we suppose that |X| = n and that, without loss of generality,  $X = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . Thus, there are  $2^n - 2$  vertices in  $\Gamma(SL_X)$ .

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In this paper, the diameter, radius, girth, degree of any vertex, domination number, independence number, clique number, chromatic number, and chromatic index of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$  have been established. Moreover, we have determined when  $\Gamma(SL_X)$  is a perfect graph and when the core of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$  is a Hamiltonian graph.

For graph theoretical terminology see [8], and for semigroup terminology see [9].

#### **2.** Some basic properties of $\Gamma(SL_X)$

For any simple graph G, the length of the shortest path between two vertices u and v of G is denoted by  $d_G(u, v)$ . The eccentricity of a vertex v in a connected simple graph G is the maximum distance (length of the shortest path) between v and any other vertex u of G and it is denoted by ecc(v); that is,

$$\operatorname{ecc}(v) = \max\{d_G(u, v) \mid u \in V(G)\}.$$

The diameter of G, denoted by  $\operatorname{diam}(G)$ , is

$$\operatorname{diam}(G) = \max\{\operatorname{ecc}(v) \mid v \in V(G)\},\$$

and it is known that the diameter of the zero-divisor graph of any commutative semigroup with zero is at most 3 (see Theorem 1.2 in [7]). The radius of G, denoted by rad(G), is

$$\operatorname{rad}(G) = \min\{\operatorname{ecc}(v) \mid v \in V(G)\}.$$

The central vertex set of G, denoted by C(G), is

$$C(G) = \{ v \in V(G) \mid \operatorname{ecc}(v) = \operatorname{rad}(G) \}.$$

The girth of G is the length of a shortest cycle contained in G and it is denoted by  $\operatorname{gr}(G)$ . If G does not contain any cycles, then its girth is defined to be infinity. The degree of a vertex  $v \in V(G)$  is the number of vertices adjacent to v and denoted by  $\operatorname{deg}_G(v)$ . Among all degrees, the maximum degree  $\Delta(G)$  (the minimum degree  $\delta(G)$ ) of G is the biggest (the smallest) degree in G. A vertex of maximum degree is called a delta-vertex and we denote the set of delta-vertices of G by  $\Lambda_G$ . An independent set of a graph G is a subset of vertices V(G)such that no two vertices in the subset represent an edge of G. Independence number, denoted by  $\alpha(G)$ , is defined by

 $\alpha(G) = \max\{|I| \mid I \text{ is an independent set of } G\}.$ 

Let D be a nonempty subset of the vertex set V(G) of G. If, for each  $u \in V(G) \setminus D$ , there exists  $v_u \in D$ such that  $u - v_u \in E(G)$ , then D is called a dominating set. The domination number of G, denoted by  $\gamma(G)$ , is

 $\gamma(G) = \min\{|D| \mid D \text{ is a dominating set of } G\}.$ 

The open neighborhood of a vertex  $v \in V(G)$ , denoted by  $N_G(v)$ , is the set of vertices that are adjacent to v and the closed neighborhood of v is  $N_G[v] = N_G(v) \cup \{v\}$ . For a nonempty subset Z of V(G), the closed neighborhood of Z in G, denoted by  $N_G[Z]$ , is  $N_G[Z] = \bigcup_{v \in Z} N_G[v]$ . It is clear that  $|N_G[v] \cap D| \ge 1$  for each dominating set D, and for each  $v \in V(G)$ .

In this section, we mainly deal with some graph properties of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$ , namely the diameter, radius, girth, degree of any vertex, domination number, and independence number of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$ .

For convenience, we use the notation  $\overline{A} = (X \setminus A)$  for each  $A \subseteq X$ ,  $\Gamma$  instead of  $\Gamma(SL_X)$  and d(A, B) instead of  $d_{\Gamma(SL_X)}(A, B)$ . For each pair  $A, B \in V(\Gamma)$ , notice that

$$A - B \in E(\Gamma) \Leftrightarrow \overline{A} \subseteq B \Leftrightarrow \overline{B} \subseteq A.$$

**Theorem 2.1.** If  $|X| = n \ge 3$  then we have:

(i)  $gr(\Gamma) = 3$ ,

(*ii*)  $rad(\Gamma) = 2$  and  $diam(\Gamma) = 3$ .

**Proof** (i) Since  $\Gamma$  is a simple graph and from the definiton of  $\Gamma$  it is clear that  $\operatorname{gr}(\Gamma) \geq 3$ , let  $|X| \geq 3$  and  $A \in V(\Gamma)$  with  $|A| \geq 2$ . We consider any 2-partition  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  of A,  $B = \overline{A} \cup A_1$  and  $C = \overline{A} \cup A_2$ . Thus, we have a cycle A - B - C - A in  $\Gamma$ .

(ii) Let  $|X| \ge 3$ ; for proof we show that show that the eccentricity of a vertex  $A \in V(\Gamma)$  is either 2 or 3. Let  $A \in V(\Gamma)$  with |A| = n - 1, and  $B \in V(\Gamma)$ . If  $A \cap B = \emptyset$  then it is clear that  $\overline{B} \subseteq A$  and so d(A, B) = 1 or if  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$  and  $\overline{B} \subseteq A$  then d(A, B) = 1. If  $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$  and  $\overline{B} \not\subseteq A$  it is clear that  $d(A, B) \ge 2$  and we have a path A - C - B where  $C = \overline{A \cap B}$ , and so d(A, B) = 2. Thus, ecc(A) = 2.

Let  $A \in V(\Gamma)$  with |A| < n - 1. Then there exists a vertex  $D \in V(\Gamma)$  such that  $A \cap D = \emptyset$  and  $A \cup D \neq X$ , and it is clear that  $d(A, B) \ge 2$ . Assume that there is a vertex  $E \in V(\Gamma)$  such that A - E - D in  $\Gamma$ . Then  $\overline{A} \subseteq E$  and  $\overline{D} \subseteq E$ , and so  $E \supseteq \overline{A} \cup \overline{D} = \overline{A \cap D} = X$ , which is a contradiction. Thus, we have  $d(A, D) \ge 3$  and so  $ecc(A) \ge 3$ . As we said before, since the diameter of the zero-divisor graph of any commutative semigroup with zero is at most 3 (see Theorem 1.2 in [7]), it follows that ecc(A) = 3.

Moreover, we have the following immediate corollary.

Corollary 2.2. If  $|X| = n \ge 3$  then

$$C(\Gamma) = \{A \in V(\Gamma) \mid |A| = n - 1\}$$

**Lemma 2.3.** Let  $|X| = n \ge 2$  and  $A \in V(\Gamma)$ . If |A| = r  $(1 \le r \le n-1)$  then  $\deg_{\Gamma}(A) = 2^r - 1$ .

**Proof** Let  $|X| \ge 2$  and  $A \in V(\Gamma)$  with |A| = r. For  $B \in V(\Gamma)$ , since  $A - B \in E(\Gamma)$  if and only if  $\overline{A} \subseteq B \subsetneq X$ , there exists a proper subset Y of A such that  $B = \overline{A} \cup Y$ , and so  $\deg_{\Gamma}(A) = 2^r - 1$ .

**Corollary 2.4.** Let  $|X| = n \ge 2$  and  $1 \le r \le n-1$ . In  $\Gamma$  there are  $\binom{n}{r}$  vertices whose vertex degrees are  $2^r - 1$ . Moreover,  $\Delta(\Gamma) = 2^{n-1} - 1$  and  $\delta(\Gamma) = 1$ .

**Theorem 2.5.** (i) If |X| = 2 then  $\gamma(\Gamma) = 1$  and if  $|X| = n \ge 3$  then  $\gamma(\Gamma) = n$ .

(*ii*) If  $|X| = n \ge 2$  then  $\alpha(\Gamma) = 2^{n-1} - 1$ .

**Proof** (i) It is clear that  $\gamma(\Gamma) = 1$  when |X| = 2. Let  $|X| = n \ge 3$  and D be a dominating set of  $\Gamma$ . For each  $k \in X$  since the vertex degree of  $\{k\}$  is 1, equivalently  $N_{\Gamma}[\{k\}] = \{X \setminus \{k\}, \{k\}\}$ , and since  $|N_{\Gamma}[\{k\}] \cap D| \ge 1$ , either  $\{k\} \in D$  or  $X \setminus \{k\} \in D$ . Moreover, for any  $i, j \in X$  with  $i \ne j$ , since  $|X| \ge 3$ , we have  $N_{\Gamma}[\{i\}] \cap N_{\Gamma}[\{j\}] = \emptyset$ . Thus,  $|D| \ge n$ . Now we consider the set

$$D = \{X \setminus \{k\} \mid k \in X\}$$

It is clear that |D| = n and D is a dominating set, and so  $\gamma(\Gamma) = n$ .

(ii) Let  $|X| = n \ge 2$ ,  $i \in X$  and let  $B = X \setminus \{i\}$ . Then consider the subsets

$$P(B) = \{Y \mid \emptyset \neq Y \subseteq B\} \text{ and } Q(B) = \{X \setminus Y \mid Y \in P(B)\}$$

of  $V(\Gamma)$ . Notice that  $i \notin Y$  for each  $Y \in P(B)$ , and it follows that  $i \in Z$  for each  $Z \in Q(B)$ . Thus,  $P(B) \cap Q(B) = \emptyset$  and  $|P(B)| = |Q(B)| = 2^{n-1} - 1$ , and it follows that  $P(B) \cup Q(B) = V(\Gamma)$ . If  $A \subseteq V(\Gamma)$ is an independent set, then from the pigeonhole principle,  $|A| \leq 2^{n-1} - 1$ . (Otherwise, A must contain both Y and  $X \setminus Y$  for some Y in P(B), which contradicts the independence of A.) Moreover, since P(B) is an independent set in  $\Gamma$ , then  $\alpha(\Gamma) = 2^{n-1} - 1$ .

## **3. Perfectness of** $\Gamma(SL_X)$

Let G be a graph. Each of the maximal complete subgraphs of G is called a clique. The number of all the vertices in any clique of G, denoted by  $\omega(G)$ , is called a clique number. There exists another graph parameter, namely the chromatic number. It is the minimum number of colors needed to assign the vertices of a graph G such that no two adjacent vertices have the same color and it is denoted by  $\chi(G)$ . It is well known that

$$\chi(G) \ge \omega(G) \tag{1}$$

for any graph G (see Corollary 6.2 in [4]). Moreover, let  $V' \subseteq V(G)$ . Then the induced subgraph G' = (V', E') is a subgraph of G such that E' consists of those edges whose endpoints are in V'. For each induced subgraph H of G, if  $\chi(H) = \omega(H)$ , then G is called a perfect graph.

The complement or inverse of a simple graph G is a simple graph on the same vertices such that two distinct vertices are adjacent with a single edge if and only if they are not adjacent in G and it is denoted by  $G^c$ . A graph G is called Berge if no induced subgraph of G is an odd cycle of length of at least five or the complement of one.

The edges are called adjacent if they share a common end vertex. An edge coloring of a graph is an assignment of colors to the edges of G such that no two adjacent edges have the same color. The minimum required number of colors for and the edge coloring of G is called the chromatic index of G and is denoted by  $\chi'(G)$ . A fundamental theorem due to Vizing states that, for any graph G, we have

$$\Delta(G) \le \chi'(G) \le \Delta(G) + 1$$

(see [11]). Graph G is called class-1 if  $\Delta(G) = \chi'(G)$  and class-2 if  $\chi'(G) = \Delta(G) + 1$ .

The core of a graph G is defined to be the largest induced subgraph of G such that each edge in the core is part of a cycle and it is denoted by  $G_{\Delta}$ . Finally, let M be a subset of E(G) for a graph G; if there are no two edges in M that are adjacent, then M is called a matching.

**Theorem 3.1.** If  $|X| = n \ge 2$  then  $\omega(\Gamma) = \chi(\Gamma) = n$ .

**Proof** Without loss of generality suppose that  $X = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . Let  $A_i = X \setminus \{i\}$  for each  $i \in X$ , and let  $\Pi$  be the induced subgraph by the subset  $\{A_i \mid i \in X\} \subseteq V(\Gamma)$ . Then it is clear that  $\Pi$  is a complete graph with n vertices, and so  $\omega(\Gamma) \geq n$ .

On the other hand, let

$$\mathcal{P}_{1} = \{B \mid \emptyset \neq B \subseteq A_{1}\},$$
  

$$\mathcal{P}_{2} = \{B \mid \emptyset \neq B \subseteq A_{2} \text{ and } B \notin \mathcal{P}_{1}\},$$
  

$$\vdots$$
  

$$\mathcal{P}_{n} = \{B \mid \emptyset \neq B \subseteq A_{n} \text{ and } B \notin \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} \mathcal{P}_{i}\}.$$

Then it is easy to see that  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{P}_{i} = V(\Gamma)$ . It is also easy to see that  $B \in \mathcal{P}_{1}$  if and only if  $1 \notin B$ , and for each  $2 \leq k \leq n$ ,  $B \in \mathcal{P}_{k}$  if and only if  $1, \ldots, k-1 \in B$ , but  $k \notin B$ . Thus,  $\mathcal{P}_{i} \neq \emptyset$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$  and  $\mathcal{P}_{i} \cap \mathcal{P}_{j} = \emptyset$  for each  $1 \leq i \neq j \leq n$ .

For each  $1 \le k \le n$ , if we choose a different color for each  $\mathcal{P}_k$  and assign the chosen color to the all vertices in  $\mathcal{P}_k$ , there are no two adjacent vertices that have the same color, and so  $\chi(\Gamma) \le n$ .

Since  $n \ge \chi(\Gamma)$  and  $\omega(\Gamma) \ge n$ , it follows from equation (1) that

$$\chi(\Gamma) = \omega(\Gamma) = n,$$

as required.

Lemma 3.2. [5] A graph is perfect if and only if it is Berge.

Therefore, a graph G is perfect if and only if neither G nor  $G^c$  contains an odd cycle of length of at least 5 as an induced subgraph.

**Theorem 3.3.**  $\Gamma$  is a perfect graph if |X| = 2, 3, or 4, but  $\Gamma$  is not a perfect graph if  $|X| \ge 5$ .

**Proof** For |X| = 2, it is clear.

For |X| = 3 or 4, we assume that there exists an induced subgraph of  $\Gamma$  that is an odd cycle with 2m-1 vertices where  $m \ge 3$ , say

$$C_1 - C_2 - \dots - C_{2m-1} - C_1$$

Since  $C_i \neq X$ , it is clear that  $|C_i| = 2$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq 2m - 1$  for |X| = 3. Similarly for |X| = 4, it is clear that  $|C_i| \geq 2$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq 2m - 1$ . Moreover, if  $|C_i| = 3$  for any  $1 \leq i \leq 2m - 1$ , without loss of generality, say  $|C_1| = 3$ , then neither  $C_3$  nor  $C_4$  must include  $X \setminus C_1$ . On the other hand, since  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  are adjacent vertices, one of them must contain  $X \setminus C_1$ , which is a contradiction. Thus,  $|C_i| = 2$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq 2m - 1$ .

Suppose that the subgraphs of  $\Gamma$  induced by the set of all the vertices whose cardinality is 2 are  $\Phi$  and  $\Psi$  for |X| = 3 and |X| = 4, respectively. Then we have



so the result is clear.

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Similarly, for |X| = 3 or 4, we assume that there exists an induced subgraph of  $\Gamma^c$  that is an odd cycle with 2m-1 vertices where  $m \ge 3$ , say

$$C_1 - C_2 - \dots - C_{2m-1} - C_1.$$

For |X| = 3 or 4,  $|C_i| \ge 2$  for each  $1 \le i \le 2m - 1$ ; otherwise, if  $|C_i| = 1$  for any  $1 \le i \le 2m - 1$ , then all other vertices are adjacent to  $C_i$  except  $X \setminus C_i$  in  $\Gamma^c$ . Thus,  $|C_i| = 2$  for each  $1 \le i \le 2m - 1$  for |X| = 3. Now we show that  $|C_i| = 2$  for each  $1 \le i \le 2m - 1$  for |X| = 4. If  $|C_i| = 3$  for any  $1 \le i \le 2m - 1$ , without loss of generality, say  $|C_1| = 3$ . Then  $C_2$  and  $C_{2m-1}$  must be subsets of  $C_1$ . It follows that  $C_2$  and  $C_{2m-1}$ are adjacent vertices in  $\Gamma^c$ , which is a contradiction. Thus,  $|C_i| = 2$  for each  $1 \le i \le 2m - 1$ . For |X| = 3 it is clear that the subgraph of  $\Gamma^c$  induced by the set of all the vertices with cardinality 2 is the null graph with 3 vertices. For |X| = 4, if  $\Omega$  is the subgraph of  $\Gamma^c$  induced by the set of all the vertices with cardinality 2, then we have



Since all the vertices in  $\Omega$  have degree 4, it follows that there does not exist an induced subgraph that is a cycle with 5 vertices. Therefore,  $\Gamma$  is a perfect graph if |X| = 2, 3, or 4.

For  $|X| = n \ge 5$ , without loss of generality, suppose that  $X = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ ,  $Y = X \setminus \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ , and H is the subgraph induced by the vertex set

$$\{\{1,2,3\} \cup Y, \{1,4,5\} \cup Y, \{2,3,5\} \cup Y, \{1,3,4\} \cup Y, \{2,4,5\} \cup Y\}.$$

Then it is clear that H is a cycle graph of length 5 with the cycle

$$\{1,2,3\} \cup Y - \{1,4,5\} \cup Y - \{2,3,5\} \cup Y - \{1,3,4\} \cup Y - \{2,4,5\} \cup Y - \{1,2,3\} \cup Y.$$

Thus,  $\Gamma$  is not a perfect graph if  $|X| \ge 5$ .

**Lemma 3.4.** [10] Consider the graphs  $G_1 = (V, E_1)$  and  $G_2 = (V, E_2)$  with the same vertex set. Suppose that  $E_1$  is a matching such that no edge has both end vertices in  $N_{G_2}[\Lambda_{G_2}]$ . If the union graph  $G = G_1 \cup G_2$  has maximum degree  $\Delta(G) = \Delta(G_2) + 1$ , then G is class-1.

Now we consider the core of  $\Gamma$ . Notice that, from the proof of Theorem 2.1,  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$  is the subgraph of  $\Gamma$  induced by the vertex set  $\{A \in V(\Gamma) \mid |A| \ge 2\}$ .

**Theorem 3.5.** If  $|X| \ge 2$  then  $\chi'(\Gamma) = 2^{n-1} - 1$ . **Proof** It is clear for |X| = 2. For  $|X| = n \ge 3$ , consider the graphs

$$G_1 = (V(\Gamma), B)$$
 and  
 $G_2 = (V(\Gamma), E(\Gamma_{\Delta}))$ 

where  $B = \{\{i\} - (X \setminus \{i\}) \mid 1 \le i \le n\}$ . Thus, B is a matching such that no edge has both end vertices in  $N_{G_2}[\Lambda_{G_2}] = V(\Gamma_{\Delta})$ . Since  $\Gamma = G_1 \cup G_2$  and  $\Delta(\Gamma) = \Delta(G_2) + 1$ , it follows from Lemma 3.4 that  $\Gamma$  is class-1.

## 4. Hamiltonian subgraphs of $\Gamma(SL_X)$

A cycle that travels exactly once over each vertex in a graph is called a Hamiltonian cycle. A graph is called a Hamiltonian graph if it has a Hamiltonian cycle. Since all degrees of all vertices in a Hamiltonian graph are at least 2,  $\Gamma$  is not a Hamiltonian graph. However, we may consider the  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$  in the following theorem.

**Theorem 4.1.**  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$  is a Hamiltonian graph if |X| = 3, 4, or 5, but  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$  is not a Hamiltonian graph if  $|X| \ge 6$ . **Proof** Without loss of generality suppose that  $X = \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ . If |X| = 3 then

$$\{1,2\}-\{1,3\}-\{2,3\}-\{1,2\}$$

is Hamiltonian a cycle in  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$ . If |X| = 4 then

$$\{1,2\} - \{3,4\} - \{1,2,4\} - \{1,3\} - \{2,4\} - \{1,3,4\} - \{2,3\} - \\ \{1,4\} - \{1,2,3\} - \{2,3,4\} - \{1,2\}$$

is a Hamiltonian cycle in  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$ . If |X| = 5 then

$$\{3,4\} - \{1,2,5\} - \{3,4,5\} - \{1,2\} - \{1,3,4,5\} - \{2,5\} - \{1,3,4\} - \{2,4,5\} - \{1,3\} - \{1,2,4,5\} - \{2,3\} - \{1,4,5\} - \{1,2,3\} - \{4,5\} - \{1,2,3,4\} - \{3,5\} - \{1,2,4\} - \{2,3,5\} - \{1,4\} - \{2,3,4,5\} - \{1,5\} - \{2,3,4\} - \{1,3,5\} - \{1,2,4\} - \{1,2,3,5\} - \{3,4\}$$

is a Hamiltonian cycle in  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$ . Therefore,  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$  is a Hamiltonian graph for |X| = 3, 4 or 5.

Suppose that  $|X| \ge 6$ . Then consider the subsets

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathcal{A} & = & \{ U \in V(\Gamma) \mid |U| = 2 \}, \\ \mathcal{B} & = & \{ T \in V(\Gamma) \mid |T| = n - 2 \}, \\ \mathcal{C} & = & \{ W \in V(\Gamma) \mid |W| = n - 1 \} \end{array}$$
 and

of  $V(\Gamma)$ . Notice that, for any  $U \in \mathcal{A}$ , each adjacent vertex of U must be in  $\mathcal{B} \cup \mathcal{C}$ , and that, if  $T \in \mathcal{B}$  is an adjacent vertex, then  $T = X \setminus U$ . Now suppose that  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$  is a Hamiltonian graph. Then we have a Hamiltonian cycle in  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$  of the form

$$U_1 - Y_1 - \dots - Z_1 - U_2 - Y_2 - \dots - Z_{k-1} - U_k - Y_k - \dots - Z_k - U_1$$

, where  $U_i \in \mathcal{A}$ ;  $Y_i, Z_i \in \mathcal{B} \cup \mathcal{C}$  for  $1 \le i \le k = \binom{n}{2}$ . Since  $|\mathcal{C}| = n$ , there are at most n pairs  $(Y_i, Z_i)$  such that  $Y_i = Z_i \in \mathcal{C}$  for  $1 \le i \le k$ . Since we need at least  $n + 2\binom{n}{2} - n$  vertices from  $\mathcal{B} \cup \mathcal{C}$ , then we have

$$n+2\left(\binom{n}{2}-n\right)\leq n+\binom{n}{2}=|\mathcal{B}\cup\mathcal{C}|,$$

which contradicts  $|X| = n \ge 6$ . Therefore,  $\Gamma_{\Delta}$  is not a Hamiltonian graph for  $|X| \ge 6$ .

**Open Problem 4.2.** What is the maximal cycle length in  $\Gamma$  for  $|X| \ge 6$ ?

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