Discussiones Mathematicae General Algebra and Applications 40 (2020) 105–117 doi:10.7151/dmgaa.1322

ON THE INTERSECTION GRAPHS ASSOCIETED TO POSETS

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Abstract

Let (P, \leq) be a poset with the least element 0. The intersection graph of ideals of P, denoted by G(P), is a graph whose vertices are all nontrivial ideals of P and two distinct vertices I and J are adjacent if and only if $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$. In this paper, we study the planarity and outerplanarity of the intersection graph G(P). Also, we determine all posets with split intersection graphs.

Keywords: poset, intersection graph, split graph, planar graph, outerplanar graph.

2010 Mathematics Subject Classification: 05C10, 06A07.

1. INTRODUCTION

There are many papers which interlink graph theory and poset theory. Several classes of graphs associated with algebraic structures have been actively investigated (see for example, [2–5,11]). The intersection graph is an undirected graph formed from a family of sets, by creating one vertex for each set and connecting

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two vertices by an edge whenever the corresponding two sets have a non-empty intersection. Any undirected graph G may be represented as an intersection graph: for each vertex v_i of G, form a set S_i consisting of the edges incident to v_i ; then two such sets have a non-empty intersection if and only if the corresponding vertices share an edge. There has been a couple of papers devoted to study of the intersection graph of algebraic structures (see [7,9,14,15] and [16]). Also, in [8], the intersection graph of ideals of a ring is studied.

Let (P, \leq) be a poset with the least element 0. The intersection graph of P, denoted by G(P), is introduced in [1]. The intersection graph of ideals of P is a graph whose vertices are all non-trivial ideals of P, and two distinct vertices I and J are adjacent if and only if $I \cap J \neq \{0\}$. In [1], the authors studied some basic properties of G(P).

In Section 2 of this paper, we study all posets P with complete bipartite and split intersection graphs. In Sections 3 and 4, we investigate the planarity and outerplanarity of the intersection graph G(P).

Now, we recall some definitions and notations on graphs and partially ordered sets. We use the standard terminology of graphs in [6] and partially ordered sets in [10]. In a graph G with vertex-set V(G), the distance between two distinct vertices a and b, denoted by d(a, b), is the length of the shortest path connecting a and b, if such a path exists; otherwise, we set $d(a, b) = \infty$. The diameter of a graph G is diam $(G) = \sup\{d(a, b) : a \text{ and } b \text{ are distinct vertices of } G\}$. The girth of G, denoted by g(G), is the length of the shortest cycle in G, if G contains a cycle; otherwise, we set $g(G) = \infty$. Also, for two distinct vertices a and b in G, the notation a-b means that a and b are adjacent. A graph G is said to be connected if there exists a path between any two distinct vertices, and it is complete if it is connected with diameter one. We use K_n to denote the complete graph with nvertices. Also, we say that G is totally disconnected if no two vertices of G are adjacent.

For a positive integer r, an r-partite graph is one whose vertex-set can be partitioned into r subsets so that no edge has both ends in any one subset. A *complete* r-partite graph is one in which each vertex is joined to every vertex that is not in the same subset. The *complete bipartite* graph (2-partite graph) with part sizes m and n is denoted by $K_{m,n}$.

Also a graph on n vertices such that n-1 of the vertices have degree one, all of which are adjacent only to the remaining vertex a, is called a *star* graph with center a. Let x be an arbitrary vertex of a graph G. The *neighborhood* (respectively, *degree*) of x, denoted by N(x) (respectively, deg(x)), is the set of vertices which are adjacent to x (respectively, the cardinality of N(x)).

In a partially ordered set (P, \leq) (poset, briefly) with a least element 0, an element a in P with $a \neq 0$ is called an *atom* if, for an element x in P, the relation $0 \leq x \leq a$ implies that either x = 0 or x = a. We denote the set of all atoms

of P by A(P). Assume that S is a subset of P. Let $S \subseteq P$. An element x in P is a *lower bound* of S if $x \leq s$ for all $s \in S$. An *upper bound* is defined in a dual manner. The set of all lower bounds of S is denoted by S^{ℓ} and the set of all upper bounds of S by S^{u} , i.e.,

$$S^{\ell} := \{ x \in P \mid x \le s, \text{ for all } s \in S \}$$

and

$$S^u := \{ x \in P \mid s \le x, \text{ for all } s \in S \}.$$

If $S = \{a\}$, for some $a \in P$, then we denote S^{ℓ} and S^{u} by $[a]^{\ell}$ and $[a]^{u}$, respectively. Suppose that I is a non-empty subset of P. We say that I is an *ideal* of P if, for arbitrary elements x and y in P, the relations $x \in I$ and $y \leq x$ imply that $y \in I$. Also, we say that a covers b or b is covered by a, in notation $b \prec a$, if and only if b < a and there is no element x in P such that b < x < a.

2. Basic properties of G(P)

In this paper, we assume that P is a finite poset and $A(P) = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n\}$ is the set of all atoms of P.

We begin this section with the following lemma.

Lemma 2.1. If G(P) is a complete bipartite graph, then $|A(P)| \leq 2$.

Proof. Assume that X and Y are two parts of G(P). Suppose on the contrary that $|A(P)| \ge 3$ and $a_1, a_2, a_3 \in A(P)$. Then $\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_2\}$ and $\{0, a_3\}$ are in the same part, say part X. Now, if $\{0, a_1, a_2\}$ is in part X, then it is adjacent to $\{0, a_1\}$ and $\{0, a_2\}$, which is impossible. So we have that the vertex $\{0, a_1, a_2\}$ is in part Y. But then $\{0, a_3\}$ is not adjacent to $\{0, a_1, a_2\}$ which is a contradiction.

Clearly, if |A(P)| = 1, then G(P) is a complete graph. Thus we have the following corollary.

Corollary 2.2. Suppose that |A(P)| = 1. Then the following conditions are equivalent.

- (i) G(P) is a complete bipartite graph.
- (ii) P is a chain with $|P| \leq 4$.
- (iii) G(P) is a star graph.

Proposition 2.3. The graph G(P) is a complete bipartite graph if and only if P is a chain with $|P| \le 4$, or P is one of the posets in Figure 1.



Proof. First suppose that G(P) is a complete bipartite graph and P is non of the posets in Figure 1. By Lemma 2.1, we have $|A(P)| \leq 2$. If |A(P)| = 1, then, by Corollary 2.2, the result holds. Now, assume that |A(P)| = 2. Suppose that X and Y are two parts of G(P). We have the following two cases:

Case 1. There exists an element $x \in \{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u$, where $1 \le i \ne j \le 2$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $x \in \{a_1\}^u \setminus \{a_2\}^u$. Clearly $\{0, a_1\}$ and $\{0, a_2\}$ belong to a same part, say X. Then $\{0, a_1, x\}$ and $\{0, a_1, a_2\}$ belong to Y. But this is impossible, since $\{0, a_1, x\}$ is adjacent to $\{0, a_1, a_2\}$.

Case 2. Suppose that, for all $x \in P \setminus \{0, a_1, a_2\}$, we have $x \in \{a_1, a_2\}^u$. In this situation the vertices $\{0, a_1\}$ and $\{0, a_2\}$ belong to a same part, say X. Also $\{0, a_1, a_2, x\}$ and $\{0, a_1, a_2\}$ belong to Y, which is again impossible.

Therefore, if G(P) is a complete bipartite graph, then P is a chain with $|P| \leq 4$, or P is one of the posets in Figure 1.

The converse statement is clear.

A graph G is said to be a *split* graph if the vertex-set of G is a disjoint union of two sets K and S, where K is a complete induce subgraph and S is an independent set.

Lemma 2.4. Suppose that G(P) is split. Then $|A(P)| \leq 3$.

Proof. Let K and S be two parts of G(P) such that K is complete and S is independent. Assume on the contrary that $|A(P)| \ge 4$. If $\{0, a_1\} \in K$, then $\{0, a_2\}$ belongs to S, because $\{0, a_1\}$ is not adjacent to $\{0, a_2\}$. Now, we have the following two cases:

Case 1. $\{0, a_3\} \in K$. Then K is not complete, since $\{0, a_1\}$ is not adjacent to $\{0, a_3\}$.

Case 2. $\{0, a_3\} \notin K$. Then $\{0, a_3\}$ is in S, and so $\{0, a_2, a_3\}$ must be in K, which is a contradiction, because $\{0, a_2, a_3\}$ is not adjacent to $\{0, a_1\}$.

If $\{0, a_i\} \in S$, for all $a_i \in A(P)$, then $\{0, a_1, a_2\}$ belongs to K. Because $\{0, a_1\}$ is adjacent to $\{0, a_1, a_2\}$. Now, we have the following two situations:

(i) If $\{0, a_3, a_4\}$ is in S, then S is not an independent set, because $\{0, a_3\}$ is adjacent to $\{0, a_3, a_4\}$, which is a contradiction.

(ii) If $\{0, a_3, a_4\}$ is in K, then it is not adjacent to $\{0, a_1, a_2\}$, which is a contradiction.

So if G(P) is split, then $|A(P)| \leq 3$.

Proposition 2.5. The graph G(P) is split if and only if one of the following conditions holds.

- (i) |A(P)| = 1.
- (ii) |A(P)| = 2 and we have either $|P| \le 4$ or $|\{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u| = 1$, for some $1 \le i \ne j \le 2$.
- (iii) |A(P)| = 3 and $\{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u = \emptyset$, for all $1 \le i \ne j \le 3$.

Proof. First suppose that G(P) is split and $|A(P)| \neq 1$. Then, by Lemma 2.4, we have $|A(P)| \leq 3$. For |A(P)| = 2, suppose on the contrary that $|P| \geq 5$ and $|\{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u| \geq 2$, for all $1 \leq i \neq j \leq 2$. Hence there exist distinct elements $x_1, x_2 \in P \setminus \{0, a_1, a_2\}$ such that $x_1 \in \{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u$ and $x_2 \in \{a_j\}^u \setminus \{a_i\}^u$ for $1 \leq i \neq j \leq 2$. So we have

$$\{\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_1, x_1\}, \{0, a_1, a_2\}\} \subseteq K \text{ and } \{\{0, a_2\}\} \subseteq S.$$

Now consider the vertex $\{0, a_2, x_2\}$. If $\{0, a_2, x_2\} \in K$, then it is not adjacent to $\{0, a_1\}$, and so it is in S, which is impossible, because $\{0, a_2, x_2\}$ is adjacent to $\{0, a_2\}$. So G(P) is not split.

For |A(P)| = 3, suppose on the contrary that $|\{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u| \ge 1$, for some $1 \le i \ne j \le 3$. Hence there exists an element $x \in P \setminus \{0, a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ such that $x \in \{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u$ for $1 \le i \ne j \le 3$. So we have

 $\{\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_1, x\}, \{0, a_1, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, a_3\}\} \subseteq K \text{ and } \{\{0, a_2\}, \{0, a_3\}\} \subseteq S.$

Now consider the vertex $\{0, a_2, a_3\}$. If $\{0, a_2, a_3\} \in K$, then it is not adjacent to $\{0, a_1\}$. So it is in S. But it is impossible, because $\{0, a_2, a_3\}$ is adjacent to $\{0, a_2\}$, and so G(P) is not split. Therefore |A(P)| = 1, or |A(P)| = 2 and either we have $|P| \leq 4$ or $|\{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u| = 1$, for some $1 \leq i \neq j \leq 2$, or |A(P)| = 3 and $\{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u = \emptyset$, for all $1 \leq i \neq j \leq 3$.

Conversely, if |A(P)| = 1, then it is easy to see that G(P) is split. If |A(P)| = 2 and, $|P| \le 4$ or $|\{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u| = 1$, for some $1 \le i \ne j \le 2$, then we have the following two cases:

Case 1. There exists an element $x \in \{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u$, for some $1 \le i \ne j \le 2$. Then

$$K = \{\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_1, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, x\}\} \text{ and } S = \{\{0, a_2\}\}, \{0, a_1, x\}\}$$

and so G(P) is split.

Case 2.
$$\{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u = \emptyset$$
, for all $1 \le i \ne j \le 2$. Then

$$\begin{split} K &= V(G(P)) \setminus \{0, a_2\} \text{ and } S = \{\{0, a_2\}\},\\ \text{If } |A(P)| &= 3 \text{ and } \{a_i\}^u \setminus \{a_j\}^u = \emptyset, \text{ for all } 1 \leq i \neq j \leq 3, \text{ then we have}\\ K &= V(G(P)) \setminus \{0, a_i\} \text{ and } S = \{\{0, a_i\}\}, \end{split}$$

which means that G(P) is split.

In a graph G, a vertex v is called *simplicial* if the subgraph of G induced by the vertex-set $\{v\} \cup N(v)$ is a complete graph.

Proposition 2.6. If P is a chain, then each vertex in G(P) is a simplicial vertex.

Proof. Suppose that P is a chain. Then the graph G(P) is a complete graph, and so all vertices are simplicial.

Proposition 2.7. A vertex I is simplicial if and only if I contains only one atom.

Proof. Let I be a simplicial vertex. Suppose on the contrary that I has at least two atoms. Let $a_1, a_2 \in I$. In this case, I is adjacent to $\{0, a_1\}$ and $\{0, a_2\}$, but $\{0, a_1\}$ is not adjacent to $\{0, a_2\}$, a contradiction. So I contains only one atom.

Conversely, it is easy to see that if I contains only one atom, then the subgraph of G(P) induced by the vertex-set $\{I\} \cup N(I)$ is a complete graph.

3. Planarity of G(P)

In this section, we completely characterize all posets P such that G(P) is planar.

Recall that a graph G is said to be *planar* if it can be drawn in the plane, so that its edges intersect only at their ends. A *subdivision* of a graph is any graph that can be obtained from the original graph by replacing some edges by paths. A remarkable characterization of the planar graphs was given by Kuratowski in 1930. Kuratowski's Theorem says that a graph is planar if and only if it contains no subdivision of K_5 or $K_{3,3}$.

The following lemma is needed in the rest of this section.

Lemma 3.1. If G(P) is planar, then $|A(P)| \leq 3$.

Proof. Suppose on the contrary that $|A(P)| \ge 4$ and $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4 \in A(P)$. Then we can find a subdivition of K_5 in the graph G(P), which is pictured in Figure 2. Therefore, by Kuratowski's Theorem, G(P) is not planar. Hence we have $|A(P)| \le 3$.

By Lemma 3.1, we need to study the cases that |A(P)| is equal to 1, 2 or 3.



Theorem 3.2. Suppose that |A(P)| = 1. Then G(P) is planar if and only if P is a chain with $|P| \le 6$, or $|P| \le 4$, or P is one of the posets in Figure 3.

Proof. Suppose that G(P) is planar. Since |A(P)| = 1, we have G(P) is a complete graph, and clearly if $|P| \leq 4$, then G(P) is planar. Now, assume that |P| = 5. If P is a chain or it is one of the posets in Figure 3, then G(P) is planar. If P is one of the posets in Figure 4, then one can easily see that G(P) contains a copy of K_5 , and so it is not planar.



Figure 4

If |P| = 6, then one can see that G(P) is planar if and only if P is a chain. Also, if $|P| \ge 7$, then clearly G(P) is not planar.

The converse statement is clear.

In the following theorem, we investigate the planarity of G(P), when |A(P)| = 2.

Theorem 3.3. Suppose that |A(P)| = 2. Then G(P) is planar if and only if $|P| \le 4$, or P is one of the posets in Figure 5.



Figure 5

Proof. Let $A(P) = \{a_1, a_2\}$. First suppose that $|P| \ge 6$. Clearly if P is the poset which is shown in Figure 5.1, then G(P) is planar. Otherwise, we have the following situations:

(i) For each element $x \in P \setminus \{0, a_1, a_2\}$, we have $a_1, a_2 \in \{x\}^{\ell}$. Then it is easy to see that the set of all non-trivial ideals of P except the ideals $\{0, a_1\}$ and $\{0, a_2\}$ forms a complete subgraph of G(P). Hence one can find a copy of K_5 in G(P), and so it is not planar.

(ii) There exists an element z in P such that $a_2 \notin \{z\}^l$ and $a_1 \prec z$. Since $|P| \ge 6$, we can find an element $y \in P$ such that $\{y\}^\ell \ne P$. Then the vertices of the set $\{\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, z\}\} \cup \{\{0, a_1, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, a_2, z\}, \{0, a_1, a_2\} \cup \{y\}^\ell\}$ form the graph $K_{3,3}$, and so G(P) is not planar.

If |P| = 5 and P is one of the posets of Figures 5.2, 5.3 or 5.4, then one can easily check that G(P) is planar. Otherwise, P is one of the posets of Figure 6.



If P is the poset of Figure 6.1, then the vertices of the set

 $\{\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, x_1\}\} \cup \{\{0, a_1, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, a_2, x_1\}, \{0, a_1, a_2, x_2\}\}$

form the graph $K_{3,3}$, and so G(P) is not planar.

Also, if P is the poset of Figure 6.2, then G(P) contains a copy of K_5 with vertex-set

$$\{\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_1, x_1\}, \{0, a_1, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, a_2, x_1\}, \{0, a_1, a_2, x_2\}\}.$$

Hence it is not planar. Clearly if $|P| \leq 4$, then G(P) is planar. Now, by the above discussion the result holds.

Finally, in order to complete the study of the planarity of G(P), we assume that |A(P)| = 3.

Theorem 3.4. Suppose that |A(P)| = 3. Then G(P) is planar if and only if |P| = 4, or P is the poset in Figure 7.



Figure 7

Proof. First suppose that $|P| \ge 6$. Then there exists an element $x \in P \setminus \{0, a_1, a_2, a_3\}$ such that $\{x\}^{\ell} \neq P$. Therefore, G(P) contains a copy of K_5 with vertexset

 $\{\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_1, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, a_3\}, \{0, a_1, a_2, a_3\}, \{x\}^{\ell}\},\$

which implies that G(P) is not planar.

If |P| = 5 and P is the poset of Figure 7, then one can easily check that G(P) is planar. Otherwise, there exists an element z in P such that $a_i \notin \{z\}^{\ell}$, for some i = 1, 2, 3. Then the vertices of the set $\{\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_1, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, a_3\}, \{0, a_1, a_2, a_3\}, \{z\}^{\ell}\}$ form the graph K_5 , and so G(P) is not planar. Also if |P| = 4, then G(P) is planar.

By the above discussion the result holds.

4. Outerplanarity of G(P)

A graph G is *outerplanar* if it can be drawn in the plane without crossing in such a way that all of the vertices belong to the unbounded face of the drawing. There is a characterization for outerplanar graphs that says a graph is outerplanar if and only if it does not contain a subdivision of K_4 or $K_{2,3}$. In the rest of the paper, we characterize all posets P such that G(P) is outerplanar.

Lemma 4.1. If G(P) is outerplanar, then $|A(P)| \leq 2$.

Proof. Assume to the contrary that $|A(P)| \ge 3$. Then one can find a copy of K_4 in G(P), and so G(P) is not outerplanar. Hence we have $|A(P)| \le 2$.

By Lemma 4.1, we study the cases that |A(P)| is equal to 1 or 2. In the following proposition, we investigate the outerplanarity of G(P), when |A(P)| = 1.

Theorem 4.2. Suppose that |A(P)| = 1. Then G(P) is outerplanar if and only if P is a chain with $|P| \le 5$, or $|P| \le 4$.

Proof. Suppose that |A(P)| = 1. Then G(P) is a complete graph, and clearly if $|P| \le 4$, then G(P) is outerplanar.

If |P| = 5, then it is easy to check that G(P) is outerplanar if and only if P is a chain. If $|P| \ge 6$, then clearly G(P) is not outerplanar.

The converse statement is clear.

Proposition 4.3. Assume that |A(P)| = 2. Then G(P) is outerplanar if and only if $|P| \le 4$, or P is the poset in Figure 8.



Figure 8

Proof. Let $A(P) = \{a_1, a_2\}$. First suppose that $|P| \ge 5$. Clearly if P is the poset in Figure 8, then G(P) is outerplanar. Otherwise, we have the following situations:

(i) If for each element $x \in P \setminus \{0, a_1, a_2\}$, we have $a_1, a_2 \in \{x\}^{\ell}$, then it is easy to see that the set of all non-trivial ideals of P except the ideals $\{0, a_1\}$ and $\{0, a_2\}$ forms a complete subgraph of G(P). Hence one can find a copy of K_4 in G(P), and so it is not outerplanar.

(ii) Now suppose that there exists an element z in P such that $a_2 \notin \{z\}^l$ and $a_1 \prec z$. Then the vertices of the set $\{\{0, a_1, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, a_2, z\}\} \cup \{\{0, a_1\}, \{0, a_2\}, \{0, a_1, z\}\}$ form the graph $K_{2,3}$, and so $\Gamma(P)$ is not outerplanar.

Clearly if $|P| \leq 4$, then G(P) is outerplanar.

The converse statement is clear.

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Let G be a graph with n vertices and q edges. We recall that a chord is any edge of G joining two nonadjacent vertices in a cycle of G. Let C be a cycle of G. We say that C is a primitive cycle if it has no chords. Also, a graph G has the primitive cycle property (PCP) if any two primitive cycles intersect in at most one edge. The number frank(G) is called the free rank of G and it is the number of primitive cycles of G. Also, the number $\operatorname{rank}(G)=q-n+r$ is called the cycle rank of G, where r is the number of connected components of G. The cycle rank of G can be expressed as the dimension of the cycle space of G. By [12, Proposition 2.2], we have $\operatorname{rank}(G) \leq \operatorname{frank}(G)$. A graph G is called a ring graph if it satisfies in one of the following equivalent conditions (see [12]).

- (i) $\operatorname{rank}(G) = \operatorname{frank}(G)$,
- (ii) G satisfies the PCP and G does not contain a subdivision of K_4 as a subgraph.

Clearly, every outerplanar graph is a ring graph and every ring graph is a planar graph.

Now, in view of the proofs of Proposition 4.3 and Theorem 4.2, we have the following result.

Theorem 4.4. The intersection graph G(P) is a ring graph if and only if it is an outerplanar graph.

Let G and H be graphs. A homomorphism f from G to H is a map from V(G) to V(H) such that, for any $a, b \in V(G)$, a is adjacent to b implies that f(a) is adjacent to f(b). Moreover, if f is bijective and its inverse mapping is also a homomorphism, then we call f an *isomorphism* from G to H, and in this case we say G is isomorphic to H, denoted by $G \cong H$. A homomorphism (respectively, an isomorphism) from G to itself is called an *endomorphism* (respectively, *automorphism*) of G. An endomorphism f is said to be half-strong if f(a) is adjacent to f(b) implies that there exist $c \in f^{-1}(f(a))$ and $d \in f^{-1}(f(b))$ such that c is adjacent to d. By End(G), we denote the set of all the endomorphisms of G. It is well-known that End(G) is a monoid with respect to the composition of mappings. Let S be a semigroup. An element a in S is called *regular* if a = aba for some $b \in S$ and S is called regular if every element in S is regular. Also, a graph G is called *end-regular* if End(G) is regular.

Now, we recall the following Lemma from [13].

Lemma 4.5 [13, Lemma 2.1]. Let G be a graph. If there are pairwise distinct vertices a, b, c in G satisfying $N(c) \subseteq N(a) \subseteq N(b)$, then G is not end-regular.

Theorem 4.6. Suppose that $|A(P)| \ge 3$. Then G(P) is not end-regular.

Proof. Suppose that a_1, a_2, a_3 are distinct atoms in A(P). Then

$$\{0, a_2\} \in \mathcal{N}(\{0, a_1, a_2\}) \setminus \mathcal{N}(\{0, a_1\}).$$

Also, we have $N(\{0, a_1, a_2\}) \subseteq N(\{0, a_1, a_2, a_3\})$. So, by Lemma 4.5, G(P) is not end-regular.

Acknowledgments

The authors are deeply grateful to the referee for careful reading of the manuscript and helpful suggestions.

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Received 24 July 2019 Revised 3 December 2019 Accepted 7 February 2020