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# A co-ideal based identity-summand graph of a commutative semiring 

S. Ebrahimi Atani, S. Dolati Pish Hesari, M. Khoramdel


#### Abstract

Let $I$ be a strong co-ideal of a commutative semiring $R$ with identity. Let $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ be a graph with the set of vertices $S_{I}(R)=\{x \in R \backslash I: x+y \in I$ for some $y \in R \backslash I\}$, where two distinct vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if and only if $x+y \in I$. We look at the diameter and girth of this graph. Also we discuss when $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is bipartite. Moreover, studies are done on the planarity, clique, and chromatic number of this graph. Examples illustrating the results are presented.


Keywords: strong co-ideal; $Q$-strong co-ideal; identity-summand element; identitysummand graph; co-ideal based

Classification: 16Y60, 05C62

## 1. Introduction

Among the most interesting graphs are the zero-divisor graphs, because these involve both ring theory and graph theory. By studying these graphs, we can gain a broader insight into the concepts and properties that involve both graphs and rings. It was Beck (see [3]) who first introduced the notion of a zero-divisor graph for commutative ring. This notion was later redefined by D. F. Anderson and P. S. Livingston in [1]. In [12], Redmond introduced the zero-divisor graph with respect to a proper ideal. Since then, there has been a lot of interest in this subject and various papers were published establishing different properties of these graphs as well as relations between graphs of various extensions (see [2], [11], [12] and [13]). Recently, such graphs are used to study semirings [5], [6] and [9].

Semirings have proven to be useful in theoretical computer science, in particular for studying automata and formal languages, hence, ought to be in the literature [10] and [14]. From now on let $R$ be a commutative semiring with identity. In [8], the present authors introduced the identity-summand graph, denoted by $\Gamma(R)$, such that vertices are all non-identity identity-summands of $R$ and two distinct vertices are joint by an edge when the sum of them is 1 . We use the notation $S(R)$ to refer to the set of elements of $R$ that are identity-summands (we use $S^{*}(R)$ to denote the set of non-identity identity-summands of $R$ ), we say that $r \in R$ is an identity-summand of $R$, if there exists $1 \neq a \in R$ such that $r+a=1$.

In this paper we will generalize this notion by replacing elements whose sum is identity with elements whose sum lies in some strong co-ideal $I$ of $R$. Indeed, we define an undirected graph $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ with vertices $S_{I}(R)=\{x \in R \backslash I: x+y \in$ $I$ for some $y \in R \backslash I\}$, where distinct vertices $x$ and $y$ are adjacent if and only if $x+y \in I$. This definition was motivated by [12], [6] and [8]. Here is a brief summary of our paper. We will make an intensive study on identity-summand graph of commutative semirings based on strong co-ideals. In section 2 , it is shown that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is connected with $\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq 3$, and if $I$ is a subtractive co-ideal, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not complete. We show that if $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ contains a cycle, then $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq 4$ and several characterizations of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ by girth are given. Also it is proved that if $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ and $\Gamma(R / I)$ has a cycle, then $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\operatorname{gr}(\Gamma(R / I))$. In Section 3, it is shown that for a subtractive strong co-ideal $I$ of $R, \Gamma_{I}(R)$ is complete bipartite if and only if there exist two distinct prime strong co-ideals $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ of $R$ such that $P_{1} \cap P_{2}=I$. Section 4 is devoted to study chromatic number, clique number and planar property of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.

In order to make this paper easier to follow, we recall various notions which will be used in the sequel. For a graph $\Gamma$, we denote by $E(\Gamma)$ and $V(\Gamma)$ the set of all edges and vertices, respectively. We recall that a graph is connected if there exists a path connecting any two distinct vertices. 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 $d(a, b)=\infty$, also $d(a, a)=0)$. The diameter of graph $\Gamma$, denoted by $\operatorname{diam}(\Gamma)$, is equal to $\sup \{d(a, b): a, b \in V(\Gamma)\}$. 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 $\Gamma$, denoted $\operatorname{gr}(\Gamma)$, is the length of a shortest cycle in $\Gamma$, provided $\Gamma$ contains a cycle; otherwise $\operatorname{gr}(\Gamma)=\infty$. An edge for which the two ends are the same is called a loop at the common vertex. For $r$ a nonnegative integer, an $r$-partite graph is one whose set of vertices can be partitioned into $r$ subsets so that no edge has both ends in any single 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 (i.e., 2 -partite) graph with parts of size $m$ and $n$ is denoted by $K_{m, n}$. We will sometimes call $K_{1, n}$ a star graph. We define a coloring of a graph $G$ to be an assignment of colors (elements of some set) to vertices of $G$, one color to each vertex, so that distinct colors are assigned to adjacent vertices. If $n$ colors are used, then the coloring is referred to as an $n$-coloring. If there exists an $n$-coloring of a graph $G$, then $G$ is called $n$-colorable. The minimum $n$ for which a graph $G$ is $n$-colorable is called the chromatic number of $G$, and is denoted by $\chi(G)$. A clique of a graph is its maximal complete subgraph and the maximal number of vertices in any clique of graph $G$, denoted by $w(G)$, is called the clique number of $G$.

A commutative semiring $R$ is defined as an algebraic system $(R,+, \cdot)$ such that $(R,+)$ and $(R, \cdot)$ are commutative semigroups, connected by $a(b+c)=a b+a c$ for all $a, b, c \in R$, and there exists $0,1 \in R$ such that $r+0=r$ and $r 0=0 r=0$
and $r 1=1 r=r$ for each $r \in R$. In this paper all semirings considered will be assumed to be commutative semirings with non-zero identity.

Definition 1.1. Let $R$ be a semiring.
(1) A non-empty subset $I$ of $R$ is called co-ideal, if it is closed under multiplication and satisfies the condition $r+a \in I$ for all $a \in I$ and $r \in R$ (so $0 \in I$ if and only if $I=R$ ). A co-ideal $I$ of $R$ is called strong co-ideal provided that $1 \in I$ (in this case, $1+x \in I$ for every $x \in R$ ).
(2) A co-ideal $I$ of $R$ is called subtractive if $x, x y \in I$ implies $y \in I$ (so every subtractive co-ideal is a strong co-ideal).
(3) If $I$ is a co-ideal of $R$, then the co-rad $(I)$ of $I$, is the set of all $x \in R$ for which $n x \in I$ for some positive integer $n$. This is a co-ideal of $R$ containing $I[7]$.
(4) A proper co-ideal $P$ of $R$ is called prime if $x+y \in P$ implies $x \in P$ or $y \in P$. The set of all prime co-ideals of $R$ is denoted by co- $\operatorname{Spec}(R)$. A proper co-ideal $I$ of $R$ is called primary if $a+b \in I$ implies $a \in I$ or $b \in \operatorname{co-rad}(I)$. If $I$ is primary, then $\operatorname{co}-\operatorname{rad}(I)$ is a prime co-ideal. We say that $I$ is $P$-primary if $I$ is primary and co-rad $(I)=P[7]$.
(5) If $D$ is an arbitrary nonempty subset of $R$, then the set $F(D)$ consisting of all elements of $R$ of the form $d_{1} d_{2} \ldots d_{n}+r$ (with $d_{i} \in D$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $r \in R$ ) is a co-ideal of $R$ generated by $D$ [7], [10] and [14].
(6) A semiring $R$ is called co-semidomain, if $a+b=1(a, b \in R)$ implies either $a=1$ or $b=1[7]$.

A strong co-ideal $I$ of a semiring $R$ is called a partitioning strong co-ideal (= $Q$-strong co-ideal) if there exists a subset $Q$ of $R$ such that the following hold.
(1) $R=\bigcup\{q I: q \in Q\}$, where $q I=\{q t: t \in I\}$.
(2) If $q_{1}, q_{2} \in Q$, then $\left(q_{1} I\right) \cap\left(q_{2} I\right) \neq \emptyset$ if and only if $q_{1}=q_{2}$.
(3) For each $q_{1}, q_{2} \in Q$, there exists $q_{3} \in Q$ such that $q_{1} I+q_{2} I \subseteq q_{3} I$.

Let $I$ be a $Q$-strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$ and let $R / I=\{q I: q \in Q\}$. Then $R / I$ forms a semiring under the binary operations $\oplus$ and $\odot$ defined as follows: $\left(q_{1} I\right) \oplus\left(q_{2} I\right)=q_{3} I$, where $q_{3}$ is the unique element in $Q$ such that $\left(q_{1} I+q_{2} I\right) \subseteq q_{3} I$, and $\left(q_{1} I\right) \odot\left(q_{2} I\right)=q_{3} I$, where $q_{3}$ is the unique element in $Q$ such that $\left(q_{1} q_{2}\right) I \subseteq q_{3} I[7]$. If $q_{e}$ is the unique element in $Q$ such that $1 \in q_{e} I$, then $q_{e} I=I$ is the identity of $R / I$. Note that every $Q$-strong co-ideal is subtractive [7]. Throughout this paper we shall assume unless otherwise stated, that $q_{0} I$ (resp. $q_{e} I$ ) is the zero element (resp. the identity element) of $R / I$. In the following, we give an example of a $Q$-strong co-ideal. One can see another example of $Q$-strong co-ideal in [7].

Example 1.2. Let $R$ be the set of all non-negative integers. Define $a+b=$ $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$ and $a \times b=\operatorname{lcm}(a, b)$ (take $0+0=0$ and $0 \times 0=0)$. Then $(R,+, \times)$ is easily checked to be a commutative semiring. Let $I$ be the set of all non-negative
odd integers. Then $I$ is a strong co-ideal of $R$. Set $Q=\{0,1,2,4,8,16,32,64, \ldots\}$. It is clear that $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal.

## 2. Examples and basic properties of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$

In this section we study the diameter, girth and cut-point of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$, when $I$ is a strong co-ideal of the semiring $R$.

Proposition 2.1. Let $I$ be a subtractive co-ideal of a semiring $R$. Then the following hold:
(1) if $x y \in I$, then $x, y \in I$ for all $x, y \in R$;
(2) $I=\operatorname{co-rad}(I)$;
(3) $(I: a)=\{r \in R: r+a \in I\}$ is a subtractive co-ideal of $R$ for all $a \in R$;
(4) if $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal of $R$ and $q_{e} I$ is the identity element in $R / I$, then $q_{e} I \oplus q I=q_{e} I$ and $q I \oplus q I=q I$ for all $q I \in R / I$.

Proof: (1) Observe that $1+x \in I$ for each $x \in R$. If $x y \in I$, then $y(1+x)=$ $x y+y \in I$ gives $y \in I$, since $I$ is subtractive. Similarly, $x \in I$.
(2) It suffices to show that $\operatorname{co-rad}(I) \subseteq I$. Let $x \in \operatorname{co-rad}(I)$, so $n x \in I$ for some positive integer $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Thus $n x=x(\underbrace{1+1+\cdots+1}_{n \text { times }}) \in I$ gives $x \in I$.
(3) Clearly, $1 \in(I: a)$. If $x, y \in(I: a)$, then $x+a \in I$ and $y+a \in I$, implying $a^{2}+a x+a y+x y \in I$. Since $(x y+a)(1+a)(1+y)(1+x) \in I, x y+a \in I$ by (1). Thus $x y \in(I: a)$. As $I$ is a co-ideal, $r+x+a \in I$ for each $r \in R$ and so $x+r \in(I: a)$ for each $r \in R$. This shows that $(I: a)$ is a co-ideal of $R$. Now let $x y, x \in(I: a)$. Then $x y+a+y+x a=(x+1)(y+a) \in I$, which gives $y+a \in I$, and so $y \in(I: a)$, as desired.
(4) Let $q_{e} I \oplus q I=q^{\prime} I$, where $q^{\prime}$ is the unique element in $Q$ such that $q_{e} I+q I \subseteq$ $q^{\prime} I$. Since $I$ is co-ideal, $q I+q_{e} I \subseteq q_{e} I \cap q^{\prime} I$, which gives $q_{e} I=q^{\prime} I$. Finally, $q I \oplus q I=q I \odot\left(q_{e} I \oplus q_{e} I\right)=q I \odot q_{e} I=q I$.

Proposition 2.2. Let $I$ be a strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$. Then $S_{I}(R)=\emptyset$ if and only if $I$ is a prime strong co-ideal of $R$.

Proof: This follows directly from the definitions.
Theorem 2.3. Let $I$ be a $Q$-strong co-ideal of $R$. Then the following are equivalent:
(1) $S_{I}(R)=\emptyset$;
(2) $I$ is a prime co-ideal of $R$;
(3) $S^{*}(R / I)=\emptyset$;
(4) $I$ is $P$-primary.

Proof: $(1) \Leftrightarrow(2)$ follows from Proposition 2.2.
$(2) \Leftrightarrow(3)$ By [[7], Theorem 3.8], $I$ is prime if and only if $R / I$ is co-semidomain. Therefore $I$ is prime if and only if $S^{*}(R / I)=\emptyset$.
$(2) \Rightarrow(4)$ is clear.
(4) $\Rightarrow$ (2) If $I$ is a $P$-primary strong co-ideal of $R$, then $I=\operatorname{co-rad}(I)=P$ by Proposition 2.1(2) and [7, Proposition 2.2]; hence $I$ is prime.

Redmond [12] explored the relationship between $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ and $\Gamma(R / I)$. He gave an example of rings $R, T$ and ideals $I \unlhd R, J \unlhd T$, where $\Gamma(R / I) \cong \Gamma(T / J)$ but $\Gamma_{I}(R) \nsubseteq \Gamma_{J}(T)$. Here we generalize this concept to the case of semirings.

Example 2.4. Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$ and $R=(P(X), \cup, \cap)$ a semiring with $1_{R}=$ $X$, where $P(X)$ is the set of all subsets of $X$. If $I=\{X,\{a, b\}\}$, then $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal, where $Q=\left\{q_{1}=\{c\}, q_{2}=\{a, c\}, q_{3}=\{b, c\}, q_{e}=X\right\}$. An inspection will show that $q_{2} I \oplus q_{3} I=q_{e} I$ and $S^{*}(R / I)=\left\{q_{2} I, q_{3} I\right\}$. Also $S_{I}(R)=\{\{a\},\{b\},\{a, c\},\{b, c\}\}$. Let $T=\{0,1,2,3,4,6,12\}$. Then ( $\left.T, \operatorname{gcd}, \mathrm{lcm}\right)$ (take $\operatorname{gcd}(0,0)=0$ and $\operatorname{lcm}(0,0)=0)$ is a commutative semiring. If $J=\{1,2\}$, then it easily can be checked that $J$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal with $Q=\{0,1,3,4,12\}$, $T / J=\{0 J, 1 J, 3 J, 4 J, 12 J\}, S^{*}(T / J)=\{3 J, 4 J\}$ and $S_{J}(T)=\{3,4,6\}$. Thus $\Gamma(R / I) \cong \Gamma(T / J)$, however $\Gamma_{I}(R) \not \approx \Gamma_{J}(T)$.

The next several results investigate the relationship between $\Gamma(R / I)$ and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.
Proposition 2.5. Let $I$ be a $Q$-strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$ and let $x, y \in$ $S_{I}(R)$ such that $x \in q_{1} I$ and $y \in q_{2} I$, for some $q_{1}, q_{2} \in Q$. Then:
(1) $x$ is adjacent to $y$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ if and only if $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ are adjacent in $\Gamma(R / I)$ and $q_{1} \neq q_{2}$. In particular, each elements of $q_{1} I$ are adjacent to each elements of $q_{2} I$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.
(2) If $q_{1} I \in S^{*}(R / I)$, then all the distinct elements of $q_{1} I$ are not adjacent to each other in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.

Proof: (1) Let $x$ be adjacent to $y$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$, so $x+y \in q_{e} I=I$. Let $q_{1} I \oplus q_{2} I=$ $q_{3} I$, where $q_{3}$ is the unique element in $Q$ such that $q_{1} I+q_{2} I \subseteq q_{3} I$. Since $x+y \in q_{3} I \cap q_{e} I, q_{3}=q_{e}$. Thus $q_{1} I$ is adjacent to $q_{2} I$ in $\Gamma(R / I)$. We show $q_{1} \neq q_{2}$. Suppose, on the contrary, $q_{1}=q_{2}$. Since $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ are adjacent, we have $I=q_{e} I=q_{1} I \oplus q_{2} I=q_{1} I \oplus q_{1} I=q_{1} I$ by Proposition 2.1(4), a contradiction. Thus $q_{1} \neq q_{2}$. Conversely, let $q_{1} I$ be adjacent to $q_{2} I$ in $\Gamma(R / I)$, so $q_{1} I \oplus q_{2} I=q_{e} I$, where $\left(q_{1} I+q_{2} I\right) \subseteq q_{e} I$. Then $x+y \in q_{1} I+q_{2} I \subseteq q_{e} I=I$; hence $x$ is adjacent to $y$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Now, from above discussion, it is clear that each elements of $q_{1} I$ are adjacent to each elements of $q_{2} I$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.
(2) It is similar to the proof of (1).

An edge for which the two ends are the same is called a loop at the common vertex.

Theorem 2.6. Let $I$ be a strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$.
(1) If $I$ is subtractive, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ has no loop.
(2) If $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal and $\Gamma(R / I) \neq \emptyset$, then $\Gamma(R / I)$ has at least two vertices and has no loop.
(3) If $I$ is subtractive and $a \in R$ is a vertex of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ which is adjacent to every other vertex, then $a+a=a$ and ( $I: a$ ) is a maximal element of the
set $\Delta=\{(I: x): x \in R \backslash I\}$ with respect to inclusion. Moreover, $(I: a)$ is a prime co-ideal of $R$.

Proof: (1) Suppose that $a \in R \backslash I$ with $a+a=a(1+1) \in I$. Since $I$ is subtractive $a \in I$, which is a contradiction. So $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ has no loop.
(2) By Proposition 2.1(4), $\Gamma(R / I)$ has no loop, so it has more than one vertex.
(3) Let $a+a \neq a$. As $I$ is subtractive and $a \notin I, a+a \notin I$. Since $a$ is adjacent to every other vertex in $\Gamma_{I}(R), a+a+x \in I$ for each $x \in S_{I}(R)$. Thus $a+a \in S_{I}(R)$. Hence $a+a+a=a(1+1+1) \in I$ gives $a \in I$, a contradiction. So $a+a=a$. Suppose, on the contrary, $(I: a)$ is not maximal. So there is $x \in R \backslash I$ such that $(I: a) \subset(I: x)$. Since $a$ is adjacent to every other vertex in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$, $x+a \in I$, which gives $x \in(I: a) \subset(I: x)$. So $x+x \in I$, a contradiction by (1).

Let $x+y \in(I: a)$ be such that $x \notin(I: a)$. So $x+a \notin I$. As $(I: a) \subseteq(I: x+a)$ and $(I: a)$ is maximal in $\Delta$, we have $(I: a)=(I: x+a)$. Since $x+y \in(I: a)$, we get $y \in(I: a+x)=(I: a)$. Thus $(I: a)$ is prime.

Note that the condition that I is subtractive is necessary in Proposition 2.6 (1) as the following example shows.

Example 2.7. Let $R=(\{0,1,2,3\},+, \times)$, where

$$
a+b= \begin{cases}3 & \text { if } a, b \neq 0 \\ b & \text { if } a=0 \\ a & \text { if } b=0\end{cases}
$$

and $1 \times 1=1,2 \times 1=1 \times 2=2,3 \times 1=1 \times 3=3,2 \times 2=1,2 \times 3=3 \times 2=$ $3,3 \times 3=3$, moreover $r \times 0=0 \times r=0$ for all $r \in R$. Then $I=\{1,3\}$ is a strong co-ideal of $R$ which is not subtractive because $3,3 \times 2 \in I$ but $2 \notin I$. It is easy to see that $S_{I}(R)=\{2\}$ and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ has loop.

Theorem 2.8. Let $I$ be a strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$. Then the following statements hold.
(1) $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is connected with $\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq 3$.
(2) If $I$ is a subtractive co-ideal of $R$ with $\left|S_{I}(R)\right| \geq 3$ then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not a complete graph. In particular, $\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=2$ or 3 .

Proof: (1) Let $x, y \in S_{I}(R)$. If $x+y \in I$, then $x, y$ are adjacent and $d(x, y)=1$. Thus suppose that $x+y \notin I$. By Theorem 2.6(1), $x+x \notin I, y+y \notin I$. As $x, y \in S_{I}(R), x+a \in I, y+b \in I$ for some $a, b \in R \backslash(I \cup\{x, y\})$. If $a=b$, then $x-a-y$ is a path. If $a \neq b$ and $a+b \in I$, then $x-a-b-y$ is a path. If $a \neq b$ and $a+b \notin I$, then $x-a+b-y$ is a path. Thus $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is connected with $\operatorname{diam} \Gamma_{I}(R) \leq 3$.
(2) Assume that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is complete and let $a, b, c \in S_{I}(R)$ be distinct elements. Then $a+c, a+b \in I$, so $b c \in(I: a)$, since $(I: a)$ is a strong co-ideal of $R$ by Proposition 2.1(3). If $b c \in I$, then Proposition 2.1(1) gives $b, c \in I$ that is a contradiction. So $b c \notin I$. If $b c=c$, then $c+b=b c+b=b(1+c) \in I$, implying $b \in I$ by Proposition 2.1, a contradiction. So $b c \neq c$. Since $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is complete,
$c(b+1)=b c+c \in I$; hence $c \in I$ which is a final contradiction. Thus $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not complete (so $\left.\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \neq 1\right)$. Finally, by (1) and Proposition 2.6(1), $\operatorname{diam}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=2$ or 3 .

Note that the condition that I is subtractive is necessary in Theorem 2.8(2), as the following example shows.

Example 2.9. Assume that $R=\{0,1,2,3,4,5\}$. Define

$$
a+b= \begin{cases}5 & \text { if } a \neq 0, b \neq 0, a \neq b \\ a & \text { if } a=b, \\ b & \text { if } a=0 \\ a & \text { if } b=0\end{cases}
$$

and

$$
a * b= \begin{cases}0 & \text { if } a=0 \text { or } b=0 \\ 3 & \text { if } a=b=2 \\ b & \text { if } a=1 \\ a & \text { if } b=1 \\ 5 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Then $(R,+, *)$ is easily checked to be a commutative semiring. An inspection will show that $I=\{1,5\}$ is a co-ideal of $R$ which is not subtractive because $5 * 2 \in I, 5 \in I$ but $2 \notin I$. Also $S_{I}(R)=\{2,3,4\}$ and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete graph.

A vertex $x$ of a connected graph $G$ is a cut-point of $G$ if there are vertices $y$ and $z$ of $G$ such that $x$ is in every path from $y$ to $z$ (and $x \neq y, x \neq z$ ). Equivalently, for a connected graph $G, x$ is a cut-point of $G$ if $G-\{x\}$ is not connected.

Example 2.10. Let $R=(\{0,1,2,4,5,10,20,25,50,100\}, \operatorname{gcd}, l \mathrm{~cm})(\operatorname{take} \operatorname{gcd}(0,0)$ $=0$ and $\operatorname{lcm}(0,0)=0)$ and $I=\{1,2\}$ be a strong co-ideal of $R$. Observe that $S_{I}(R)=\{4,5,10,25,50\}$. It can be easily seen that 4 is a cut-point of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.

In the next theorems, we completely characterize the girth of the graph $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. A cycle graph or a circular graph is a graph that consists of a single cycle, or in other words, some number of vertices connected in a closed chain.
Theorem 2.11. Let $I$ be a strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$.
(1) If $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ contains a cycle, then $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq 4$.
(2) If $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal such that $\Gamma(R / I)$ and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ contain a cycle, then $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\operatorname{gr}(\Gamma(R / I))$. Moreover, If $\Gamma(R / I)$ has only two vertices $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ with $\left|q_{i} I\right| \geq 2(i=1,2)$, then $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$.
(3) If $I$ is a subtractive co-ideal, then the only cycle graph with respect to $I$ is $K_{2,2}$.

Proof: (1) It is well-known that for any connected graph $G$, if $G$ contains a cycle, then $\operatorname{gr}(G) \leq 2 \operatorname{diam}(G)+1$. Suppose that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ contains a cycle. Hence $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq 7$. Suppose that $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=n$, where $n \in\{5,6,7\}$ and let $x_{1}-$ $x_{2}-\cdots-x_{n}-x_{1}$ be a cycle of minimum length. Since $x_{1}$ is not adjacent to $x_{3}$,
$x_{1}+x_{3} \notin I$. If $x_{1}+x_{3} \neq x_{i}$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, then $x_{2}-x_{3}-x_{4}-x_{1}+x_{3}-x_{2}$ is a 4 -cycle, that is, a contradiction. Therefore $x_{1}+x_{3}=x_{i}$ for some $1 \leq i \leq n$. We split the proof into three cases.

Case 1: If $x_{1}+x_{3}=x_{1}$ (resp. $x_{1}+x_{3}=x_{3}$ ), then $x_{1}-x_{2}-x_{3}-x_{4}-x_{1}$ (resp. $x_{1}-x_{2}-x_{3}-x_{n}-x_{1}$ ) is a 4 -cycle, a contradiction.

Case 2: If $x_{1}+x_{3}=x_{2}$ (resp. $x_{1}+x_{3}=x_{4}$ ), then $x_{2}-x_{3}-x_{4}-x_{2}$ (resp. $\left.x_{2}-x_{3}-x_{4}-x_{2}\right)$ is a 3 -cycle, that is, a contradiction.

Case 3: If $x_{1}+x_{3}=x_{n}$, then $x_{2}-x_{3}-x_{4}-x_{n}-x_{2}$ is a 4-cycle, which is a contradiction. Thus, every case leads to a contradiction; hence $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq 4$.
(2) Assume that $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=n$ and let $x_{1}-x_{2}-\cdots-x_{n}-x_{1}$ be a cycle in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Since $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal, there exist unique elements $q_{i} \in Q(1 \leq i \leq n)$ such that $x_{i} \in q_{i} I$. By Proposition $2.5, q_{1} I-q_{2} I-\cdots-q_{n} I-q_{1} I$ is a cycle in $\Gamma(R / I)$; thus $\operatorname{gr}(\Gamma(R / I)) \leq \operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$. Now suppose that $\operatorname{gr}(\Gamma(R / I))=m$ and let $q_{1} I-q_{2} I-\cdots-q_{m} I-q_{1} I$ be a cycle of length $m$ in $\Gamma(R / I)$. Then $q_{1}-q_{2}-\cdots-q_{m}-q_{1}$ is a cycle of length $m$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ by Proposition 2.5 , so $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq \operatorname{gr}(\Gamma(R / I))$. Thus $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\operatorname{gr}(\Gamma(R / I))$. Let $\Gamma(R / I)$ have only two vertices $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$; we show that $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$. Let $x, y \in S_{I}(R)$. If $x, y$ are adjacent, then $x \in q_{i} I$ and $y \in q_{j} I$, where $i \neq j \in\{1,2\}$, and if $x, y$ are not adjacent, then either $x, y \in q_{1} I$ or $x, y \in q_{2} I$ by Proposition 2.5. Also, as $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ are adjacent in $\Gamma(R / I)$, every element of $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ are adjacent in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ by Proposition 2.5. Hence $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is complete bipartite with two parts $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$. Since $\left|q_{i} I\right| \geq 2$ for $i=1,2, \operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$.
(3) By Theorem 2.8(2), there is no 3-cycle graph. By (1), there are no cycle graph with five or more vertices. So the only cycle graph is $K_{2,2}$.

Note that the condition that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ and $\Gamma(R / I)$ contain cycle in Theorem $2.11(2)$ is necessary as the following example shows.

Example 2.12. Let $R$ and $I$ be as stated in Example 2.4. As we see $\operatorname{gr}(\Gamma(R / I))=$ $\infty$ and $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)=4\right.$.

For a graph $G$ and vertex $x \in V(G)$, the degree of $x$, denoted $\operatorname{deg}(x)$, is the number of edges of $G$ incident with $x$.
Theorem 2.13. Let $I$ be a subtractive co-ideal of a semiring $R$. Then the following assertions hold:
(1) $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\infty$ if and only if $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a star graph,
(2) $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$ if and only if $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is bipartite but not a star graph,
(3) $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=3$ if and only if $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ contains an odd cycle,
(4) if $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$, then there is no end vertex (i.e, vertex with degree 1) in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.
Proof: (1) First suppose that $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\infty$ and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not a star graph. So $\left|S_{I}(R)\right| \geq 4$, because $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not complete by Theorem 2.8(2). Since $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is connected, there exists a vertex $x \in S_{I}(R)$ such that $\operatorname{deg}(x) \geq 2$. As $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not a star graph, there exists a path of the form $a-x-b-c$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ for some
$a, b, c \in S_{I}(R)$. If $a$ is adjacent to $c$, then $a-x-b-c-a$ is a cycle in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$, a contradiction. If $a$ is not adjacent to $c$, then $a+c \notin I$. Since $a+c+x \in I$, $a+c \in S_{I}(R)$ and $x-a+c-b-x$ is a cycle which is a contradiction. Thus $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a star graph. The other implication is clear.
(2) Let $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$. So $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not a star graph by (1). It is known that a graph is bipartite if and only if it contains no odd cycle [[4], Theorem 4.7]. Thus it suffices to show that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ has no odd cycle. Assume that $x_{1}-x_{2}-\cdots-x_{n}-x_{1}$ is an odd cycle of minimal length $n$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Since $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4, n \geq 5$. As $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \neq 3, x_{2}$ is not adjacent to $x_{4}$, and so $x_{2}+x_{4} \notin I$. Since $x_{2}+x_{4}+x_{1} \in I$, $x_{2}+x_{4} \in S_{I}(R)$. It follows that $x_{1}-x_{2}+x_{4}-x_{5}-\cdots-x_{n}-x_{1}$ is an odd cycle of length $n-2$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$, a contradiction. Hence $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a bipartite graph. Conversely, let $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ be bipartite which is not a star graph. Therefore $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ has no odd cycle, and so $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \neq 3$. By $(1), \operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \neq \infty$. Therefore $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$ by Theorem 2.11(1).
(3) If $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=3$, then we are done. Conversely, assume that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ has an odd cycle. Let $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \neq 3$. If $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$, then (2) implies that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a bipartite graph which is not a star graph. Therefore, by [4, Theorem 4.7], $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ contains no odd cycle, a contradiction. If $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\infty$, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a star graph which contradicts our assumption. Therefore $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=3$.
(4) First we show that if $a-b-c-d$ is a path in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ such that the edge $b-c$ is not contained in a 3 -cycle and $a, b, c, d$ are vertices, then the vertices $a$ and $d$ are distinct and are adjacent to each other. Clearly $a \neq d$. Assume that $a, d$ are not adjacent. Since $a+b \in I,(a+d)+b \in I$; hence $a+d \in S_{I}(R)$. Thus $a+d-b-c-a+d$ is a 3 -cycle, a contradiction.

Now let $a$ be an end vertex in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ and $b$ be a vertex in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ such that $a$ and $b$ are adjacent. Since $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)<\infty, \Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not a star graph by (1). By Theorem 2.8(1), $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is connected, hence there is a path $a-b-c-d$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ with $c, d \notin\{a, b\}$, since $\left.\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ has at least 4 elements. As $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$, the edge $b-c$ is not contained in a 3 -cycle. By the above considerations, $a \neq d$ and $a, d$ are adjacent to each other which is contradiction.

Example 2.14. (1) Let $R=(\{0,1,2,4,5,10,20,25,50,100\}$, gcd, lcm) (take $\operatorname{gcd}(0,0)=0$ and $\operatorname{lcm}(0,0)=0)$ and $I=\{1,2\}$ a strong co-ideal of $R$. Then $S_{I}(R)=\{4,5,10,25,50\}$. It can be easily seen that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a star graph and $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\infty$ (see Example 2.10).
(2) Let $X=\{a, b, c\}$ and $R=(P(X), \cup, \cap)$. Then $I=\{X,\{a, b\}\}$ is a strong co-ideal of $R, \Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph and $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$.
(3) Let $R=(\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,10,12,15,20,30,60\}$, gcd, lcm $)$. Then $I=\{1,2\}$ is a strong co-ideal of $R$ and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a graph with odd cycle. It can be easily seen that $\operatorname{gr}\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=3$.

## 3. Complete $r$-partite graph

In this section we state some theorems, which characterize the complete bipartite identity-summand graph $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ with respect to strong co-ideal $I$ of a semiring $R$.

Theorem 3.1. Let $I$ be a strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$. If there exist two prime strong co-ideals $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ of $R$ such that $I=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph, and the converse is true when $I$ is a subtractive co-ideal of $R$.

Proof: We show that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph with two parts $V_{1}=$ $P_{1} \backslash I$ and $V_{2}=P_{2} \backslash I$. Let $a, b \in R \backslash I$ with $a+b \in I$; so $a+b \in P_{1} \cap P_{2}$. Since $P_{1}, P_{2}$ are prime and $a, b \notin I$, either $a \in P_{1} \backslash I, b \in P_{2} \backslash I$ or $a \in P_{2} \backslash I, b \in P_{1} \backslash I$.

Let $a, b \in S_{I}(R)$ be such that $a \in P_{2} \backslash I, b \in P_{1} \backslash I$. Then $a+b \in P_{1} \cap P_{2}=I$; hence $a, b$ are adjacent. Now we show that each two elements of $V_{i}$ are not adjacent. Let $c, d \in V_{1}$ (so $c, d \notin I$ ). If $c+d \in I$, then $c+d \in P_{2}$ gives $c \in P_{2}$ or $d \in P_{2}$. As $c, d \in V_{1} \subset P_{1}, c \in I$ or $d \in I$, a contradiction. Similarly, each two elements of $V_{2}$ are not adjacent. So $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is complete bipartite with two parts $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$.

Conversely, suppose that $I$ is a subtractive co-ideal and let $V_{1}, V_{2}$ be two parts of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Set $P_{1}=V_{1} \cup I$ and $P_{2}=V_{2} \cup I$. One can easily see that $I=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$. First we show that $P_{1}, P_{2}$ are strong co-ideals of $R$. Let $a, b \in P_{1}$. If $a, b \in I$, then $a b \in I \subseteq P_{1}$. So we may assume that $a \notin I$ or $b \notin I$. If $a, b \in V_{1}$, we have $a+c \in I$ and $b+c \in I$ for each $c \in V_{2}$, since $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is complete bipartite. By Proposition 2.1, $a, b \in(I: c)$ gives $a b \in(I: c)$. If $a b \in I$, then $a \in I$ and $b \in I$ by Proposition 2.1 which is a contradiction. Thus $a b \in S_{I}(R)$. Since $a b+c \in I$ for each $c \in V_{2}, a b \in V_{1}$; so $a b \in P_{1}$. If $a \in V_{1}$ and $b \in I$, then $a+c, b+c \in I$ for each $c \in V_{2}$ and $a b \notin I$. As $I$ is subtractive, $a b+c \in I$ by Proposition 2.1, which gives $a b \in V_{1}$. Now suppose that $a \in P_{1}$ and $r \in R$; we show that $a+r \in P_{1}$. If $a \in I$, then $a+r \in I \subseteq P_{1}$. If $a \in V_{1}$, then $a+c \in I$ for each $c \in V_{2}$. Since $I$ is a co-ideal of $R,(a+r)+c \in I$ for each $r \in R$. If $a+r \notin I$, then $a+r \in V_{1} \subseteq P_{1}$ (because $c \in V_{2}$ and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is bipartite). If $a+r \in I$, then $a+r \in P_{1}$. Therefore $P_{1}$ is a co-ideal of $R$. As $I$ is a strong co-ideal and $1 \in I \subseteq P_{1}, P_{1}$ is a strong co-ideal of $R$. Similarly, $P_{2}$ is a strong co-ideal.

Now we claim that $P_{1}$ is prime. Let $a+b \in P_{1}$ such that $a, b \notin P_{1}$; so $a, b \notin I$. If $a+b \in I$, then either $a \in V_{1}$ and $b \in V_{2}$ or $a \in V_{2}$ and $b \in V_{1}$ which is a contradiction, since $a, b \notin P_{1}$. Thus $a+b \notin I$. If $a+b \in V_{1}$, then $a+b+c \in I$ for each $c \in V_{2}$. We claim that $b+c \notin I$. If $b+c \in I$, then $c \in V_{2}$ gives $b \in V_{1}$, a contradiction. Hence $b+c \notin I$. By the similar way, $a+c \notin I$. Since $a+(b+c) \in I$ and $a \notin V_{1}$, we have $a \in V_{2}$ and $b+c \in V_{1}$. Likewise, $b \in V_{2}$ and $a+c \in V_{1}$. Because $a+b+c \in I,(a+c)+(b+c) \in I$. It shows that two vertices $a+c$ and $b+c$ of $V_{1}$ are adjacent, a contradiction. Thus $P_{1}$ is a prime strong co-ideal of $R$. Similarly, $P_{2}$ is a prime strong co-ideal of $R$.

Example 3.2. Let $X=\{a, b, c\}, R=(P(X), \cup, \cap)$ and $I=\{X,\{b, c\}\}$. Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{1}=(I:\{a, b\})=\{\{c\},\{b, c\},\{a, c\}, X\}, \\
& P_{2}=(I:\{a, c\})=\{\{b\},\{a, b\},\{c, b\}, X\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

An inspection will show that $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ are prime strong co-ideals of $R$ and $I=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$. It is easy to see that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph with $S_{I}(R)=\{\{b\},\{c\},\{a, b\},\{a, c\}\}$.

Theorem 3.3. Let $I$ be a subtractive co-ideal of a semiring $R$. If $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is complete $r$-partite, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph.
Proof: Let $V_{1}, V_{2}, \ldots, V_{r}$ be parts of $\Gamma_{I}(R), r \geq 3$ and $c_{i} \in V_{i}$ for each $i$. Since $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is complete $r$-partite, $c_{1}+c_{3} \in I$ and $c_{3}+c_{2} \in I$. Since $c_{1}, c_{2} \in(I$ : $c_{3}$ ) and $\left(I: c_{3}\right)$ is a strong co-ideal by Proposition 2.1, $c_{1} c_{2} \in\left(I: c_{3}\right)$. As $c_{1}, c_{2} \notin I, c_{1} c_{2} \notin I$ by Proposition 2.1(1). We claim that $c_{1} c_{2} \in V_{1}$. If not, then $c_{1}\left(c_{2}+1\right)=c_{1} c_{2}+c_{1} \in I$ because $c_{1} \in V_{1}$. Since $I$ is subtractive, we get $c_{1} \in I$, a contradiction. Therefore $c_{1} c_{2}$ and $c_{1}$ are not adjacent (because $c_{1}, c_{1} c_{2} \in V_{1}$ ). As $c_{2} \in V_{2}, c_{2}\left(c_{1}+1\right)=c_{1} c_{2}+c_{2} \in I$. Since $I$ is subtractive, $c_{2} \in I$, a contradiction. Hence $r=2$.

The connectivity of a graph $G$, denoted by $k(G)$, is defined to be the minimum number of vertices that are necessary to remove from $G$ in order to produce a disconnected graph.
Theorem 3.4. Let $I$ be a $Q$-strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$. If $\Gamma(R / I)$ is the graph on only two vertices $q_{1} I, q_{2} I$, then
(1) $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph and $k\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\min \left\{\left|q_{1} I\right|,\left|q_{2} I\right|\right\}$;
(2) $I=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$, where $P_{1}=q_{1} I \cup I$ and $P_{2}=q_{2} I \cup I$ are prime strong co-ideals of $R$.

Proof: (1) Since $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ are the only vertices of $\Gamma(R / I)$ and $\Gamma(R / I)$ has no loop, $q_{1} I \oplus q_{2} I=I$; so $q_{1} a+q_{2} b \in I$ for each $a, b \in I$. Since by Proposition 2.5, all elements of $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ are adjacent and none of elements of $q_{i} I$ are adjacent together, we get $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph. The other statement is clear.
(2) It is clear by the proof of Theorem 3.1.

Example 3.5. Let $R=(P(X), \cup, \cap)$, where $X=\{a, b, c\}$. By Example 2.12, $I=\{X,\{a, b\}\}$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal of $R$ with $Q=\left\{q_{1}=\{c\}, q_{2}=\{a, c\}, q_{3}=\right.$ $\left.\{b, c\}, q_{e}=X\right\}$ and $S^{*}(R / I)=\left\{q_{2} I, q_{3} I\right\}$. Since $\Gamma(R / I)$ has only two vertices, $I=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$, where $P_{1}=q_{2} I \cup I$ and $P_{2}=q_{3} I \cup I$. Moreover $k\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=2$.

For every nonnegative integer $r$, the graph $G$ is called $r$-regular if the degree of each vertex of $G$ is equal to $r$.
Theorem 3.6. Let $I$ be a subtractive co-ideal of a semiring $R$, and let $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ be a finite regular graph. Then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is $K_{n, n}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
Proof: The proof is similar to [8, Theorem 4.8].

## 4. Chromatic number, clique number and planar property

In this section we collect some basic properties concerning chromatic number and clique number of the graph $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.

Proposition 4.1. Let $I$ be a co-ideal of a semiring $R$.
(1) If $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal, then $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq|Q|-2$.
(2) If $I$ is a subtractive co-ideal with $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ being finite, then $R$ has a.c.c on co-ideals of the form $(I: a)$, where $a \in R$. Moreover, if $\left(I: a_{i}\right)$ and ( $I: a_{j}$ ) are distinct maximal elements of $\Delta=\{(I: a): a \in R \backslash I\}$, then $a_{i}$ is adjacent to $a_{j}$ in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.
Proof: (1) If $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\infty$, then $Q$ must be infinite by Proposition 2.5. Assume that $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=n$ and let $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$ be the vertices of the greatest complete subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Since $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal, there exist unique elements $q_{i} \in Q$ such that $x_{i} \in q_{i} I(1 \leq i \leq n)$. By Proposition $2.5, q_{i} \neq q_{0}, q_{e}$ and $q_{i} \neq q_{j}$ for each $1 \leq i \neq j \leq n$. Thus $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq|Q|-2$.
(2) The proof of the first statement is similar to [8, Lemma 5.1]. Now, if $\left(I: a_{i}\right)$ and $\left(I: a_{j}\right)$ are distinct maximal elements of $\Delta=\{(I: a): a \in R \backslash I\}$ (partially ordered by inclusion), then by the usual argument, one can show that ( $I: a_{i}$ ) and $\left(I: a_{j}\right)$ are prime. We show $a_{i}+a_{j} \in I$. If not, then $\left(I: a_{i}\right) \subseteq\left(I: a_{i}+a_{j}\right)$ and $\left(I: a_{j}\right) \subseteq\left(I: a_{i}+a_{j}\right)$, and hence $\left(I: a_{i}\right)=\left(I: a_{i}+a_{j}\right)=\left(I: a_{j}\right)$, a contradiction.

Note that the condition that $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ is finite is necessary in Proposition 4.1 as the following example shows:

Example 4.2. Let $X=\left\{x_{i}: i \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ and $R=(P(X), \cup \cap)$. Let $X_{2}=\left\{x_{i}\right.$ : $i \geq 2\}$ and $I=\left\{X_{2}, X\right\}$. It is clear that $I$ is a subtractive co-ideal of $R$. Set $Y_{j}=X-\left\{x_{j}\right\}$. Then $A=\left\{Y_{i}: i \in \mathbb{N}\right\}$ is an infinite clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. An inspection shows that the following chain is infinite:

$$
\left(I:\left\{x_{2}\right\}\right) \subseteq\left(I:\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}\right\}\right) \subseteq\left(I:\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right\}\right) \subseteq \ldots
$$

The next theorem does establish a relation between the clique numbers of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ and $\Gamma(R / I)$.
Theorem 4.3. Let $I$ be a $Q$-strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$. Then $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ $=w(\Gamma(R / I))$.

Proof: Assume that $\left\{x_{i}\right\}_{i \in J}$ is a clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ and let $q_{i}$ be the unique element of $Q$ such that $x_{i} \in q_{i} I(i \in J)$. Then $\left\{q_{i} I\right\}_{i \in J}$ is a clique in $\Gamma(R / I)$ by Proposition 2.5. Hence $w(\Gamma(R / I)) \geq w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$. Now, let $\left\{q_{i} I\right\}_{i \in K}$ be a clique in $\Gamma(R / I)$, then $\left\{q_{i}\right\}_{i \in K}$ is a clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$, by Proposition 2.5. Thus $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \geq w(\Gamma(R / I))$. Therefore, $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=w(\Gamma(R / I))$.

The next several results investigate the relationship between the chromatic number and clique number of the graph $\Gamma_{I}(R)$.

Theorem 4.4. Let $R$ be a semiring and $I$ be a subtractive co-ideal of $R$. Then the following are equivalent:
(1) $\chi\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ is finite;
(2) $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ is finite;
(3) the subtractive co-ideal $I$ is a finite intersection of prime co-ideals.

Proof: The proof is similar to [8, Theorem 5.2].
Remark 4.5. Let $P, I$ be strong co-ideals of a semiring $R$ with $P$ prime and $I \subseteq P$. Then the non-empty set $\Delta=\left\{P^{\prime} \in \operatorname{co-Spec}(R): I \subseteq P^{\prime} \subseteq P\right\}$ has a minimal element $P_{1}$ with respect to inclusion (by partially ordering $\Delta$ by reverse inclusion and using Zorn's Lemma), so $P_{1}$ is an element of $\min (I)$, the set of minimal prime strong co-ideals of $R$ containing $I$. Thus if $P$ is a prime strong co-ideal of the commutative semiring $R$ and $P$ contains the strong co-ideal $I$ of $R$, then there exists a minimal prime strong co-ideal $P^{\prime}$ of $R$ with $I \subseteq P^{\prime} \subseteq P$.

Theorem 4.6. Let $I$ be a subtractive co-ideal of a semiring $R$.
(1) If $\left\{P_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}$ is the set of all prime strong co-ideals of $R$ containing $I$, then $I=\bigcap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} P_{\alpha}$.
(2) If $P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}$ are the only distinct minimal prime strong co-ideals of $R$ containing $I$, then $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=I$ and $I \neq \cap_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} P_{i}$, for each $1 \leq j \leq n$.

Proof: (1) We need to show that $\cap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} P_{\alpha} \subseteq I$. Let $x \in \cap_{\alpha \in \Lambda} P_{\alpha}$ with $x \notin I$. Set $\sum=\{J: J$ is a subtractive co-ideal of $R$ containing $I, x \notin J\}$. Since $I \in \sum$, $\sum \neq \emptyset$. An inspection will show that the partially ordered set $\left(\sum, \subseteq\right)$ has a maximal element by Zorn's Lemma, say $K$. Since $x \notin K, K \neq R$. We show that $K$ is prime. Let $a+b \in K$ such that $a \notin K$. Hence $a \in(K: b)$ and $a \notin K$. As $K \varsubsetneqq(K: b)$ and $(K: b)$ is subtractive by Proposition $2.1, x \in(K: b)$. Hence $b \in(K: x)$. It is clear that $K \subseteq(K: a x)$. If $(K: a x) \neq K$, then $x \in(K: a x)$. Hence $x(1+a)=x+a x \in K$. Since $K$ is subtractive, $x \in K$, a contradiction. Therefore $K=(K: a x)$. We claim that $(K: a x)=(K: a) \cap(K: x)$. Let $r \in(K:$ $a x)$. Then $a x \in(K: r)$. By Proposition 2.1(3) and 2.1(1), $a, x \in(K: r)$. Thus $r \in(K: x) \cap(K: a)$ and $(K: a x) \subseteq(K: a) \cap(K: x)$. For the reverse of inclusion let $r \in(K: a) \cap(K: x)$. Then $a, x \in(K: r)$. By Proposition 2.1(3), $a x \in(K: r)$ and so $r \in(K: a x)$. Hence the equality holds. As $b \in(K: a) \cap(K: x), b \in K$. Thus $K$ is prime, which implies $x \in K$, a contradiction, as needed.
(2) By (1) and Remark 4.5, $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}=I$. To see the other statement, suppose $I=\bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} P_{i}$ for some $1 \leq j \leq n$. Since for each $i \neq j, P_{i} \nsubseteq P_{j}$, there is $x_{i} \in P_{i}$ such that $x_{i} \notin P_{j}$. As $\sum_{i \neq j} x_{i} \in \bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} P_{i} \subseteq P_{j}$, it is clear that $x_{i} \in P_{j}$ for some $i \neq j$, that is a contradiction. Thus $I \neq \bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} P_{i}$ for each $1 \leq j \leq n$.

Theorem 4.7. Let $I$ be a co-ideal of a semiring $R$.
(1) If $I$ is a subtractive co-ideal of $R$ which is not prime, then $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=$ $|\min (I)|$.
(2) If $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal with $|\min (I)|$ finite, then each $P \in \min (I)$ is of the form $P=(I: q)$ for some $q \in Q$.
(3) If $I$ is a subtractive co-ideal of a semiring $R$, then $\chi\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$.

Proof: (1) First, we prove that $|\min (I)|=\infty$ if and only if $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\infty$. It suffices to show that $|\min (I)|$ is finite if and only if $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ is finite. Let $|\min (I)|$ be finite. Let $|\min (I)|$ be finite. Then $I$ is a finite intersection of prime co-ideals by Theorem 4.6; so by Theorem 4.4, $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ is finite. Now assume that $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ is finite. Hence by Theorem 4.4, $I=\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}$ for some prime strong co-ideals $P_{i}$ of $R$. Let $\left\{Q_{\alpha}\right\}_{\alpha \in \Lambda}=\min (I)$. For each $\alpha \in \Lambda, I \subseteq Q_{\alpha}$, so $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} P_{i} \subseteq Q_{\alpha}$ for each $\alpha \in \Lambda$. This implies that $P_{i} \subseteq Q_{\alpha}$ for some $1 \leq i \leq n$. Since $Q_{\alpha}$ is minimal, $P_{i}=Q_{\alpha}$. This gives $\Lambda$ is finite, and so $|\min (I)|$ is finite.

Let $|\min (I)|=n$. By Theorem 4.6(2), there exists $x_{j} \in\left(\bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} P_{i}\right) \backslash P_{j}$ for each $1 \leq j \leq n$. Since each $P_{i}$ is a strong co-ideal of $R, x_{i}+x_{j} \in I$; hence $X=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is a clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Hence $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \geq n$. Now we show that $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq n$. We do this by induction on $n$. If $n=2$, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph by Theorem 3.1; hence $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=2$. Suppose $n>2$ and the result is true for any integer less than $n$. Let $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$ be a clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Thus $x_{1}+x_{j} \in I=\bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n} P_{i}$. Without loss of generality, suppose that $x_{1} \notin P_{1}$ and $x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots, x_{m} \in P_{1}$ and $x_{2}, \ldots, x_{m} \notin \bigcap_{2 \leq i \leq n} P_{i}$. Let $J=\bigcap_{2 \leq i \leq n} P_{i}$. Hence $\left\{x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots, x_{m}\right\}$ is a clique in $\Gamma_{J}(R)$. By induction hypothesis $m-1 \leq n-1$ and so $m \leq n$.
(2) Let $I$ be a $Q$-strong co-ideal of $R$ with $|\min (I)|=n$. By Theorem 4.6(2), $I=\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} P_{i}$ where $\min (I)=\left\{P_{1}, \ldots, P_{n}\right\}$. Then by $(1), w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=n$. Let $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ be a clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ where $x_{j} \in\left(\bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} P_{i}\right) \backslash P_{j}$. Since $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal of $R$, there exists unique element $q_{j} \in Q$ such that $x_{j} \in q_{j} I$ for each $1 \leq j \leq n$. As $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ is a clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R),\left\{q_{1}, q_{2}, \ldots, q_{n}\right\}$ is a clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ by Proposition 2.5. Let $x_{j}=q_{j} a_{j}$ for some $a_{j} \in I$. We show that $q_{j} \in \bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} P_{i} \backslash P_{j}$. It suffices to show that $q_{j} \notin P_{j}$ and there is no $i \neq j$ such that $q_{j} \notin P_{i}$. If $q_{j} \in P_{j}$, then $x_{j}=q_{j} a_{j} \in P_{j}$, a contradiction (because $a_{j} \in I \subseteq P_{j}$ ). So $q_{j} \notin P_{j}$. Also if $q_{j} \notin P_{i}$ for some $i \neq j$, then $q_{i}+q_{j} \notin P_{i}$ and hence $q_{i}+q_{j} \notin I$, a contradiction (similarly, as $x_{i} \notin P_{i}, q_{i} \notin P_{i}$ ). Therefore $q_{j} \in \bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} P_{i} \backslash P_{j}$. We claim that $\left(I: q_{j}\right)=P_{j}$. Let $x \in\left(I: q_{j}\right)$. Then $x+q_{j} \in I$, and so $x+q_{j} \in P_{j}$. Since $q_{j} \notin P_{j}, x \in P_{j}$. Hence $\left(I: q_{j}\right) \subseteq P_{j}$. For the reverse of inclusion, let $x \in P_{j}$. Then $q_{j} \in \bigcap_{1 \leq i \leq n, i \neq j} P_{i} \backslash P_{j}$ gives $x+q_{j} \in I$. Therefore $P_{j} \subseteq\left(I: q_{j}\right)$ and we have equality.
(3) By Theorem 4.4, $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\infty$ if and only if $\chi\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=\infty$. Hence, we assume that $\chi\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$ is finite. It is known that $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq \chi\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$. Let $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=n$. By Theorem 4.6, $I=P_{1} \cap \cdots \cap P_{n}$, where for each $i, P_{i}$ is a minimal prime strong co-ideal. By an argument like that in Theorem $4.4((3) \Rightarrow(1))$, $\chi\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \leq n$. Therefore $\chi\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)$.

A graph 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 a graph obtained by replacing edges of this graph with pairwise internally-disjoint paths. A remarkably
simple characterization of planar graphs was given by Kuratowski in 1930, that says that a graph is planar if and only if it contains no subdivision of $K_{5}$ or $K_{3,3}$ [4]. It is natural to ask for which strong co-ideal $I$ of $R$ the $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is planar.

Proposition 4.8. Let $I$ be a $Q$-strong co-ideal of $R$.
(1) If $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is planar, then for each edge $q_{1} I-q_{2} I$ of $\Gamma(R / I),\left|q_{i} I\right| \leq 2$ for some $1 \leq i \leq 2$.
(2) If $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is planar, then $\Gamma(R / I)$ is planar.

Proof: (1) Assume that $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is planar and $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ are two vertices of $\Gamma(R / I)$ such that $\left|q_{i} I\right| \geq 3$ for each $i=1,2$. Let $V_{1}=\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}\right\} \subseteq q_{1} I$ and $V_{2}=\left\{y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}\right\} \subseteq q_{2} I$. As $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ are adjacent in $\Gamma(R / I), x_{i}$ and $y_{j}$ are adjacent in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ by Proposition 2.5. Then $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ are two parts of a complete bipartite graph as a subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Hence $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not planar.
(2) Let $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ be planar. By Proposition 2.5, two vertices $q_{1} I$ and $q_{2} I$ are adjacent in $\Gamma(R / I)$ if and only if $q_{1}$ and $q_{2}$ are adjacent in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Hence we can take $\Gamma(R / I)$ as a subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. If $\Gamma(R / I)$ is not planar, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not planar, a contradiction. So $\Gamma(R / I)$ is planar.

The following example shows that the converse of Proposition 4.8 is not true.
Example 4.9. Let $X=\{a, b, c, d\}$ and $R=(P(X), \cup, \cap)$. An inspection will show that

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_{1} & =\{Y \subseteq X \mid b \in Y\}, \\
P_{2} & =\{Y \subseteq X \mid a \in Y\}
\end{aligned}
$$

are prime strong co-ideals of $R$. Let $I=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$. By Theorem 3.1, $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is a complete bipartite graph with parts $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ and $\left|V_{1}\right|=\left|P_{1} \backslash I\right|=4$ and $\left|V_{2}\right|=\left|P_{2} \backslash I\right|=4$. Hence $K_{3,3}$ is a subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$, and so $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not planar.

Set $Q=\left\{q_{0}=\{d, c\}, q_{e}=X, q_{1}=\{b, c, d\}, q_{2}=\{d, c, a\}\right\}$, then $q_{0} I=$ $\{\{d, c\},\{c\},\{d\}, \emptyset\}, q_{e} I=I, q_{1} I=\{\{b, c, d\},\{b, c\},\{b, d\},\{b\}\}$ and $q_{2} I=$ $\{\{d, c, a\},\{d, a\},\{a, c\},\{a\}\}$. By usual argument, $I$ is a $Q$-strong co-ideal of $R$ and $R / I=\left\{q_{0} I, q_{e} I, q_{1} I, q_{2} I\right\}$. Since $q_{1}+q_{2} \in I, q_{1} I \oplus q_{2} I=I$ by Proposition 2.5. Hence $S^{*}(R / I)=\left\{q_{1} I, q_{2} I\right\}$. Therefore $\Gamma(R / I)$ is planar.

Theorem 4.10. Let $I$ be a subtractive co-ideal of semiring $R$. If $|\min (I)| \geq 4$, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not planar.

Proof: If $|\min (I)| \geq 5$, then by Theorem $4.7(1), w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right) \geq 5$. Hence $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not planar.

If $|\min (I)|=4$, then Theorem 4.7(1) implies that $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=4$. Hence there exists $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right\} \subseteq S_{I}(R)$ such that $\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{4}\right\}$ forms a clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Let $x_{i j}=x_{i} x_{j}$, where $1 \leq i, j \leq 4, i \neq j$. Suppose that $k \in\{1,2,3,4\} \backslash\{i, j\}$. Since $x_{i}, x_{j} \in\left(I: x_{k}\right), x_{i j} \in\left(I: x_{k}\right)$. If $x_{i j} \in I$, then $x_{i}\left(x_{j}+1\right)=x_{i j}+x_{i} \in I$, hence $x_{i} \in I$, which is a contradiction. This implies that $x_{i j} \in S_{I}(R)$. We claim that
$x_{i j} \notin\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right\}$. Assume that $x_{i j}=x_{s}$ for some $1 \leq s \leq 4$. If $s=i$, then $x_{i j}+x_{j} \in I$. This implies that $x_{i} \in I$ which is a contradiction. Similarly, for $s=j$. If $s \neq j$ and $s \neq i$, then $x_{i j}+x_{s} \in I$; hence $x_{s}+x_{s} \in I$. It follows that $x_{s} \in I$ by Proposition 2.1(1), a contradiction. Therefore $x_{i j} \notin\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}\right\}$. Let $s \neq k$ and $s, k \in\{1,2,3,4\}-\{i, j\}$. Since $x_{i j}+x_{s} \in I$ and $x_{i j}+x_{k} \in I$, we have $x_{s}, x_{k} \in\left(I: x_{i j}\right)$; thus $x_{s k} \in\left(I: x_{i j}\right)$. Set $V_{1}=\left\{x_{1}, x_{13}, x_{3}\right\}$ and $V_{2}=\left\{x_{2}, x_{24}, x_{4}\right\}$. Then $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ are two parts of a complete 2-partite subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$. Therefore $\Gamma(R)$ is not planar.

In the following example, it is shown that if $|\min (I)|=3$, then $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ may be planar.

Example 4.11. (1) Let $R=\left\{p_{1}^{i} p_{2}^{j} p_{3}^{k} p_{4}^{t}: i \in\{0,1,2,3\}, j \in\{0,1,2,3\}, k \in\right.$ $\{0,1\}, t \in\{0,1\}\} \cup\{0\}$ where $p_{i}^{\prime} \mathrm{s}$ are prime integer. Then $(R, \mathrm{gcd}, \mathrm{lcm})$ is a semiring and $I=\left\{1, p_{4}\right\}$ is a subtractive strong co-ideal of $R$. Since for each $1 \leq m, n \leq 3$ where $m \neq n, \operatorname{gcd}\left(p_{m}, p_{n}\right)=1 \in I,\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}\right\}$ is a clique in $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ and $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=3$. Hence $|\min (I)|=3$ by Theorem 4.7. Set $V_{1}=\left\{p_{1}, p_{1}^{2}, p_{1}^{3}\right\}$ and $V_{2}=\left\{p_{2}, p_{2}^{2}, p_{2}^{3}\right\}$. Then $K_{3,3}$ is a subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ with two parts $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$. Hence $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not planar.
(2) Let $R=(\{0,1,2,3,5,6,10,15,30\}$, gcd, lcm $)$. Then $I=\{1\}$ is a subtractive strong co-ideal of $R$ and $S_{I}(R)=\{2,3,5,6,10,15\}$. By drawing $\Gamma_{I}(R)$, one can see that $w\left(\Gamma_{I}(R)\right)=3$. Hence $|\min (I)|=3$ by Theorem 4.7. Also $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is planar.

Remark 4.12. Let $I$ be a subtractive strong co-ideal of a semiring $R$.
(1) If $|\min (I)|=1$, then by Theorem $4.6(2), I$ is a prime strong co-ideal of $R$. Hence $\Gamma_{I}(R)=\emptyset$ by Proposition 2.3.
(2) If $|\min (I)|=2$, then $I=P_{1} \cap P_{2}$ for some prime strong co-ideals $P_{1}$ and $P_{2}$ by Theorem 4.6. Hence by Theorem 3.1, $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is $K_{n, m}$ for some integer $n$ and $m$, where $\left|P_{1} \backslash I\right|=n$ and $\left|P_{2} \backslash I\right|=m$. If $n, m \geq 3$, then $K_{3,3}$ is a subgraph of $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ and so $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not planar.
(3) If $|\min (I)| \geq 4$, then by Theorem $4.10, \Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not planar.
(4) If $R$ and $I$ are the semiring and co-ideal as in Example 4.11(2), then $|\min (I)|=3$ and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is planar. However there exist a semiring $R$ and a strong co-ideal $I$ of $R$ that have only three minimal prime co-ideals and $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is not planar as Example 4.11(1) shows. It is not entirely clear for us for which strong co-ideals $I$ with $|\min (I)|=3$, the $\Gamma_{I}(R)$ is planar.

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Department of Mathematics, University of Guilan, P.O.Box 1914, Rasht, Iran
E-mail: ebrahimi@guilan.ac.ir saboura_dolati@yahoo.com mehdikhoramdel@gmail.com
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