

ON ZERO-DIVISOR GRAPHS OF QUOTIENT RINGS AND COMPLEMENTED ZERO-DIVISOR GRAPHS

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ABSTRACT. For an arbitrary ring R , the zero-divisor graph of R , denoted by $\Gamma(R)$, is an undirected simple graph that its vertices are all nonzero zero-divisors of R in which any two vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if either $xy = 0$ or $yx = 0$. It is well-known that for any commutative ring R , $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(T(R))$ where $T(R)$ is the (total) quotient ring of R . In this paper we extend this fact for certain noncommutative rings, for example, reduced rings, right (left) self-injective rings and one-sided Artinian rings. The necessary and sufficient conditions for two reduced right Goldie rings to have isomorphic zero-divisor graphs is given. Also, we extend some known results about the zero-divisor graphs from the commutative to noncommutative setting; in particular, complemented and uniquely complemented graphs.

1. INTRODUCTION

Throughout the paper, R denotes a ring with identity element (not necessarily commutative) and a zero-divisor in R is an element of R which is either a left or a right zero-divisor. We denote the set of all zero-divisors of R and the set of all regular elements of R by $Z(R)$ and C_R , respectively. Also, the set of all minimal prime ideals of R is denoted by $\text{minSpec}(R)$. The zero-divisor graph of R , denoted by $\Gamma(R)$, is an undirected simple graph with the vertex set $Z(R)^* = Z(R) \setminus \{0\}$ in which any two distinct vertices x and y are adjacent if and only if either $xy = 0$ or $yx = 0$. The notion of zero-divisor graph of a commutative

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ring with identity element was first introduced by I. Beck in [6] and has been studied by many authors (see for example [1, 2, 3, 5, 11]). In [10], Redmond has extended this notion to noncommutative rings and showed that for any ring R , the graph $\Gamma(R)$ is connected and its diameter is at most 3. Moreover if $\Gamma(R)$ contains a cycle, then the girth of $\Gamma(R)$ is at most 4.

A multiplicative set $S \subseteq R$ is called a *right Ore set* if for any $a \in R$ and $s \in S$, $aS \cap sR \neq \emptyset$. We say that R is a *right Ore ring* if C_R is a right Ore set. For a right Ore ring R , we define a relation “ \sim ” on $R \times C_R$ as follow:

$(a_1, s_1) \sim (a_2, s_2)$ if and only if there exist $b_1, b_2 \in R$ such that $s_1 b_1 = s_2 b_2 \in C_R$ and $a_1 b_1 = a_2 b_2 \in R$. It can be seen that the relation “ \sim ” is an equivalence relation and so we write a/s or as^{-1} for the equivalence class (a, s) . The set of all equivalence classes is denoted by RC_R^{-1} . For any $a_1/s_1, a_2/s_2 \in RC_R^{-1}$, there exist $s, s' \in C_R$ and $r, r' \in R$ such that $s_1 s = s_2 r \in C_R$ and $a_2 s' = s_1 r'$. Thus we define $a_1/s_1 + a_2/s_2 = (a_1 s + a_2 r)/t$, where $t = s_1 s = s_2 r$ and $(a_1/s_1)(a_2/s_2) = a_1 r'/s_2 s'$. It is well-known that the addition and the multiplication defined on RC_R^{-1} are binary operations and under these operations RC_R^{-1} becomes a ring (for more details see [8, p. 301-302]). The ring RC_R^{-1} is usually called the (*classical*) *right quotient ring* of R .

In Section 1, we prove that for any reduced right Ore ring R , $\Gamma(R)$ and $\Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$ are isomorphic (Theorem 2.2). Also it is shown that if R is a von Neumann regular ring, a right (left) self-injective ring or a right (left) Artinian ring, then $\Gamma(R)$ and $\Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$ are isomorphic. We show that if R is a reduced right Goldie ring, then $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(D_1 \times D_2 \times \cdots \times D_n)$ for suitable division rings D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n and integer number n (Proposition 2.4). In Section 2, first complemented and uniquely complemented are introduced and then we give some results about them. For example, it is shown that for any reduced ring R , $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented if and only if $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented (Proposition 3.3). Also we prove that for any reduced right Ore ring R , if RC_R^{-1} is von Neumann regular, then $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented and while $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented, then every prime ideal of RC_R^{-1} is maximal (Proposition 3.6). Next we show that for an Artinian ring R with $\text{Nil}_*(R)$ nonzero:

- (1) If $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented, then either $|R| = 8$, $|R| = 9$, or $|R| > 9$ and $\text{Nil}_*(R) = \{0, x\}$, for some $0 \neq x \in R$.
- (2) If $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented and $|R| > 9$, then any complement of the nonzero nilpotent element of R is an end (Theorem 3.7).

2. ZERO-DIVISOR GRAPHS OF QUOTIENT RINGS

Remark 2.1. For a reduced right Ore ring R , the right quotient ring RC_R^{-1} is also reduced. To see this, suppose that $xy = 0$, where $x, y \in R$. First we show that $xs^{-1}y = 0$, for any $s \in C_R$. Since R is a right Ore ring, there exist $r_1 \in R$ and $s_1 \in C_R$ such that $sr_1 = ys_1$ and so $y = sr_1s_1^{-1}$. Thus $0 = xy = xsr_1s_1^{-1}$ and hence $xsr_1 = 0$. Since R is reduced, we have $r_1xs = 0$. It follows that $r_1x = 0$, and so $xr_1 = 0$. Thus $0 = xr_1s_1^{-1} = xs^{-1}y$. Now suppose that $xs^{-1}yt^{-1} = 0$, where $x, y \in R$ and $s, t \in C_R$. Then $xs^{-1}y = 0$ and so $xr_1s_1^{-1} = 0$ (note that $s^{-1}y = r_1s_1^{-1}$). Thus $xr_1 = 0 = r_1x$ because R is reduced. By the first part of the proof, $0 = r_1(ts_1)^{-1}x = r_1s_1^{-1}t^{-1}x$. Therefore $s^{-1}yt^{-1}x = 0$ and so $yt^{-1}xs^{-1} = 0$. Thus RC_R^{-1} is reduced.

Let G be an undirected simple graph. As in [9], for every two vertices a and b of G , we define $a \leq b$ if a and b are not adjacent and each vertex of G adjacent to b is also adjacent to a . We write $a \sim b$ if both $a \leq b$ and $b \leq a$. It is easy to see that \sim is an equivalence relation on G . We denote the equivalence class of a vertex x of G by $[x]$. Note that for any ring R with $a, b \in Z(R)^*$, we have $a \sim b$ in $\Gamma(R)$ if and only if $(\text{ann}_l(a) \cup \text{ann}_r(a)) \setminus \{a\} = (\text{ann}_l(b) \cup \text{ann}_r(b)) \setminus \{b\}$. If R is a right Ore ring and $A \subseteq R$, then the set $\{a/s \mid a \in A, s \in C_R\}$ is denoted by A_{C_R} .

In [4], the authors proved that for any commutative ring R , $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(T(R))$ where $T(R)$ is the quotient ring of R . Here, by the same method as [4], we extend this fact to the reduced right Ore rings.

Theorem 2.2. *Let R be a reduced right Ore ring with right quotient ring RC_R^{-1} . Then the graphs $\Gamma(R)$ and $\Gamma(RC_C^{-1})$ are isomorphic.*

Proof. Let $S = C_R$ and $T = RS^{-1}$. Denote the equivalence relations defined above on $Z(R)^*$ and $Z(T)^*$ by \sim_R and \sim_T , respectively, and denote their respective equivalence classes by $[a]_R$ and $[a]_T$. Since R and RS^{-1} are reduced, we note that $\text{ann}_T(x/s) = \text{ann}_R(x)_S$ and $\text{ann}_T(x/s) \cap R = \text{ann}_R(x)$; thus $x/s \sim_T x/t$, $x \sim_R y \Leftrightarrow x/s \sim_T y/s$, $([x]_R)_S = [x/1]_T$ and $[x/s]_T \cap R = [x]_R$ for all $x, y \in Z(R)^*$ and $s, t \in S$. Since $Z(T) = Z(R)_S$, by the above comments, we have $Z(R)^* = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} [a_\alpha]_R$ and $Z(T)^* = \bigcup_{\alpha \in A} [a_\alpha/1]_T$ (both disjoint unions) for some $\{a_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A} \subseteq R$.

We next show that $|[a]_R| = |[a/1]_T|$ for each $a \in Z(R)^*$. First assume that $[a]_R$ is finite. Then it is clear $[a]_R \subseteq [a/1]_T$. For the inverse inclusion, let $x \in [a/1]_T$. Then $x = b/s$ with $b \in [a]_R$ and $s \in S$. Since $\{bs^n \mid n \geq 1\} \subseteq [a]_R$ is finite, $b = bs^i$ for some

integer $i > 1$, and hence $b/s = bs^i/s = bs^{i-1} \in [a]_R$. Now suppose that $[a]_R$ is infinite. Clearly $|[a]_R| \leq |[a/1]_T|$. Define an equivalence relation \approx on S by $s \approx t$ if and only if $sa = ta$. Then $s \approx t$ if and only if $sb = tb$ for all $b \in [a]_R$. It is easily verified that the map $[a]_R \times S/\approx \rightarrow [a/1]_T$, given by $(b, [s]) \rightarrow b/s$, is well-defined and surjective. Thus $|[a/1]_T| \leq |[a]_R| |S/\approx|$. Also the map $S/\approx \rightarrow [a]_R$, given by $[s] \rightarrow sa$, is clearly well-defined and injective. Hence $|S/\approx| \leq |[a]_R|$, and so $|[a/1]_T| \leq |[a]_R|^2 = |[a]_R|$ since $[a]_R$ is infinite. Thus $|[a]_R| = |[a/1]_T|$. Therefore there is a bijection $\phi_\alpha : [a_\alpha] \rightarrow [a_\alpha/1]$ for each $\alpha \in A$. Define $\phi : Z(R)^* \rightarrow Z(T)^*$ by $\phi(x) = \phi_\alpha(x)$ if $x \in [a_\alpha]$. Thus we need only show that x and y are adjacent in $\Gamma(R)$ if and only if $\phi(x)$ and $\phi(y)$ are adjacent in $\Gamma(T)$; i.e., $xy = 0$ if and only if $\phi(x)\phi(y) = 0$. Let $x \in [a]_R, y \in [b]_R, w \in [a/1]_T$ and $z \in [b/1]_T$. It is sufficient to show that $xy = 0$ if and only if $zw = 0$. Note that $\text{ann}_T(x) = \text{ann}_T(a) = \text{ann}_T(w)$ and $\text{ann}_T(y) = \text{ann}_T(b) = \text{ann}_T(z)$. Thus $xy = 0 \Leftrightarrow y \in \text{ann}_T(x) = \text{ann}_T(w) \Leftrightarrow yw = 0 \Leftrightarrow w \in \text{ann}_T(y) = \text{ann}_T(z) \Leftrightarrow wz = 0$. Hence $\Gamma(R)$ and $\Gamma(T(R))$ are isomorphic as graphs. \square

Let R be a ring. We denote the group of unit elements of R by $U(R)$. By [8, Proposition 11.4], the right quotient ring of R exists and $R \cong RC_R^{-1}$ if and only if $C_R = U(R)$. In this case, we say that R is a *classical ring* and it is clear that $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$. Recall that R is *von Neumann regular* if for each $x \in R$, there exists $y \in R$ such that $x = xyx$. In the following we give some examples of noncommutative rings R for which $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$.

Example 2.3. (a) For any von Neumann regular ring R , we have $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$. To see this, let $q \in C_R$. Then there exists $q' \in R$ such that $q = qq'q$. So $q(1 - q'q) = 0 = (1 - qq')q$. Since q is regular, $qq' = q'q = 1$ and hence $q \in U(R)$. Thus $C_R = U(R)$ and this implies that R is a classical ring. Therefore $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$.

(b) Let R be a ring in which for any $q \in R$, the chain $qR \supseteq q^2R \supseteq \dots$ stabilizes. Then R is a classical ring. Indeed, if $q \in C_R$, then by hypothesis, there exists $n \geq 1$ such that $q^nR = q^{n+1}R$. Thus $q^n = q^{n+1}q'$, for some $q' \in R$. Since q is regular, $qq' = 1$. Also $q(1 - q'q) = 0$ and hence $q'q = 1$. Thus $C_R = U(R)$ and we conclude that $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$. In particular if R is a right (left) Artinian ring, then $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$.

(c) Let V be a vector space over a division ring K . Then $R = \text{End}(V_R)$ is a classical ring. To see this, we note that V is a semisimple K -module

and by [7, Proposition 4.27], R is a von Neumann regular ring. Now the assertion is obtained from (a).

(d) Every left (right) self-injective ring is a classical ring. Suppose that R is a left self-injective ring and a is a regular element in R . We show that $a \in U(R)$. Define R -monomorphism $f : R \rightarrow R$ by $f(r) = ra$. Since R is self-injective, there exists R -homomorphism $g : R \rightarrow R$ such that $gf = 1$. Now $a = 1(a) = gf(a) = g(a^2) = a^2g(1)$. Since a is a regular element, we have $1 = ag(1)$. Thus $a = ag(1)a$ and hence $1 = g(1)a$ because again a is regular. Therefore $a \in U(R)$ and so R is a classical ring. This implies that $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$.

(e) Let R be a right Ore ring such that RC_R^{-1} is a Noetherian right R -module. Then $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$. Clearly, the natural homomorphism $\phi : R \rightarrow RC_R^{-1}$, given by $\phi(r) = r/1$, is injective. We show that ϕ is an isomorphism. Let $rs^{-1} \in RC_R^{-1}$. Then the chain $s^{-1}R \subseteq s^{-2}R \subseteq \dots$ stabilizes because RC_R^{-1} is Noetherian as right R -module. Thus there exists $n \geq 1$ such that $s^{-n}R = s^{-n-1}R$, and so $s^{-n-1} = s^{-n}r_1$ for some $r_1 \in R$. Hence $s^{-1} = r_1 \in R$ and so $\phi(rr_1) = rr_1 = rs^{-1}$. This implies that ϕ is epimorphism; thus $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$.

Proposition 2.4. *Let R be a reduced right Goldie ring. Then $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(D_1 \times D_2 \times \dots \times D_n)$ for suitable division rings D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n and integer number n .*

Proof. By Goldie's Theorem [8, Theorem 11.13], RC_R^{-1} is a semisimple ring. Also by Remark 2.1, RC_R^{-1} is reduced. Using the Wedderburn-Artin Theorem, we conclude that $RC_R^{-1} \cong D_1 \times D_2 \times \dots \times D_n$ for suitable division rings D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n and integer number n . Now by Theorem 2.2, $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(D_1 \times D_2 \times \dots \times D_n)$. \square

Let x be a vertex of a graph G . We say that x is a *primitive vertex*, if it is a minimal element in the ordering \leq .

Theorem 2.5. *Let $\{A_i\}_{i \in I}$ and $\{B_j\}_{j \in J}$ be two families of domains and let $A = \prod_{i \in I} A_i$ and $B = \prod_{j \in J} B_j$. Then $\Gamma(A) \cong \Gamma(B)$ if and only if there exists a bijection $\psi : I \rightarrow J$ such that $|A_i| = |B_{\psi(i)}|$ for each $i \in I$.*

Proof. One direction of the proof is clear. For the other direction, suppose that $\phi : \Gamma(A) \rightarrow \Gamma(B)$ is an isomorphism. We note that each primitive vertex in $\Gamma(A)$ has exactly one nonzero component. Let $x = (x_i)_{i \in I}$ be a primitive vertex in $\Gamma(A)$. Then there is $i_0 \in I$ such that $x_{i_0} \neq 0$ and $x_i = 0$ for each $i_0 \neq i \in I$. Thus the set $\{[z] \mid z \text{ is a}$

primitive vertex of $\Gamma(A)$ has cardinality $|I|$. Similarly, the set $\{[z] \mid z \text{ is a primitive vertex of } \Gamma(B)\}$ has cardinality $|J|$. One can easily see that z is a primitive vertex of $\Gamma(A)$ if and only if $\phi(z)$ is a primitive vertex of $\Gamma(B)$. Also $[z] = [z']$ if and only if $[\phi(z)] = [\phi(z')]$. Thus we have $|I| = |J|$. On the other hand, $z \in [x]$ if and only if $\phi(z) \in [\phi(x)]$ and hence $|[x]| = |[\phi(x)]|$. Moreover $|[x]| = |A_{i_0}|$ and $|\phi(x)| = |B_j|$ for some $j \in J$. Clearly ϕ induces the required bijection ψ . \square

Corollary 2.6. *Let A and B be two reduced right Goldie rings which are not domains. Then $\Gamma(A) \cong \Gamma(B)$ if and only if there exists a bijection $\phi : \min\text{Spec}(A) \rightarrow \min\text{Spec}(B)$ such that $|A/P| = |B/\phi(P)|$ for each $P \in \min\text{Spec}(A)$.*

Proof. Set $T(A) = AC_A^{-1}$ and $T(B) = BC_B^{-1}$. Since A and B are reduced right Goldie rings, by [8, Proposition 11.22], we may assume that $\min\text{Spec}(A) = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_m\}$, $\min\text{Spec}(B) = \{Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_n\}$ and $T(A) \cong K_1 \times \dots \times K_m$, $T(B) \cong L_1 \times \dots \times L_n$, where division rings K_i and L_j are the quotient rings of A/P_i and B/Q_j , respectively for $1 \leq i \leq m$ and $1 \leq j \leq n$. By Theorem 2.2, $\Gamma(A) \cong \Gamma(K_1 \times K_2 \times \dots \times K_m)$ and $\Gamma(B) \cong \Gamma(L_1 \times L_2 \times \dots \times L_n)$. Now suppose that $\Gamma(A) \cong \Gamma(B)$. By Theorem 2.5, we conclude that $m = n$ and there exists a permutation ρ of $\{1, \dots, n\}$ such that $|A/P_i| = |K_i| = |L_{\rho(i)}| = |B/Q_{\rho(i)}|$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. It is clear that ρ induces the required bijection ϕ . Conversely, if there exists such a bijection ϕ , then by Theorem 2.5, $\Gamma(K_1 \times \dots \times K_m) \cong \Gamma(L_1 \times \dots \times L_n)$ and hence $\Gamma(A) \cong \Gamma(B)$. \square

3. COMPLEMENTED ZERO-DIVISOR GRAPHS

Let G be an undirected simple graph. As in [9], for distinct vertices a and b of G , we say that a and b are *orthogonal*, written by $a \perp b$, if a and b are adjacent and there is no vertex c of G which is adjacent to both a and b , i.e., the edge $a - b$ is not part of any triangle of G . Thus for $a, b \in Z(R)^*$, we have $a \perp b$ in $\Gamma(R)$ if and only if $ab = 0$ or $ba = 0$ and

$$(\text{ann}_l(a) \cup \text{ann}_r(a)) \cap (\text{ann}_l(b) \cup \text{ann}_r(b)) \subseteq \{0, a, b\}.$$

Finally, we say that G is a *complemented graph* if for each vertex a of G , there exists a vertex b of G (called a *complement* of a) such that $a \perp b$, and that G is *uniquely complemented* if it is complemented and whenever $a \perp b$ and $a \perp c$, then $b \sim c$.

In this section, we first show that for any reduced ring R , $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented if and only if $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented. Next we prove that if R is a reduced and von Neumann regular ring, then $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented. In the end of this section, we show that if R is not

reduced, then under certain conditions, $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented or $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented. In order to show these results, we need the following two lemmas which translate the above graph-theoretic concepts into ring-theoretic terms.

Lemma 3.1. *Consider the following statements for a ring R and $a, b \in Z(R)^*$.*

- (1) $a \sim b$.
- (2) $aR = bR$.
- (3) $\text{ann}_l(a) = \text{ann}_l(b)$.
- (a) *If R is reduced, then (1) and (3) are equivalent.*
- (b) *If R is a reduced von Neumann regular ring, then all three statements are equivalent.*

Proof. (a). If R is reduced, then $\text{ann}_l(x) = \text{ann}_r(x)$ for each $x \in Z(R)^*$. Thus we have $a \sim b$ if and only if $\text{ann}_l(a) = \text{ann}_l(b)$.

(b). Since R is a reduced ring, it is enough to show that (2) and (3) are equivalent. (2) \Rightarrow (3) is clear. To show (3) \Rightarrow (2), let $a = aca$ for some $c \in R$. Thus $a(1 - ca) = 0$ and so $1 - ca \in \text{ann}_r(a) = \text{ann}_l(a)$. Since $\text{ann}_l(a) = \text{ann}_l(b)$, we have $(1 - ca)b = 0$ and hence $b(1 - ca) = 0$. Therefore $b = bca \in Ra$. This implies that $Rb \subseteq Ra$. Similarly, $Ra \subseteq Rb$ and so $Ra = Rb$. \square

Lemma 3.2. *Let R be a reduced ring and $a, b \in Z(R)^*$. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

- (1) $a \perp b$.
- (2) $ab = 0$ and $a + b$ is a regular element of R .

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2). Since $a \perp b$ and R is reduced, we have $ab = 0$. Suppose that $(a + b)c = 0$ for some $c \in Z(R)^*$. Let $y = ac = -bc$. Then $by = ay = 0$. Since $a \perp b$, we conclude that $y \in \{0, a, b\}$. If $y = a$, then $a^2 = ay = 0$ which is a contradiction. Similarly, $y = b$ implies that $b^2 = 0$, again a contradiction. Hence $y = 0$ and so $ac = bc = 0$. It follows that $c \in \{0, a, b\}$ because $a \perp b$. If $c = a$, then $a^2 = 0$, a contradiction. Similarly, $c \neq b$ and hence $a + b$ is regular.

(2) \Rightarrow (1). Suppose that $ca = cb = 0$ for some $c \in Z(R)^*$. Then $c(a + b) = 0$, a contradiction because $a + b$ is regular. Since $ab = 0$, we have $a \perp b$. \square

Proposition 3.3. *Let R be a reduced ring and $a, b, c \in Z(R)^*$. If $a \perp b$ and $a \perp c$, then $b \sim c$. Consequently, $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented if and only if $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented.*

Proof. Since $a \perp b$ and $a \perp c$, we have $ab = ac = 0$. We first show that $bc \neq 0$. If $bc = 0$, then $c \in \{0, a, b\}$ because $ac = 0$ and $a \perp b$.

By our assumption, $c = a$ or $c = b$. If $c = a$, then $ac = a^2 = 0$ and hence $a = 0$, a contradiction. Similarly $c \neq b$. Thus $bc \neq 0$. Now suppose that $db = 0$ for some $d \in Z(R)^*$. Then $0 = (ac)d = a(cd)$ and $0 = (db)c = c(db) = (cd)b$. It follows that $cd \in \{0, a, b\}$ because $a \perp b$. If $cd \neq 0$, then $cd = a$ or $cd = b$ and hence $a^2 = 0$ or $b^2 = 0$, which is a contradiction. Therefore $cd = 0$ and so $c \leq b$. Similarly $b \leq c$, and thus $b \sim c$. \square

Remark 3.4. Let R be a reduced von Neumann regular ring. Then for any $a \in Z(R)^*$, we have $a = ue$ where $u \in U(R)$ and $e \in R$ is idempotent. To see this, let $a \in R$. Since R is von Neumann regular, there exists $b \in R$ such that $a = aba$. Then $a(1 - ba) = 0$ and hence $(1 - ba)a = 0$ because R is reduced. Thus $a = ba^2$. Similarly, $a = a^2b$. We set $x = b^2a$, $e = ax$ and $u = (1 - e + a)$. Then $e^2 = axax = ab^2aab^2a = ab^2a^2b^2a = ab^2a^2bba = ab^2aba = ab^2a = e$. Also, since $a = a^2b^2a$, and $0 = ab^2 - a^2b^2ab^2 = a(b^2 - ab^2ab^2)$, we have $(b^2 - ab^2ab^2)a = 0$ and so $b^2a = ab^2ab^2a$. This implies that $u(1 - e + x) = (1 - e + a)(1 - e + x) = 1$. On the other hand, $ab^2a^2 = a$ and $a^2b^2 - ab = 0$. Hence $a(ab^2 - b) = 0 = (ab^2 - b)a = 0$ and so $ab^2a = ba = b^2a^2$. Also $ab^2 - abab^2 = 0$ implies that $a(b^2 - bab^2) = 0$ and hence $(b^2 - bab^2)a = 0$. Thus $b^2a = bab^2a = b^2a^2b^2a$. Now, we conclude that $(1 - e + x)u = (1 - e + x)(1 - e + a) = 1$.

Corollary 3.5. *If R is a reduced von Neumann regular ring, then $\Gamma(R)$ is a uniquely complemented graph.*

Proof. By Remark 3.4, for any $a \in Z(R)^*$, there exist $u \in U(R)$ and idempotent $e \in R$ such that $a = ue$. Clearly, $a(1 - e) = 0$. Suppose that $ax = 0$ and $(1 - e)x = 0$, for some $x \in R$. Then $x = ex$ and hence $ux = uex = 0$. Since $u \in U(R)$, we conclude that $x = 0$. Thus $a \perp (1 - e)$. \square

Proposition 3.6. *Let R be a reduced right Ore ring. Then:*

- (a) *If RC_R^{-1} is von Neumann regular, then $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented.*
- (b) *If $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented, then every prime ideal of RC_R^{-1} is maximal.*

Proof. (a). Since R is reduced, by Theorem 2.2, $\Gamma(R) \cong \Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$. Also by Corollary 3.5, $\Gamma(RC_R^{-1})$ is uniquely complemented. Thus $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented.

(b). Let P and Q be two prime ideals of RC_R^{-1} such that $P \subsetneq Q$. Thus there exists $xs^{-1} \in Q$ such that $xs^{-1} \notin P$. Then $x \in Z(R)^*$ because $P \neq R$. Since $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented, there exists $y \in Z(R)^*$ such that

$x \perp y$. Now by Lemma 3.2, $xy = 0$ and $x + y$ is a regular element. Also since R is reduced, we have $xRC_R^{-1}y = 0$ and so $xRC_R^{-1}y \subseteq P$. This implies that $y \in P$ because P is prime and $x \notin P$. Thus $x + y \in Q$ and hence $Q = RC_R^{-1}$, a contradiction. It follows that every prime ideal of RC_R^{-1} is maximal. \square

Recall that a vertex of a graph is called an end if there is only one other vertex adjacent to it. We say that a ring R is an *Artinian ring* if R is both a left and a right Artinian ring. Let R be a ring. The prime radical of R , denoted by $\text{Nil}_*(R)$, is the intersection of all prime ideals in R and the Jacobson radical of R , denoted by $\text{Rad}(R)$, is the intersection of all maximal right ideals of R . We conclude the paper with the following theorem which gives the necessary conditions for an Artinian ring R with $\text{Nil}_*(R) \neq 0$, such that $\Gamma(R)$ is a complemented or uniquely complemented graph.

Theorem 3.7. *Let R be an Artinian ring with $\text{Nil}_*(R)$ nonzero.*

(a) *If $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented, then either $|R| = 8$, $|R| = 9$, or $|R| > 9$ and $\text{Nil}_*(R) = \{0, x\}$ for some $0 \neq x \in R$.*

(b) *If $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented and $|R| > 9$, then any complement of the nonzero nilpotent element of R is an end.*

Proof. (a). Suppose that $\Gamma(R)$ is complemented and let $a \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$ have index of nilpotence $n \geq 3$. Let $y \in Z(R)^*$ be a complement of a . Then $a^{n-1}y = 0 = a^{n-1}a$; so $y = a^{n-1}$, because $a \perp y$. Thus $a \perp a^{n-1}$ and this implies that $\text{ann}_l(a) \cup \text{ann}_r(a) = \{0, a^{n-1}\}$. Similarly, $a^i \perp a^{n-1}$ for each $1 \leq i \leq n-2$. Suppose that $n > 3$. Then $a^{n-2} + a^{n-1}$ kills both a^{n-2} and a^{n-1} , a contradiction, because $a^{n-2} \perp a^{n-1}$ and $a^{n-2} + a^{n-1} \notin \{0, a^{n-2}, a^{n-1}\}$. Thus if R has a nilpotent element with index $n \geq 3$, then $n = 3$. In this case, $Ra^2 = \{0, a^2\}$ because any $z \in Ra^2$ kills both a and a^2 and $a \perp a^2$. Also if $za^2 = 0$, then $za \in \text{ann}_l(a) = \{0, a^2\}$ and so either $za = 0$ or $za = a^2$. If $za = 0$, then $z = 0$ or $z = a^2$ while if $za = a^2$, then $(z - a)a = 0$ and hence $z = a$ or $z = a + a^2$. Therefore $\text{ann}_l(a^2) = \{0, a, a^2, a + a^2\}$. Thus the R -epimorphism $r \rightarrow ra^2$, from R onto Ra^2 implies that R is a local ring with $|R| = 8$, $\text{Nil}_*(R) = \text{ann}_l(a^2)$ its maximal ideal and $\Gamma(R)$ is a star graph with center a^2 and two edges.

Now suppose that each nonzero nilpotent element of R has index of nilpotence 2. Let $y \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$ have complement $z \in Z(R)^*$ and assume that $2y \neq 0$. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $yz = 0$. Note that $(ry)y = 0 = (ry)z$ for all $r \in R$. Thus $Ry \subseteq \{0, y, z\}$. Then necessarily $2y = z$ since $2y \in Ry \subseteq \{0, y, z\}$. Also $\text{ann}_r(y) = \{0, y, 2y\}$ since $y \perp 2y$. Thus $Ry = \{0, y, 2y\}$; so we have $|R| = 9$. In this case,

R is local with maximal ideal $\text{Nil}_*(R) = \text{ann}_r(y)$ and $\Gamma(R)$ is a star graph with one edge.

Next suppose that each nonzero nilpotent element of R has index nilpotence 2 and $|R| \neq 9$. By above, we must have $2y = 0$. We show that $\text{Nil}_*(R) = \{0, y\}$. Suppose that z is another nonzero nilpotent element of R ; so $z^2 = 0$. Then $y + z \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$ and hence $(y + z)^2 = 0$. Suppose that y' and z' are complements of y and z , respectively. Then we have $yy' = 0$ or $y'y = 0$ and $zz' = 0$ or $z'z = 0$. We proceed by cases.

Case 1. $yy' = 0$ and $zz' = 0$. Since $y \perp y'$ and $z \perp z'$, $Ry \subseteq \{0, y, y'\}$ and $Rz \subseteq \{0, z, z'\}$. We claim that $yz = zy = 0$. Note that $yz \in Rz \subseteq \{0, z, z'\}$. If $yz \neq 0$, then either $yz = z$ or $yz = z'$. If $yz = z$, then $0 = y(yz) = yz$, a contradiction. Thus $yz = z'$. It follows that $z' \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$ and so $z'^2 = 0$. Since $z \perp z'$ and $z(z + z') = (z + z')z' = 0$, we conclude that $z + z' = 0$; so $z' = -z = z$, a contradiction (by the definition of complement). Thus $yz = 0$. Similarly, $zy = 0$. Let w be a complement of $y + z$. Then $w(y + z) = 0$ or $(y + z)w = 0$. We note that $w \neq y$. For if $w = y$, then $(y + z)z = 0$ and $wz = 0$ and hence $z \in \{0, w, y + z\} = \{0, y, y + z\}$, a contradiction. Similarly, $w \neq z$. We claim that $(y + z)w = 0$. Otherwise $w(y + z) = 0$. Then $wy = wz \in Ry \cap Rz$. Thus $wy = wz = 0$ or $wy = wz = y' = z'$. If $wy = 0$, then since $(y + z)y = 0$ and $(y + z) \perp w$, we conclude that $y \in \{0, y + z, w\}$, a contradiction. If $wy = wz = y' = z'$, then $y' \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$ which again is a contradiction (similar to what was described above for $z' \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$). Thus $(y + z)w = 0$. On the other hand, $z'y \in Ry \subseteq \{0, y, y'\}$. If $z'y = 0$, then since $yz = 0$ and $z \perp z'$, we have $y \in \{0, z, z'\}$ and hence $y = z'$. Thus $z' \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$, a contradiction. If $z'y = y'$, then $y' \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$ which again is a contradiction. Thus $z'y = y$. Similarly, $y'z = z$. Also $y'y \in Ry \subseteq \{0, y, y'\}$. We claim that $y'y = y$. If $y'y = y'$, then $y' \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$, a contradiction. If $y'y = 0$, then $y'(y + z) = y'z = z \in \{0, y + z, w\}$ which is a contradiction (because $zw = 0$ and $(y + z)z = 0$). Thus $y'y = y$ and so $y'^2 \neq 0$. Since R is an Artinian ring, every right zero-divisor of R is a left zero-divisor. Thus $y't = 0$ for some nonzero $t \in R$. Now $ty \in Ry$ and so $ty = 0$, $ty = y$ or $ty = y'$. If $ty = 0$, then since $y't = 0$ and $y \perp y'$, we have $t \in \{0, y, y'\}$. Then $0 = y't = y'^2$ or $0 = y't = y'y = y$, which is a contradiction. Thus $ty = y$ or $ty = y'$ and we conclude that $0 = y'ty = y'y = y$ or $0 = y'ty = y'^2$, a contradiction.

Case 2. $y'y = 0$ and $zz' = 0$. Then $yR \subseteq \{0, y, y'\}$ and $Rz \subseteq \{0, z, z'\}$ and so $yy' \in \{0, y, y'\}$. If $yy' = y'$, then $y' \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$, a contradiction. If $yy' = 0$, then by Case 1, we are done. Thus we have $yy' = y$. Now since

R is an Artinian ring and $y'y = 0$, $ty' = 0$ for some nonzero $t \in R$. On the other hand, $yt \in \{0, y, y'\}$. If $yt = 0$, then $t \in \{0, y, y'\}$ (because $ty' = 0$ and $y \perp y'$). Therefore either $t = y$ or $t = y'$. This implies that $0 = ty' = yy' = y$ or $0 = ty' = y'^2$, again a contradiction. Thus we have $yt = y$ or $yt = y'$. Then $0 = yty' = yy' = y$ or $0 = y'yt = y'^2$, a contradiction.

Case 3. $y'y = 0$ and $z'z = 0$. It is similar to Case 1.

Case 4. $yy' = 0$ and $z'z = 0$. It is similar to Case 2.

(b). Suppose that $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented and $|R| > 9$. Let $0 \neq x \in \text{Nil}_*(R)$. By part (a), $\text{Nil}_*(R) = \{0, x\}$. Let y be a complement of x . Then $xy = 0$ or $yx = 0$. Without loss of generality, we may assume that $xy = 0$. Clearly $x(x+y) = 0$, since $x^2 = 0$. We claim that $x \perp (x+y)$. Suppose $w \in Z(R)^*$ such that $x-w$ and $(x+y)-w$ are two edges of $\Gamma(R)$. Now we proceed by cases.

Case 1. $xw = 0$ and $(x+y)w = 0$. Then $yw = 0$ and since $xw = 0$ and $x \perp y$, we conclude that $w \in \{0, x, y\}$. If $w = y$, then $y^2 = 0$ and hence $x(x+y) = 0$ and $(x+y)y = 0$. This contradicts that $x \perp y$. Thus $w = x$ and we are done.

Case 2. $wx = 0$ and $(x+y)w = 0$. Then $xw = yw$ (note that $x = -x$) and since $xw \in \{0, x\}$, either $xw = 0$ or $xw = x$. If $xw = 0$, then $xw = yw = 0$ and similar to Case 1, $w = x$. Thus suppose that $xw = yw = x$. Since $xy = 0$ and R is an Artinian ring, $yt = 0$ for some $t \in Z(R)^*$. Now if $tx = 0$, then $t \in \{0, x, y\}$ (note that $x \perp y$) and we deduce $t = x$ (since $y^2 \neq 0$). If $tx = x$, then $0 = ytx = yx$. Thus in any case, we have $yx = 0$. On the other hand, $(wy)x = 0$ and $y(wy) = 0$ and hence $wy \in \{0, x, y\}$. Now we continue the proof by subcases;

Subcase 1. $wy = 0$. Then since $wx = 0$ and $x \perp y$ and $w \in \{0, x, y\}$; so $w = x$ and we are done.

Subcases 2. $wy = y$. Then $(w-1)y = 0$ and also $x(w-1) = 0$. Thus $(w-1) \in \{0, x, y\}$. Clearly $w \neq 1$. If $w-1 = x$, then $w = 1+x$ is invertible (note that $x \in \text{Rad}(R) = \text{Nil}_*(R)$), a contradiction. Therefore $w-1 = y$ and this implies that $0 = wx = x+yx = x$, which again is a contradiction.

Subcases 3. $wy = x$. Then $0 = wx = w(yw) = (wy)w = xw = x$, a contradiction.

Case 3. $xw = 0$ and $w(x+y) = 0$. It is similar to Case 2.

Case 4. $wx = 0$ and $w(x+y) = 0$. It is similar to Case 1.

Thus in any case, we conclude that $x \perp (x+y)$. Since $\Gamma(R)$ is uniquely complemented and $x \perp y$, we have that $(x+y) \sim y$. Suppose that there exists $z \in Z(R)^* \setminus \{x\}$ such that $zy = 0$ or $. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $zy = 0$. Then since $(x+y) \sim y$, we$

have $z(x + y) = 0$ or $(x + y)z = 0$. If $z(x + y) = 0$, Then $zx = 0$, a contradiction. Thus $(x + y)z = 0$. Then $xz + yz = 0$ and since $xz \neq 0$, we have $x + yz = 0$. Now $zx = zyz = 0$, which again is a contradiction. Thus no such z can exist; so y is an end. \square

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