

# Two minimal clones whose join is gigantic

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**Abstract.** Let  $A$  be a finite set such that the greatest prime divisor of  $|A|$  is at least 5. Then two minimal clones are constructed on  $A$  such that their join contains all operations.

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Given a finite set  $A$  with at least two elements, the clones on  $A$  form an atomic algebraic lattice  $\mathbf{L}_A$ . The atoms of  $\mathbf{L}_A$  are called minimal clones. Szabó [5] raised the question that what is the minimal number  $n = n(|A|)$  such that the greatest element  $\mathbf{1}_A$  of  $\mathbf{L}_A$  is the join of  $n$  atoms. In other words, how many minimal clones are necessary to generate the clone of all operations on  $A$ ? He proved  $2 \leq n(|A|) \leq 3$  and  $n(p) = 2$  for  $p$  prime, cf. [5]. Later in [6] he also showed  $n(2p) = 2$  for primes  $p \geq 5$ . Our goal is not only to extend these results but also to simplify the proof in [6] for the  $2p$  case. Many of Szabó's ideas from [5] and [6] will be used in the present paper.

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $A$  be a finite set, and let  $p$  divide the number of elements of  $A$  for some prime  $p \geq 5$ . Then there exist two minimal clones on  $A$  whose join contains all operations on  $A$ .*

The proof relies on the following lemma.

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $|A| = pk$  for a prime  $p \geq 5$  and an integer  $k \geq 2$ . Then there are a lattice structure  $(A, \vee, \wedge)$  and a fixed point free permutation  $g : A \rightarrow A$  of order  $p$  such that, with the notation  $m$  for the ternary majority operation  $m : A^3 \rightarrow A$ ,  $(x, y, z) \mapsto (x \wedge y) \vee (x \wedge z) \vee (y \wedge z)$ , the algebra  $\mathcal{A} = (A, m, g)$  is simple, it has no proper subalgebra and it has no nontrivial automorphism.*

**Proof of Lemma 2.** Let  $A = \{0 = a_{0,1}, 1 = a_{k+1,p}, a_{1,1}, \dots, a_{1,p-1}, a_{2,1}, \dots, a_{2,p-1}, a_{3,1}, \dots, a_{3,p}, \dots, a_{k,1}, \dots, a_{k,p}\}$ . Consider the lattice structure  $(A, \vee, \wedge)$  on  $A$  as depicted in Figure 1. (Notice that this lattice is a Hall–Dilworth gluing of  $k$  modular nondistributive lattices of length 2.)

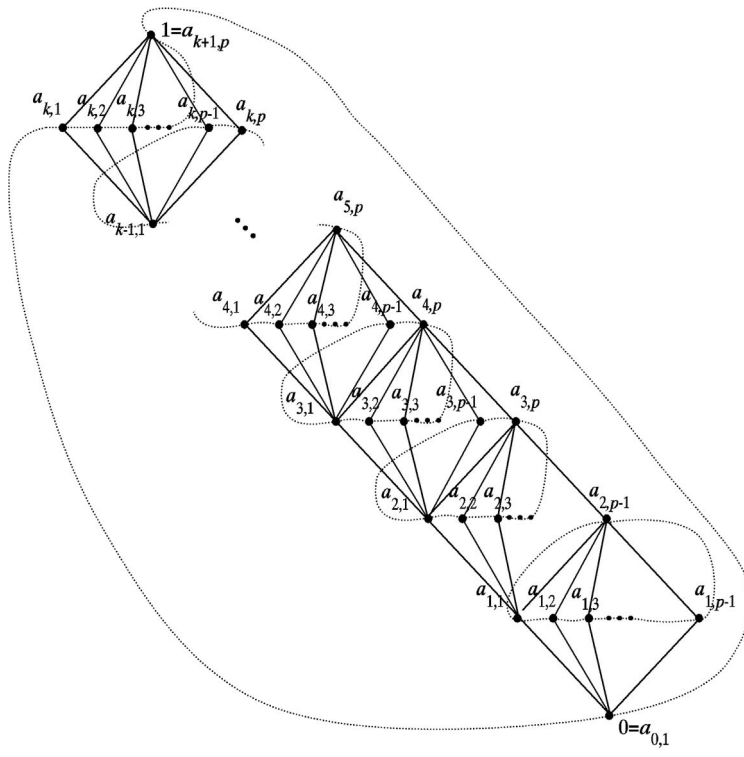


Figure 1

Let  $g$  be the following permutation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (0a_{k,1}a_{k,2} \dots a_{k,p-2}1)(a_{1,1} \dots a_{1,p-1}a_{2,p-1}) \times \\
 & (a_{2,1} \dots a_{2,p-2}a_{3,p}a_{3,p-1})(a_{3,1} \dots a_{3,p-2}a_{4,p}a_{4,p-1}) \times \\
 & (a_{4,1} \dots a_{4,p-2}a_{5,p}a_{5,p-1}) \dots (a_{k-1,1} \dots a_{k-1,p-2}a_{k,p}a_{k,p-1}).
 \end{aligned}$$

In Figure 1 the  $g$ -orbits are indicated by dotted lines.

Now if  $\Theta$  is a congruence of  $\mathcal{A}$  then  $x \wedge y = m(x, y, 0)$  and  $x \vee y = m(x, y, 1)$  preserve  $\Theta$ , so  $\Theta$  is a lattice congruence as well. But our lattice is simple, whence so is  $\mathcal{A}$ .

Now let  $S$  be a subalgebra of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Clearly,  $S$  is the union of some  $g$ -orbits. From  $m(a_{i,1}, a_{i,2}, a_{i,3}) = a_{i-1,1}$  ( $1 \leq i \leq k$ ) we infer that if  $S$  includes the  $g$ -orbit of  $a_{i,1}$  then it

includes the  $g$ -orbit of  $a_{i-1,1}$ . Since  $a_{k,1}$  and  $a_{0,1} = 0$  belong to the same orbit,  $S$  includes all orbits. This shows that  $\mathcal{A}$  has no proper subalgebra.

An element  $x \in A$  is called  $m$ -irreducible if  $A \setminus \{x\}$  is closed with respect to  $m$ . Using the monotonicity of  $m$  we easily conclude that 1 is  $m$ -irreducible. The doubly (i.e., both meet and join) irreducible elements are  $m$ -irreducible as well. The computational rules

$$\begin{aligned} m(a_{i1}, a_{i,2}, a_{i,3}) &= a_{i-1,0} & (1 \leq i \leq k), \\ m(a_{1,1}, a_{1,2}, 1) &= a_{2,p-1}, \\ m(a_{j-1,1}, a_{j-1,2}, 1) &= a_{j,p} & (3 \leq j \leq k) \end{aligned}$$

imply that the rest of elements are  $m$ -reducible. Now 0 is the only  $m$ -reducible element with the property that all other elements in its  $g$ -orbit are  $m$ -irreducible. Hence 0 is a fixed point of every automorphism  $\tau$  of  $\mathcal{A}$ . Since the set of fixed points of  $\tau$  is either empty or a subalgebra, all elements are fixed points and  $\tau$  is the identity map of  $A$ . Hence  $\mathcal{A}$  has no nontrivial automorphism. This proves Lemma 2.  $\diamond$

The transition from Lemma 2 to Theorem 1 is essentially the same as that in Szabó [6].

**Proof of Theorem 1.** Since the case when  $|A|$  is a prime is settled in [5], we can assume that  $|A| = kp$  for  $k \geq 2$  and  $p \geq 5$ . The clone  $[m]$  generated by  $m$  (in case of any lattice) is known to be a minimal one, cf. e.g. Kalouznin and Pöschel [3, page 115, 4.4.5.(ii)]. Clearly, the permutation  $g$  also generates a minimal clone. To prove that  $[m] \vee [g] = \mathbf{1}_A$  it suffices to show that no relation from the six types in the famous Rosenberg Theorem [4] is preserved both by  $m$  and  $g$ . (Note that Rosenberg Theorem is cited in [2] as Thm. A.) Since  $m$  is a majority operation, it does not preserve linear relations and  $h$ -regular relations by [2, Lemma 6]. It is easy to check that if a central relation is preserved by  $m$  and  $g$  then its centrum elements form a subalgebra of  $\mathcal{A}$ . So the lack of proper subalgebras excludes central relations. Since the simplicity of  $\mathcal{A}$  and the lack of nontrivial automorphisms obviously exclude two further kinds of Rosenberg's relations, we are left with the case of a bounded partial order  $\rho \subseteq A^2$  preserved by  $m$  and  $g$ . If  $u$  is the smallest element with respect to  $\rho$  then  $(u, g(u)) \in \rho$  gives  $(g^{p-1}(u), g^p(u)) = (g^{p-1}(u), u) \in \rho$ , which contradicts  $g^{p-1}(u) \neq u$ . (Alternatively,  $x \wedge y = m(x, y, 0)$  and  $x \vee y = m(x, y, 1)$  also preserve  $\rho$ . Since  $(A, \vee, \wedge)$  is a simple lattice,  $\rho$  is the original lattice order or its dual by [1, Cor. 1], so  $\rho$  is evidently not preserved by  $g$ .) This proves Theorem 1.  $\diamond$

**Concluding remarks.** While we do not know if  $n(|A|) = 2$  holds for all finite sets  $A$  with at least two elements, Lemma 2 surely fails when  $|A| = 2^k$ ,  $k > 1$ . (Indeed, then  $\{0, g(0)\}$  is a proper subalgebra.) The case when 3 is the greatest prime divisor of  $|A| > 3$  is less clear. All we know at present is that Lemma 2 fails for  $|A| = 6$  but holds for  $|A| \in \{9, 12, 18\}$ . For example, the lattice we used for  $|A| = 18$  is given in Figure 2, the corresponding permutation  $g$  is

$$(0, 16, 15)(1, 4, 5)(2, 3, 9)(6, 7, 14)(8, 10, 17)(11, 12, 13),$$

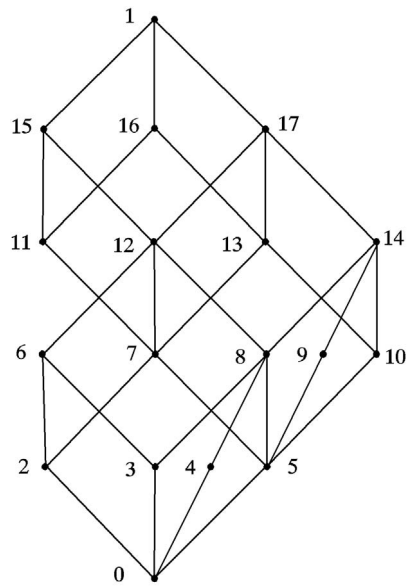


Figure 2

and the reasoning is considerably longer than in the proof of Lemma 2. Unfortunately, the particular arguments for 9, 12 and 18 have not given a clue to more generality.

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