# A classification of the set of linear functions in prime-valued logic 

## IVAN STOJMENOVIĆ

## 1. Introduction

Let $P_{k}=\bigcup_{n \in \omega}\left\{f \mid f: E_{k}^{n} \rightarrow E_{k}\right\}$, where $E_{k}=\{0,1, \ldots, k-1\}$; i.e. $P_{k}$ denotes the set of all $k$-valued logical functions. A subset $\boldsymbol{G}$ of $\boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{k}}$ is said to be closed if it is closed under superposition (e.g. see [4]).

Let $H \subset P_{k}$ be a fixed closed set. If $F \subseteq H$ then we say that
(i) $F$ is complete in $H \Leftrightarrow$ every element of $H$ is obtained from $F$ by superposition;
(ii) $F$ is $H$-maximal $\Leftrightarrow F$ is closed and no $G$ exists such that $F \subset G \subset H$ (proper inclusion) and $G$ is closed;
(iii) $F$ is a base in $H \Leftrightarrow F$ is finite and complete in $H$ and no complete subset of $F$ exists;
(iv) $F$ is a pivotal set in $H \Leftrightarrow F$ is finite and for every $f \in F$ there is an $H$-maximal $F^{\prime}$ such that $f \notin F^{\prime}$ but $F-\{f\} \subseteq F^{\prime}$.
From these definitions it follows that a base is a complete pivotal set of functions.
The rank of a base (pivotal set) is the number of elements of the base (pivotal set).
Let $m$ be the cardinality of the set of all $H$-maximal sets and suppose that this set is well-ordered. There exist closed sets $H$ for which $m$ is not finite ([5]). If $m$ is finite then a subset $F$ of $H$ is complete in $H$ iff $F$ is not contained in any $H$-maximal set ([4]).

If $f \in H$, then the class $a_{f}$ determined by $f$ is an element of $\{0,1\}^{m}$ such that $a_{i}=0$ iff $f \in H_{i}$, where $a_{i}$ is the $i$-th component of $a_{f}$ and $H_{i}$ is the $i$-th $H$-maximal set ( $1 \leqq i \leqq m$ ) in the well-ordering mentioned above. For $F \subseteq H$, one can define the class $a_{F}$ determined by $F$ as the union of classes determined by the elements of $F$. Therefore, if $F=\left\{f_{1}, \ldots, f_{s}\right\}$ then $a_{F}=\left\{a_{f_{1}}, \ldots, a_{f_{*}}\right\}$. This set $a_{F}$ can be represented as an element $a_{F}^{\prime}$ of $\{0,1\}^{m}$ such that $a_{F}^{\prime}=V\left(a_{f_{1}}, \ldots, a_{f_{s}}\right)$, where bitwise OR operation $V$ is defined in the following way: the $i$-th component $a_{F}^{(i)}$ of $a_{F}^{\prime}$ is equal to 0 iff the $i$-th component of all classes $a_{f_{j}}(1 \leqq j \leqq s)$ is equal to 0 .

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From this definition it follows that the set $F$ is complete iff $a_{F}^{\prime}=1^{m}$. Also, we infer that $F$ is a pivotal set if $a_{F}^{\prime} \neq a_{F \backslash\left(f_{j}\right)}^{\prime}$ for all $j, 1 \leqq j \leqq s$. From these considerations one can remark that if $F$ is complete (pivotal set, base), $f, f^{\prime} \in F$ and $a_{f}=a_{f^{\prime}}$ (i.e. $f$ and $f^{\prime}$ are functions of the same class) then $F \cup\left\{f^{\prime}\right\} \backslash\{f\}$ is complete (pivotal set, base) and $a_{F}=a_{F \cup\left\{f^{\prime}\right\} \backslash\{f\}}$.

All $P_{2}$-maximal sets and maximal sets of $P_{2}$-maximal sets are described in [10]. $P_{3}$-maximal sets are determined in [4], and maximal sets of $P_{3}$-maximal sets are exhibited in [7] and other papers.

All different classes $a_{f}$ for the set $P_{2}$ are investigated in [6], and for $P_{3}$ in [8], [9] and [11].

Let us recall some well-known closed sets in $P_{k}$.
The set $L_{k}$ of linear functions is defined in the following way:
$L_{k}=\left\{a_{0}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x_{i}(\bmod k) \mid a_{0} \in E_{k}, a_{i} \in E_{k}^{\prime}, 1 \leqq i \leqq n, n \in \omega\right.$, where $\left.E_{k}^{\prime}=E_{k} \backslash\{0\}\right\}$.
Let $a=\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}$. It is well-known that $L_{k}$ is a $P_{k}$-maximal set iff $k$ is a prime number ([4]).

The set $S_{k}$ of selfdual functions is defined as follows:

$$
S_{k}=\left\{f \mid f\left(x_{1}+1, \ldots, x_{n}+1\right)=f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)+1(\bmod k), n=1,2, \ldots\right\}
$$

$T_{k}^{j}=\{f \mid f(j, \ldots, j)=j\}$ is the set of functions preserving $j(0 \leqq j \leqq k-1)$.
Let $\bar{X}=L_{k} \backslash X$ for each $X \subset L_{k}$. The intersection of the sets $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{i} \subset L_{k}$ will be denoted by $X_{1} \ldots X_{i}$.

From the results in papers [1], [2], [3] it follows
Theorem 1. Let $p \in \omega$ be an arbitrary prime. Then there are $p+2 L$-maximal sets. These are:
(i) $L^{j}=L_{p} T_{p}^{j}$, for every $j, j=0,1, \ldots, p-1$,
(ii) $L^{p}=L_{p} S_{p}=\left\{a_{0}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x_{i} \mid a=1(\bmod p)\right\}$, the set of linear selfdual functions,
(iii) $L^{(1)}=\left\{a_{0}+a_{1} x \mid a_{0}, a_{1} \in E_{p}\right\}$, the set of unary linear functions.

Let $0^{t}$ denote the sequence $\underbrace{00 \ldots 0}_{i}$, and $1^{t}$ denote $\underbrace{11 \ldots 1}_{i}$.
In this paper we prove that there exist $2 p+4$ different classes determined by functions of $L_{p}$. The number of different classes determined by bases in $L_{p}$ is $4\binom{p+1}{2}$, and the number of different classes determined by pivotal noncomplete sets of $L_{p}$ is $\binom{p+4}{2}-2$.

## 2. Classification of $L_{p}$

Theorem 2. Let $p \in \omega$ be an arbitrary prime. Then there are $2 p+4$ different classes (denoted by $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{2 p+4}$ ) of functions in $L_{p}$. These classes and the corresponding sets of functions are:

$$
\begin{gathered}
L^{0} L^{1} \ldots L^{p-1} L^{p} L^{(1)}, \quad c_{1}=0^{p+2} ; \\
L^{0} L^{1} \ldots L^{p-1} L^{p} \bar{L}^{(1)}, \quad c_{2}=0^{p+1} 1 ; \\
\bar{L}^{0} \bar{L}^{1} \ldots \bar{L}^{i-4} L^{i-3} \bar{L}^{i-2} \ldots \bar{L}^{p} L^{(1)}, \quad c_{i}=1^{i-3} 0^{p+3-i} 0, \quad \text { where } 3 \leqq i \leqq p+3 ; \\
\bar{L}^{0} \bar{L}^{1} \ldots \bar{L}^{j-p-5} L^{j-p-4} \bar{L}^{j-p-3} \ldots \bar{L}^{p} \bar{L}^{(1)}, \quad c_{j}=1^{j-p-4} 01^{2 p+5-j}, \\
\quad \text { where } p+4 \leqq j \leqq 2 p+4 .
\end{gathered}
$$

Proof. Let $f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=a_{0}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i} x_{i}(\bmod p)$ and $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{i}=a$. Consider the equation $a_{0}+a y=y$.

Case a) Let $a_{0}=0, a=1$. Then the equation is $y=y$ which is satisfied by every $y$. This implies that $f \in L^{0} L^{1} \ldots L^{p}$. The function $f(x)=x$ is in the set $L^{(1)}$, and it is a function of the class $c_{1}$. The function $a_{1} x_{1}+\ldots+a_{n} x_{n}$ where $a=1$ and $n \geqq 2$ is in the set $\bar{L}^{(1)}$, and so it is a function of the class $c_{2}$.

Case b) $a_{0} \neq 0, a=1$. Then we obtain $a_{0}=0$, so it has no solution. Hence, the function $f$ is in the set $\bar{L}^{0} L^{1} \ldots \bar{L}^{p-1} L^{p}$. The function $a_{0}+x$ for $a_{0} \neq 0$ is in the set $L^{(1)}$ and it is a function of the class $c_{p+3}$. The function $a_{0}+a_{1} x_{1}+\ldots+a_{n} x_{n}(\bmod p)$ for $a_{0} \neq 0$ and $a=1, n \geqq 2$ is in the set $\bar{L}^{(1)}$, and it is a function of the class $c_{2 p+4}$.

Case c) $a \neq 1 . y_{1} \neq y_{2}$ implies $(a-1) y_{1} \neq(a-1) y_{2}$. From this it follows that $(a-1) y$ takes on $p$ different values, when $y$ ranges from 0 to $p-1$. It follows that there exists exactly one $y_{0}$ such that $(a-1) y_{0}=-a_{0}$, i.e. $a_{0}+a y_{0}=y_{0}$. This implies that the function $f$ is in the set $L^{y_{0}}$, and it is not in the sets $L^{i}$ for $i \neq y_{0}, 1 \leqq i \leqq p-1$. Since $a \neq 1, f$ is not in the set $L^{p}$. The function $f=i$ (constant) is in the set $L^{(1)}$, and it is a function of the class $c_{i+3}$. The function $f=i+a x_{1}+(p-a) x_{2}(a \neq 0)$ is in the set $\bar{L}^{(1)}$ and it is a function of the class $c_{p+4+i}$.

Theorem is proved, because all possible cases have been considered.

## 3. Classes determined by bases of $L_{p}$

Theorem 3. Let $p \in \omega$ be an arbitrary prime. Then the number of different classes determined by bases in $L_{p}$ and the number of. different classes determined by pivotal noncomplete sets in $L_{p}$ for each rank are shown in the following table:

| rank | bases | pivotal noncomplete |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 0 | $2 p+3$ |
| 2 | $3\binom{p+1}{2}$ | $\binom{p+1}{2}+p+1$ |
| 3 | $\binom{p+1}{2}$ | 0 |
| $\geqq 4$ | 0 | 0 |

Proof. From the definitions it is easy to see that the class $c_{1}=0^{\rho+2}$ is not included in any pivotal set, and there is no base of rank 1 . The classes $c_{2}, c_{3}, \ldots, c_{2 p+4}$ are different from $0^{p+2}$ and $1^{p+2}$. Hence, these classes define the classes determined by pivotal noncomplete sets of rank 1 of $L_{p}$.

We begin the investigation of bases and pivotal noncomplete sets of rank $\geqq 2$ by the following remarks:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V\left(c_{i}, c_{j}\right)=1^{p+1} 0 \text { for } 3 \leqq i, j \leqq p+3 ; \\
& V\left(c_{i}, c_{j}\right)=1^{p+2} \text { for } p+4 \leqq i, j \leqq 2 p+4 ; \\
& V\left(c_{2}, c_{i}\right) \notin\left\{c_{2}, c_{i}, 1^{p+2}\right\} \text { for } 3 \leqq i \leqq p+3 ; \\
& V\left(c_{2}, c_{i}\right)=c_{i} \text { for } p+4 \leqq i \leqq 2 p+4 ; \\
& V\left(c_{i}, c_{j}\right)=1^{p+2} \text { for } 3 \leqq i \leqq p+3, p+4 \leqq j \leqq 2 p+4 \text { and } j \neq i+p+1 ; \\
& \vee\left(c_{i}, c_{i+p+1}\right)=c_{i+p+1} \text { for } 3 \leqq i \leqq p+3 ; \\
& V\left(c_{2}, c_{i}, c_{j}\right)=1^{p+2} \text { for } 3 \leqq i<j \leqq p+3 .
\end{aligned}
$$

From these remarks it follows that bases of rank 2 may contain any two functions of classes $c_{i}$ and $c_{j}$, where $i$ and $j$ satisfy the condition $p+4 \leqq i<j \leqq 2 p+4$, or the conditions $3 \leqq i \leqq p+3, p+4 \leqq j \leqq 2 p+4$ and $j \neq i+p+1$.

Also, one can infer that pivotal incomplete sets of rank 2 consist either of two functions of classes $c_{i}$ and $c_{j}, 3 \leqq i<j \leqq p+3$, or a function of class $c_{2}$ and a function of class $c_{i}, 3 \leqq i \leqq p+3$.

From the remarks above it follows that no pivotal set of rank $\geqq 3$ exists which contains a function of class $c_{i}$ for $p+4 \leqq i \leqq 2 p+4$. Hence, pivotal sets of rank $\geqq 3$ may contain only functions of the class $c_{2}$ and classes $c_{i}$ for $3 \leqq i \leqq p+3$. But, from the first remark we conclude that $V\left(c_{i_{1}}, c_{i_{2}}, \ldots, c_{i_{g}}\right)=V\left(c_{i_{1}}, c_{i_{2}}\right)=1^{p+1} 0$ for
$3 \leqq i_{1}, \ldots, i_{s} \leqq p+3$. Hence, a pivotal set cannot contain functions from more than two classes $c_{i}$ for $3 \leqq i \leqq p+3$. Therefore, no base or pivotal set of rank $\geqq 4$ exists. From $\vee\left(c_{2}, c_{i}, c_{j}\right)=1^{p+2}(3 \leqq i<j \leqq p+3)$ we conclude that pivotal sets of rank 3 are complete. Thus, no pivotal noncomplete set of rank 3 exists and a base of rank 3 consists of a function of class $c_{2}$ and two functions of the classes $c_{i}$ and $c_{j}$, where $3 \leqq i<j \leqq p+3$.

From the above considerations the theorem follows.
Corollary 1. The maximal rank of a base of the set $L_{p}$ is 3 , and the maximal rank of a pivotal noncomplete set is 2 .

Corollary 2. There is no base of rank 1 (i.e. Sheffer function) in the set $L_{p}$.
Corollary 3. The number of different classes determined by bases in $L_{p}$ (p prime) is $4\binom{p+1}{2}$.

Corollary 4. The number of different classes determined by pivotal noncomplete sets of $L_{p}$ (p prime) is $\binom{p+1}{2}+3 p+4=\binom{p+4}{2}-2$.

The number of $n$-ary linear functions of class $c_{i}(1 \leqq i \leqq 2 p+4)$ will be denoted by $t_{n}(i)$.

Theorem 4. $t_{0}(i)=1$ for $3 \leqq i \leqq p+2, t_{0}(i)=0$ otherwise; $t_{1}(1)=1, t_{1}(p+3)=$ $=p-1, t_{1}(i)=p-2$ for $3 \leqq i \leqq p+2, t_{1}(i)=0$ otherwise; $t_{n}(2)=\left((p-1)^{n}-(-1)^{n}\right) / p$, $t_{n}(2 p+4)=(p-1) t_{n}(2) ; t_{n}(i)=\left((p-1)^{n+1}+(-1)^{n}\right) / p$ for $p+4 \leqq i \leqq 2 p+3, t_{n}(i)=0$ otherwise ( $n \geqq 2$ ).

Proof. The statement follows easily from considerations in the proof of Theorem 2. For $n=0$ and $n=1$ the assertion is obvious. For $n>1 t_{n}(2)$ is equal to the number of sequences $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}$ which satisfy the condition $a_{1}+\ldots+a_{n}=$ $=1(\bmod p)$. If $a_{1}+\ldots+a_{n-1}=1(\bmod p)$, then no solution of the equation $a_{1}+\ldots+a_{n}=1(\bmod p)$ exists (since $\left.a_{i} \neq 0,1 \leqq i \leqq n\right)$. If $a_{1}+\ldots+a_{n-1} \neq 1(\bmod p)$, then there exists exactly one solution of the equation $a_{1}+\ldots+a_{n}=1(\bmod p)$. It follows that $t_{n}(2)=(p-1)^{n-1}-t_{n-1}(2), t_{2}(2)=p-2$. By induction on $n$ it is easy to prove that $t_{n}(2)=\left((p-1)^{n}-(-1)^{n}\right) / p$. If $p+4 \leqq i \leqq 2 p+3$, then from $t_{n}(i)=$ $=(p-1)^{n}-t_{n}(2)$ we obtain $t_{n}(i)=\left((p-1)^{n+1}+(-1)^{n}\right) / p$.

The number of functions of the class $c_{i}$ which depend on at most $n$ variables is denoted by $t_{\leqq n}(i)$.

From Theorem 4 the following theorem is easily derived.

Theorem 5. $t_{\leqq 0}(i)=t_{0}(i) ; t_{\leqq 1}(i)=t_{0}(i)+t_{1}(i) ;$

$$
\begin{gathered}
t_{\leqq n}(1)=1, \quad t_{\leqq n}(i)=p-1 \text { for } 3 \leqq i \leqq p+3 ; \\
\left.t_{\leqq n}(2)=\left((p-1)^{n+1}-(p-1)^{2}\right) /(p-2)-\left((-1)^{n}+1\right) / 2\right) / p ; \\
t_{\leqq n}(2 p+4)=(p-1) t_{\leqq n}(2) ; \\
t_{\leqq n}(i)=\left((p-1)^{2}\left((p-1)^{n}-1\right) /(p-2)+\left(1+(-1)^{n}\right) / 2\right) / p \text { for } p+4 \leqq i \leqq 2 p+3 .
\end{gathered}
$$

Let $B_{i}^{n}$ and $P_{i}^{n}$ denote the number of bases and the number of pivotal incomplete sets of rank $i$ which consist of functions depending on at most $n$ variables.

From Theorems 2, 3 and 5 it is easy to prove the following
Theorem 6.

$$
\begin{gathered}
B_{2}^{n}=p t_{\leqq n}(2 p+4) t_{\leqq n}(p+4)+\binom{p}{2} t_{\leqq n}^{2}(p+4)+p t_{\leqq n}(p+3) t_{\leqq n}(p+4)+ \\
+p t_{\leqq n}(2 p+4) t_{\leqq n}(3)+t_{\leqq n}(p+3) t_{\leqq n}(2 p+4)+p^{2} t_{\leqq n}(3) t_{\leqq n}(p+4) ; \\
B_{3}^{n}=t_{\leqq n}(2)\left(p t_{\leqq n}(p+3) t_{\leqq n}(3)+\binom{p}{2} t_{\leqq n}^{2}(3)\right) ; \\
P_{1}^{n}=t_{\leqq n}(2)+t_{\leqq n}(p+3)+t_{\leqq n}(2 p+4)+p t_{\leqq n}(3)+p t_{\leqq n}(p+4) ; \\
P_{2}^{n}=t_{\leqq n}(2)\left(t_{\leqq n}(p+3)+p t_{\leqq n}(3)\right)+p t_{\leqq n}(p+3) t_{\leqq n}(3)+\binom{p}{2} t_{\leqq n}(3) ; \\
B_{1}^{n}=B_{4}^{n}=B_{5}^{n}=\ldots=P_{3}^{n}=P_{4}^{n}=\ldots=0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

Analogously one can obtain the numbers of bases and pivotal noncomplete sets which contain functions depending on exactly $n$ variables.

## 4. Classification of $L_{p}$-maximal sets

We may assume further that $p \geqq 3$ (prime number). The properties of $L_{2}-$ maximal sets follow immediately from Post's lattice ([10]).

Let us define some familiar closed sets in $L_{p}: L^{(0)}=\{0,1, \ldots, p-1\}, L_{s 0}=L^{p} L^{0}=$ $=\left\{a_{1} x_{1}+\ldots+a_{n} x_{n} \mid a=1, n=1,2, \ldots\right\}, L_{i}^{(1)}=L^{(1)} L^{i}=\left\{a_{0}+a_{1} x \mid a_{0}+a_{1} i=i, a_{0}, a_{1} \in E_{p}\right\}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq p-1, L_{p}^{(1)}=L^{(1)} L^{p}=\{x, x+1, \ldots, x+k-1\}$.

We shall mean by the multiplicative order of $a \in E_{p}^{\prime}$ the least integer $r(a)=$ $=r \geqq 1$ for which $a^{r}=1$ holds. If $p-1$ is divisible by $j$, then $E_{p}^{\prime}$ has $\varphi(j)$ elements of order $j\left(\varphi(j)\right.$ denotes Euler's $\varphi$-function). Let $a_{i 0}+a_{i} x \in L^{(1)} L^{(0)}, i \geqq 1$, $r\left(a_{i}\right)=r_{i}$. Let us denote by $\operatorname{lcm}\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots\right)$ the least common multiple of the numbers $r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots$.

Let the number $p-1$ have the decomposition to powers of primes $p-1=$ $=q_{1}^{a_{1}} q_{2}^{\alpha_{2}} \ldots q_{u}^{\alpha_{u}}$ with all $q_{1}=2<q_{2}<\ldots<q_{u}$ primes, $\alpha_{i} \geqq 1, p_{i}=(p-1) / q_{i}$ and $L^{(1, i)}=$ $=\left\{a_{0}+a x \mid r(a)(\geqq 1)\right.$ divides $\left.p_{i}\right\}, i=1,2, \ldots, u$.

The maximal sets for all $L_{p}$-maximal sets are determined by Demetrovics and Bagyinszki ([2]).

Theorem 7 ([2]). There are exactly two $L^{i}$-maximal sets for $0 \leqq i \leqq p$ ( $p$ is a prime number): $L_{s 0}$ and $L_{i}^{(1)}$.

Theorem 8. If $1 \leqq i \leqq p$ then there are exactly four different classes determined by functions in $L^{i}$, two different classes determined by bases of $L^{i}$ (one for both of ranks 1 and 2) and two different classes determined by pivotal noncomplete sets in $L^{i}$ (both of them are of rank 1).

Proof. The function $x$ belongs to the set $L_{s 0} L_{i}^{(1)}$ and the function $2 x+(p-1) y$ is in the set $L_{s 0} \bar{L}_{i}^{(1)}$. The function $x+1$ is an element of the set $\bar{L}_{s 0} L_{p}^{(1)}$ and the function $2 x-i$ is in the set $\bar{L}_{s 0} L_{i}^{(1)}$ for $1 \leqq i \leqq p-1$. Base functions $x+y+(p-i)$ and $2 x+(p-1) y+1([2])$ belong to the sets $\bar{L}_{s 0} \bar{L}_{i}^{(1)}$ for $0 \leqq i \leqq p-1$ and $\bar{L}_{\mathrm{s} 0} \bar{L}_{p}^{(1)}$ respectively. Thus all four possible classes determined by the functions in $L^{i}$ are nonempty. The other parts of the theorem follow immediately.

We are going to investigate classes determined by functions in $L^{(1)}$.
Theorem 9 ([2]). The following $u+p+1$ sets are $L^{(1)}$-maximal:

$$
\begin{gathered}
L^{(1, i)} \cup L^{(0)}, \quad i=1,2, \ldots, u \\
L_{i}^{(1)} \cup L^{(0)}, \quad i=0,1, \ldots, p-1, \\
L^{(1)} \backslash L^{(0)}
\end{gathered}
$$

The next three lemmas are useful for the classification of $L^{(1)}$.
Lemma 1. For the elements of $L^{(1)}$ we have:
(a) $a_{0}+x \in L_{i}^{(1)}$ iff $a_{0}=0$, for $i=0,1, \ldots, p-1$;
(b) If $a>1$ then for each $i(0 \leqq i \leqq p-1)$ there exists exactly one $a_{0}$ for which $a_{0}+a x \in L_{i}^{(1)}$;
(c) $a_{0} \in L_{i}^{(1)}$ iff $a_{0}=i$.

The proof is omitted.
Lemma 2. $L_{i}^{(1)} L_{j}^{(1)}=\{x\}$ for $0 \leqq i<j \leqq p-1$.
Proof. From $a_{0}+a_{1} i=i$ and $a_{0}+a_{1} j=j$ it follows that $a_{1}=1$ and $a_{0}=0$.
Lemma 3. Let $t_{i}$ be a sequence such that $t_{i}=q_{i}$ or $t_{i}=1$ for each $i=1,2, \ldots, u$, $t=(p-1) /\left(t_{1} \ldots t_{u}\right)$ and $a$ is a number for which $r(a)=t$. If we define the sets $A_{i}$ (1 $\leqq \leqq$ ) such that $A_{i}=\bar{L}^{(1, i)}$ for $t_{i}=1$ and $A_{i}=L^{(1, i)}$ for $t_{i}=q_{i}$ then the function $f=a_{0}+a x$ is in the set $A_{1} A_{2} \ldots A_{u}$.

Proof. If $t_{i}=1$ then $p_{i}$ is not divisible by $r(a)$. Hence $a_{0}+a x \in L^{(1, i)}=A_{i}$. If $t_{i}=q_{i}$ then $r(a)$ divides $p_{i}$. Thus $a_{0}+a x \in L^{(1, i)}=A_{i}$.

Theorem 10. The number of different classes determined by functions in $L^{(1)}$ is $p 2^{u}+3$ if $p-1 \neq q_{1} q_{2} \ldots q_{u}$ and $p\left(2^{u}-1\right)+3$ otherwise.

Proof. Suppose that the $L^{(1)}$-maximal sets are ordered as in Theorem 9. $0^{u+p_{1}}$ is the class determined by the functions in the set $L^{(1)}$. The $(u+p+1)$ component of all other classes is 0 . From Lemmas $1-3$ we infer that the class $0^{u+p+1}$ is determined only by the function $x$ and the class $0^{u} 1^{p} 0$ is determined by functions $a_{0}+x$ for $a_{0} \neq 0$. We may assume further that $f=a_{0}+a x$ and $a>1$. From Lemma 2 it follows that exactly one component among the components $u+1, u+2, \ldots, u+p$ is equal to 0 . We derive from Lemma 3 that all the $2^{u}$ possible classes with respect to the first $u L^{(1)}$-maximal sets are nonempty. But, if $p-1=q_{1} \ldots q_{u}$ for $t_{i}=q_{i}(1 \leqq i \leqq u)$ we get $t=a=1$ in Lemma 3. It follows from Lemma 1 (b) and Lemma 2 that each of these classes with respect to the first $u L^{(1)}$-maximal sets can be supplemented to a class determined by functions in $L^{(1)}$ in $p$ different ways.

The proof is complete.
Corollary 5. Each base of $L^{(1)}$ contains a constant.
Corollary 6. For $p=3$ there are exactly 6 classes determined by functions in $L^{(1)}: 0^{5}, 0^{4} 1,01^{3} 0,10110,11010,1^{3} 00$.

Theorem 11 ([2]). The cardinality of the bases of $L^{(1)}$ is $\geqq 3$.
Theorem 12. The maximal rank of classes determined by bases in $L^{(1)}$ is $u+2$.
Proof. Each base of $L^{(1)}$ contains a function of the class $0^{u+p} 1$. There is a subset of the base containing no more than $u$ functions for which bitwise OR gives the value $1^{u}$ with respect to the first $u$ components. From Lemmas 1 and 3 we obtain that no more than one component among components $u+1, \ldots, u+p$ has the value 0 . Hence, except the $u+1$ functions considered above, this base may contain at most one function. Thus, each base of $L^{(1)}$ consists of at most $u+2$ functions.

Theorem 13. If $p-1=q_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}$ (for example, if $p=3$ or $p=5$ ) then each base in $L^{(1)}$ contains exactly three functions.

Proof. In the case $p-1=q_{1}^{\alpha_{1}}$ we have $u=1$ and so this theorem is proved by using Theorems 11 and 12.

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UNIVERSITY OF NOVI SAD
21000 NOVI SAD, DR. ILIJE DJURIČIĆA 4
YUGOSLAVIA

