

## ENUMERATION OF TRUNCATED LATIN RECTANGLES

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### NOMENCLATURE

An  $r \times k$  *rectangle* is a rectangular array of *elements* (natural numbers) with  $r$  rows and  $k$  columns. A row with no repeated element is an  $\overline{R}$ -row. A column with no repeated element is a  $\overline{C}$ -column; otherwise, it is a  $\overline{C}$ -column. If all rows of a rectangle are  $\overline{R}$ -rows, it is an  $\overline{R}$ -rectangle. An  $\overline{R}$ -rectangle subject to no further restrictions will be called, for emphasis, *free*. One whose first row is prescribed (elements arranged in increasing numerical order) is a *normalized*  $\overline{R}$ -rectangle.

An  $\overline{R}$ -rectangle all of whose columns are  $\overline{C}$ -columns is an  $\overline{R}$ - $\overline{C}$ -rectangle; one whose columns are all  $\overline{C}$ -columns is an  $\overline{R}$ - $\overline{C}$ -rectangle. An  $r \times n$   $\overline{R}$ - $\overline{C}$ -rectangle each of whose rows consists of the same  $n$  elements is a *Latin rectangle* ( $\overline{L}$ -rectangle). ( $\overline{R}$ - $\overline{C}$ -rectangles whose rows do not all consist of the same elements are the "truncated"  $\overline{L}$ -rectangles of the title.)

### ENUMERATION OF CERTAIN $\overline{R}$ -RECTANGLES

The most obvious enumerational question about  $\overline{L}$ -rectangles is, probably: How many distinct normalized  $r \times n$   $\overline{L}$ -rectangles are there? Denoting this number as  $M_n^r$ , we have, as in [1],

$$(1) \quad M_n^r = \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \frac{\alpha_{r,n}^k}{k!} [(n-k)!]^{r-1},$$

where  $\alpha_{r,n}^k$  is the number of free  $r \times k$   $\overline{R}$ - $\overline{C}$ -rectangles that can be built up with  $\overline{C}$ -columns constructed from elements selected from  $r$  rows each of which consists of the elements 1, 2, ...,  $n$ .

The number of free  $r \times n$   $\overline{L}$ -rectangles is

$$(2) \quad N_n^r = \sum_{s=0}^n (-1)^s \binom{n}{s} [(n-s)!]^r \alpha_{r,n}^s,$$

since  $N_n^r = n! M_n^r$ .

Such formulas are effective numerically, of course, only if all the  $\alpha_{r,n}^k$  are known. This is the case for  $r \leq 4$ , viz. ( $\alpha_{r,n}^0 \equiv 1$ , by definition):

$$\alpha_{1,n}^k = 0 \text{ for all } k > 0 \text{ and all } n.$$

$$\alpha_{2,n}^k = n^{(k)}, \text{ where } n^{(k)} = n(n-1) \dots (n-k+1),$$

a notation used throughout this report.

$$\alpha_{3,n}^k = n(3n-2k)\alpha_{3,n-1}^{k-1} + 2(k-1)n(n-1)\alpha_{3,n-2}^{k-2},$$

a result easily obtained by eliminating the  $\beta_i$   
from the pair of formulas given in [1].

$$\alpha_{4,n}^k \text{ may be found by using the 13 recurrences given in [1].}$$

Except for  $k \leq 4$  (see below), the  $\alpha_{r,n}^k$  for  $r > 4$  are, in general, not known.

Consider now  $R$ - $C$ -rectangles that are not necessarily  $L$ -rectangles. Let

$r$  = number of rows,

$m$  = number of columns ( $m \leq n$ )

$n$  = number of elements available for each row  
(the same set of elements for each row).

$N_{m,n}^r$  = number of free  $R$ - $C$ -rectangles with the  
indicated specifications.

We have

$$(3) \quad N_{m,n}^r = \sum_{s=0}^m (-1)^s \binom{m}{s} [(n-s)^{(m-s)}]^r \alpha_{r,n}^s.$$

Formula (3) may be derived by using the same  $n^r$ -cube that was used ([1]) to get the formula for  $M_n^r$ . In this instance, we work with only the first  $m$  of the structures of highest dimensional level (thus with stripes, if  $r = 4$ ). Proceeding as in the earlier case, and making appropriate adjustments in the multipliers that arise (e.g., if  $r = 4$ , the number of  $k$ -tuples of bad cells in any  $m$  ( $\geq k$ ) stripes is now

$$\frac{m^{(k)}}{n^{(k)}} \alpha_{4,n}^k;$$

each  $k$ -tuple of bad cells combines with  $[(n-k)^{(m-k)}]^3$  cells—of any kind), we get a formula for  $M_{m,n}^r$  (the normalized counterpart of  $N_{m,n}^r$ ) and finally, since  $N_{m,n}^r = n^{(m)} M_{m,n}^r$ , formula (3).

The free  $R$ - $C$ -rectangles are more convenient in many respects than the normalized ones. It is immediate that there is a reciprocity between  $m$  and  $r$ :

$$(4) \quad N_{m,n}^r = N_{r,n}^m.$$

Formula (3) may be inverted, to give:

$$(5) \quad \alpha_{r,n}^m = \sum_{s=0}^m (-1)^s \binom{m}{s} [(n-s)^{(m-s)}]^r N_{s,n}^r.$$

Formulas (3) and (5) are identical, the self-inversive property being, of course, inherent in the definitions of  $\alpha_{r,n}^m$  and  $N_{m,n}^r$ . By utilizing (4) and (5), we can find  $\alpha_{r,n}^m$  for  $m \leq 4$ , for any values of  $r$  and  $n$ . Thus, the first few terms of (2) are known for  $r > 4$ .

A more general formula of the sort discussed above can be given, covering cases in which some columns are  $C$ -columns and some are  $\bar{C}$ -columns. Let

$N_{m,k;n}^r$  = number of free  $R$ -rectangles in which:

$r$  = total number of rows,

$k$  = total number of columns,

$m$  = number of  $C$ -columns (the other  $k - m$  being  $\bar{C}$ -columns),

$n$  = number of elements available for each row  
(the same set for each row).

Clearly,  $m \leq k \leq n$ .

Then

$$(6) \quad N_{m,k;n}^r = \binom{k}{m} \sum_{s=0}^m (-1)^s \binom{m}{s} [(n-k+m-s)^{(m-s)}]^r \alpha_{r,n}^{k-m+s}.$$

The derivation resembles that of (3), the diagram for the  $n^r$ -cube again being helpful.

A few special cases are:

$$\text{If } m = 0, \text{ we have } N_{0,k;n}^r = \alpha_{r,n}^k.$$

$$\text{If } m = k, \text{ we have } N_{m,m;n}^r = N_{m,n}^r.$$

If  $k = n$ , we have  $N_{m,n;n}^r$ , the number of free  $r \times n$   $R$ -rectangles each of whose rows consists of the elements  $1, 2, \dots, n$ , having  $m$   $C$ -columns and  $n - m$   $\bar{C}$ -columns.

Note that  $N_{m,k;n}^r$  is divisible by  $k!$  (giving the number of normalized  $R$ -rectangles with the specified properties). That result is further divisible by  $\binom{k}{m}$  (giving the number of normalized  $R$ -rectangles with the  $m$   $C$ -columns preceding the  $k - m$   $\bar{C}$ -columns). That result is still further divisible by  $\binom{n}{k}$  (giving the number of normalized  $R$ -rectangles whose  $C$ -columns start with  $1, 2, \dots, m$  in that order, and whose  $\bar{C}$ -columns start with  $m + 1, m + 2, \dots, k$  in that order). Thus,  $N_{m,k;n}^r$  is divisible by  $\binom{k}{m} n^{(k)}$ . For example, if  $r = 2, k = 5, m = 3, n = 6$ ,

$$N_{3,5;6}^2 = 79,200, \text{ the number of free } R\text{-rectangles;}$$

$$\frac{79,200}{5!} = 660, \text{ the number of normalized } R\text{-rectangles;}$$

$$\frac{660}{\binom{5}{3}} = 66, \text{ the number with } C\text{-columns preceding } \bar{C}\text{-columns;}$$

and finally,

$$\frac{66}{\binom{6}{5}} = 11, \text{ the number with 3 } C\text{-columns headed by 1, 2, 3} \\ \text{and 2 } \bar{C}\text{-columns headed by 4, 5 in that order,} \\ \text{as may be verified easily by direct count.}$$

#### REFERENCE

1. F. W. Light, Jr., "A Procedure for the Enumeration of  $4 \times n$  Latin Rectangles," *The Fibonacci Quarterly* 11, No. 3 (1973):241-246.

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