

# LATIN CUBES AND HYPERCUBES OF PRIME ORDER

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

In [3], the first author obtained an expression for the number of equivalence classes induced on the set of  $n \times n$  Latin squares under row and column permutations. The first purpose of this paper is to point out that the results of [3] do not hold for all  $n$ , but rather that they hold only if  $n$  is a prime.\* The second purpose of this paper is, in the case of prime  $n$ , to extend the results of [3] to three-dimensional and finally to  $n$ -dimensional Latin hypercubes. This is done in Sections 3 and 4.

## 2. LATIN SQUARES

A Latin square of order  $n$  is an  $n \times n$  array with the property that each row and each column contains a permutation of the integers  $1, 2, \dots, n$ . In [3], two Latin squares were said to be equivalent if one could be obtained from the other by a permutation of the rows and another possibly different permutation of the columns, while a Latin square was said to be stationary if it remained invariant under some nontrivial row and column permutations. Let  $G$  be the group of all permutations of rows and columns so that  $G$  is isomorphic to  $S_n \times S_n$  where  $S_n$  is the symmetric group on  $n$  letters. A Latin rectangle is an  $m \times n$  array ( $m \leq n$ ) in which each row contains a permutation of  $1, 2, \dots, n$  and no integer occurs more than once in any column. Denote the number of  $m \times n$  Latin rectangles by  $L(m, n)$ .

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\*We now correct two errors that occur in [3]. In the proof of Lemma 1.2 of [3] it is assumed that if  $d$  divides  $n$  then the expression  $L(kd+1, n)/L(kd, n)$  is always an integer for  $k = 0, 1, \dots, n/d - 1$ . That this is not always the case is easily seen in the case when  $n = 4$ . Let  $d = 2$  and  $k = 1$ , and consider  $L(3, 4)/L(2, 4)$ . It is easily checked (see, e.g., [2]) that  $L(3, 4) = 4!3!4$ , while  $L(2, 4) = 4!9$ , so that  $L(3, 4)/L(2, 4) = 8/3$ . Lemma 1.2 of [3] is corrected in our Lemma 1.2.

In Theorem 2 of [3], it is indicated that, if  $n$  is prime, then there are  $(n - 2)!$  classes of stationary Latin squares each of which contains  $(n - 1)! \times (n - 2)!$  elements. While the proof of the theorem is correct, the statement contains a typographical error and should read "For  $n$  prime, there are  $(n - 2)!$  equivalence classes of stationary Latin squares, each of which contains  $n! \times (n - 1)!$  elements."

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It is now easy to prove

### Lemma 1.2

Let  $\Pi = (\Pi_r, \Pi_c)$  be a permutation of  $G$  such that both  $\Pi_r$  and  $\Pi_c$  consist of either  $p$  1-cycles or 1  $p$ -cycle, where  $p$  is a prime. Then there are either  $L(p, p)$  or  $L(1, p)$  Latin squares invariant under  $\Pi$ .

Proof: Clearly, if  $\Pi_r$  and  $\Pi_c$  both consist of  $p$  1-cycles, then all Latin squares of order  $p$  are invariant while in the remaining case the first row can be chosen in  $p! = L(1, p)$  ways. Once the first row is completed, the remaining rows are uniquely determined by  $\Pi_c$ .

We now prove

### Theorem 1

If  $p$  is a prime, then permutations of rows and columns induce

$$\frac{L(p, p)}{(p!)^2} + \frac{(p-1)!}{p}$$

equivalence classes in the  $p^{\text{th}}$ -order Latin squares.

Proof: Burnside's lemma gives the number of classes as

$$(1/|G|) \sum_{\Pi \in G} \psi(\Pi)$$

where  $\psi(\Pi)$  is the number of squares invariant under  $\Pi$ , from which the theorem follows.

It may be noted that, if  $l_p$  denotes the number of reduced Latin squares of order  $p$ , then  $L(p, p) = p!(p-1)!l_p$  so that the number of equivalence classes thus reduces to  $(l_p + (p-1)!)/p$ . Moreover, the values of  $l_p$  are known if  $p \leq 9$  (see [1]).

### 3. LATIN CUBES

In this section we extend the results of [3] to Latin cubes of prime order. A Latin cube  $C$  of order  $p$  is a  $p \times p \times p$  array with the property that each of the  $p^3$  elements  $c_{ijk}$  is one of the numbers  $1, 2, \dots, p$  and  $\{c_{ijk}\}$  ranges over all of the numbers  $1, 2, \dots, p$  as one index varies from 1 to  $p$  while the other two indices remained fixed. Two Latin cubes of order  $p$  are equivalent if one can be obtained from the other by a permutation  $\Pi = (\Pi_r, \Pi_c, \Pi_\ell)$ , where  $\Pi_r$  is a permutation of the rows,  $\Pi_c$  is a permutation of the columns, and  $\Pi_\ell$  is a permutation of the levels of  $C$ . Let  $G$  denote the group of all permutations so that  $G$  is isomorphic to  $S_p^3$ . We first prove

### Lemma 3.1

Given three partitions of a prime  $p$ , each into at most  $p-1$  parts and not all into a single part, it is possible to select one part, say  $s_i$ , from each partition so that the least common multiple of two of the  $s_i$ 's is less than  $\text{lcm}(s_1, s_2, s_3)$ .

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Proof: Number the partitions so that the first has more than one part and select as  $s_1$  some part other than 1 from the first partition. Since  $p$  is prime, from the second partition we may select as  $s_2$  some part such that  $(s_2, s_1) = 1$ . Similarly, select  $s_3$  from the third partition so that  $(s_3, s_1) = 1$  and, hence,  $\text{lcm}(s_2, s_3) < \text{lcm}(s_1, s_2, s_3)$ .

Corresponding to Lemma 1 of [3], we have

Lemma 3.2

Let  $\Pi = (\Pi_p, \Pi_c, \Pi_\ell) \in G$ . A Latin cube of order  $p$  a prime is nontrivially invariant under  $\Pi$  only if each component of  $\Pi$  is either a  $p$ -cycle or the identity and at least two of the components are  $p$ -cycles.

Proof: The permutation  $\Pi$  induces three partitions of  $p$  and if  $s_i$  is a part from the  $i^{\text{th}}$  partition for  $i = 1, 2, 3$ , we may assume that

$$\text{lcm}(s_1, s_2) < \text{lcm}(s_1, s_2, s_3).$$

If  $\pi = (\Pi_1, \Pi_2, \Pi_3)$ , let  $(\ell_{i1}\ell_{i2}\dots\ell_{is_i})$  be the corresponding cycle of the permutation  $\Pi_i$ . Tracing the effect of the cycles beginning with position  $(\ell_{11}, \ell_{21}, \ell_{31})$  we get, after applying the permutation  $\Pi$   $d = \text{lcm}(s_1, s_2)$  times that

$$(\ell_{11}, \ell_{21}, \ell_{31}) \rightarrow (\ell_{12}, \ell_{22}, \ell_{32}) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow (\ell_{1d}, \ell_{2d}, \ell_{3d}),$$

where  $\ell_{3d} \neq \ell_{31}$  since  $\text{lcm}(s_1, s_2, s_3) > \text{lcm}(s_1, s_2)$ . For invariance, the elements in these positions must be equal, a contradiction of the Latin property. Hence all of the  $s_i$  must be 1 or  $p$ . If only one component contained a  $p$  cycle while the other two contained the identity, clearly the cube cannot be invariant without contradicting the Latin property.

Let  $L(p, p, p)$  denote the number of Latin cubes of order  $p$  a prime. Clearly, if  $\Pi$  is the identity, then  $L(p, p, p)$  cubes are invariant under  $\Pi$ , while there are  $3[(p-1)!]^2$  permutations  $\Pi = (\Pi_p, \Pi_c, \Pi_\ell)$  with the property that one of the components is the identity, while the other two consist of  $p$ -cycles. Moreover, each such permutation leaves  $L(1, p, p) = L(p, p)$  cubes invariant. In order to count the number of cubes invariant under  $\Pi$ , where  $\Pi_p, \Pi_c$ , and  $\Pi_\ell$  all consist of  $p$ -cycles, we need the following definitions and lemmas.

Definition 3.1

A *transversal* of a Latin square of order  $p$  is a set of  $p$  cells, one in each row and one in each column such that no two of the cells contain the same symbol.

Definition 3.2

A Latin square of order  $p$  is in *diagonal transversal* form if it consists of  $p$  disjoint transversals, one of which is the main diagonal and the remaining transversals are parallel to it, i.e., with addition mod  $p$ , cells  $(i, j)$  and  $(i + 1, j + 1)$  are always in the same transversal.

Let  $d_p$  denote the number of Latin squares of order  $p$  in diagonal transversal form. We can now prove



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we obtain a square with  $p$  disjoint transversals as in (3.1). If we use this square as level one of a cube and allow  $\Pi = (\Pi_r, \Pi_c, \Pi_\ell)$  to fix the remaining levels we will have constructed a cube invariant under  $\Pi$  so that  $d_p$  is no larger than the number of cubes invariant under  $\Pi$ .

It may be of interest to note that for  $p = 2, 3$ , and  $5$ ,  $d_p = (p - 2)p!$ . For  $p$  prime, one can construct a square in diagonal transversal form by choosing the first row in one of  $p!$  ways and then rotating the row one position to the left  $p - 1$  times to obtain the remaining rows. By making the  $p - 1$  rotations each two positions to the left, one obtains a second diagonal transversal square with a given first row. Similarly, for left rotations of any fixed size up to and including  $p - 2$  positions, a new diagonal transversal square is obtained so that  $d_p \geq (p - 2)p!$ . If  $p = 7$ , the following square

```

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2 3 7 5 6 1 4
7 5 4 6 1 2 3
4 1 6 2 3 7 5
3 6 5 1 7 4 2
6 7 2 3 4 5 1
5 4 1 7 2 3 6

```

is not obtained by a rotation of the first row so that  $d_7 > 5 \cdot 7!$ . Moreover, in general, if  $p \geq 7$ , we have  $d_p > (p - 2)p!$ . It would be of interest to have an exact formula for  $d_p$  for all  $p$ .

We now apply Burnside's lemma to prove

### Theorem 3.1

Permutations of rows, columns, and levels induce

$$N_p = \frac{1}{(p!)^3} [L(p, p, p) + 3((p - 1)!)^2 L(p, p) + ((p - 1)!)^3 d_p]$$

equivalence classes in the set of Latin cubes of order  $p$  a prime.

If  $c_p$  is the number of reduced Latin cubes of order  $p$ , then

$$L(p, p, p) = p!(p - 1)!(p - 1)!c_p,$$

so that  $N_p$  may be written in the form

$$N_p = \frac{1}{p^3} [pc_p + 3p!d_p + d_p].$$

In [4] it was shown that  $c_2 = c_3 = 1$  and  $c_5 = 40,246$ . Therefore, it is easily checked that  $N_2 = N_3 = 1$ , while  $N_5 = 1774$ .

## 4. HYPERCUBES

In this section we extend our results concerning squares and cubes of prime order to  $n$ -dimensional hypercubes of prime order. A Latin hypercube  $A$  of dimension  $n$  and order  $p$  is a  $p \times p \times \cdots \times p$  array with the property that each of the  $p^n$  elements  $a_{i_1 \dots i_n}$  is one of the numbers  $1, 2, \dots, p$  and  $\{a_{i_1 \dots i_n}\}$  ranges over all of the numbers  $1, 2, \dots, p$  as one index varies from  $1$  to  $p$ , while the remaining indices are fixed. Let  $L(n; p)$  be the number of  $n$ -dimensional Latin hypercubes of order  $p$ . We may generalize the proof of Lemma 3.1 to obtain

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### Lemma 4.1

Given  $n$  partitions of a prime  $p$ , each into at most  $p - 1$  parts and not all into a single part, it is possible to select one part  $s_i$  from each partition so that the least common multiple of  $n - 1$  of the  $s_i$ 's is less than  $\text{lcm}(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n)$ .

Let  $G$  be the group that permutes  $n$ -dimensional hypercubes by permuting each component so that  $G$  is isomorphic to  $S_p^n$ . Along the same lines as Lemma 3.2, we may prove

### Lemma 4.2

Let  $\Pi = (\Pi_1, \dots, \Pi_n) \in G$ . A Latin hypercube of order  $p$  a prime is non-trivially invariant under  $\Pi$  only if each  $\Pi_i$  is a  $p$ -cycle or the identity and at least two of the  $\Pi_i$  are  $p$ -cycles.

### Definition 4.1

A *hypertransversal* of an  $n$ -dimensional Latin hypercube of order  $p$  is a collection of  $p$  cells  $(i_1^k, \dots, i_n^k)$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, p$ , such that the corresponding  $p$  elements are distinct and among the  $p$   $n$ -tuples, the set of  $p$  elements in each of the  $n$  coordinates is a permutation of  $1, 2, \dots, p$ .

By extending the argument used in the proof of Lemma 3.3 to  $n$  dimensions, we may prove

### Lemma 4.3

An  $n$ -dimensional Latin hypercube of order  $p$  a prime is invariant under a permutation  $\Pi = (\Pi_1, \dots, \Pi_n)$ , where  $\Pi_1, \dots, \Pi_n$  are all  $p$ -cycles only if the hypercube possesses a subhypercube of dimension  $n - 1$  that is composed of  $p^{n-2}$  disjoint hypertransversals.

### Definition 4.2

An  $n$ -dimensional Latin hypercube of order  $p$  is in *parallel hypertransversal* form if it consists of  $p^{n-1}$  disjoint hypertransversals

$(1, i_2, \dots, i_n), (2, i_2 + 1, \dots, i_n + 1), \dots, (p, i_2 + p - 1, \dots, i_n + p - 1)$ ,  
where  $(i_2, \dots, i_n)$  ranges over all  $p^{n-1}$   $(n - 1)$ -tuples and the additions are mod  $p$ .

Let  $d(n; p)$  denote the number of  $n$ -dimensional Latin hypercubes in parallel hypertransversal form. Analogous to Lemma 3.4, we can prove

### Lemma 4.4

For  $p$  a prime there are  $d(n - 1; p)$  Latin  $n$ -dimensional hypercubes of order  $p$  invariant under a permutation  $\Pi = (\Pi_1, \dots, \Pi_n)$ , where each  $\Pi_i$  is a  $p$ -cycle.

### Theorem 4.1

Permutations of each coordinate induce

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$$N_p = \frac{1}{(p!)^n} \left[ L(n; p) + \sum_{k=2}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k} ((p-1)!)^k L(k; p) + ((p-1)!)^n d(n-1; p) \right]$$

equivalence classes in the set of  $n$ -dimensional Latin hypercubes of order  $p$  a prime.

Proof: Clearly,  $L(n; p)$  hypercubes are invariant under the identity and there are

$$\binom{n}{k} ((p-1)!)^k$$

permutations  $\Pi = (\Pi_1, \dots, \Pi_n)$ , where  $n-k$  of the  $\Pi_i$  are the identity. Moreover, each of these fixes  $L(k; p)$   $k$ -dimensional hypercubes of order  $p$ . Applying Lemma 4.4 and Burnside's lemma yields the result.

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