# GROUPS OF ORTHGONAL ROW-LATIN SQUARES 

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1. Introduction. An $n$ by $n$ square array of $n^{2}$ elements, consisting of $n$ distinct elements each repeated $n$ times, will be called a pseudo-latin square. If each row contains each distinct element once, the square will be called rowlatin. Correspondingly a column-latin square will be one where each column contains each distinct element once. A square which is both column-latin and rowlatin is a latin square. From two pseudo-latin squares $A$ and $B$, a composite square may be constructed by superimposing the square $B$ on the square $A$. If the composite square contains each of the $n^{2}$ possible distinct pairs, the square $A$ is orthogonal to the square $B$, and the resulting square is called greco-latin.

In this paper a product operation for row-latin squares is defined analogous to that of Mann [1, p.418] for latin squares. It is shown that under this operation the set of row-latin squares forms a group. It is further shown that the existence of sets of mutually orthogonal latin squares depends on the parallel problem for row-latin squares so that existence problems of latin squares may be studied in the light of row-latin squares.

In $\S \S 3$ and 4 some of the sets of orthogonal row-latin squares which arise from this product operation are studied.
2. Row-latin squares. To each theorem concerning row-latin squares, there is an immediate dual theorem concerning column-latin squares; this will not be given, but the reader can easily supply it.

Let the distinct elements of an $n$ by $n$ row-latin square be designated by the natural numbers $1,2, \cdots, n$. Then the $i$ th row of the square determines a permutation $\Re_{i}$ of these numbers from their natural ordering. The square is completely determined by giving the permutations $\left(\Re_{1}, \ldots, \Re_{n}\right)$ defined by the rows 1 , $2, \cdots, n$ respectively. The product of two row-latin squares $A$ and $B$, which describe permutations $\left(\Re_{1}, \ldots, \Re_{n}\right)$ and $\left(\Omega_{1}, \ldots, \Re_{n}\right)$, may be defined as the square $C=A B=\left(\Re_{1} \Omega_{1}, \ldots, \Re_{n} \mathfrak{N}_{n}\right)$ whose $i$ th row is given by the product permutation $\Re_{i} \Im_{i}$. The product of two permutations of $n$ elements is a permutation of the same elements, so the product of two row-latin squares is a row-

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latin square.
Theorem 1. The set of all row-latin squares is a group of order $(n!)^{n}$.
Proof. Let $\Im$ be the identity permutation,

$$
\Im=\left(\begin{array}{lllll}
1 & 2 & \cdots & \cdots \\
1 & 2 & \cdots & & n
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Then the square

$$
I=(\Im, \Im, \cdots, \Im)=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\
1 & 2 & \cdots & n \\
\vdots & & & \vdots \\
1 & 2 & \cdots & \vdots
\end{array}\right)
$$

is the unit element of the group. If $\Re^{-1}$ is the inverse permutation of $\mathfrak{P}$, then the square

$$
A^{-1}=\left(\Re_{1}^{-1}, \cdots, \Re_{n}^{-1}\right)
$$

is the inverse square of $A$ in the group. The group is not in general commutative since the permutation group is not commutative. Each row of a row-latin square may be constructed in $n$ ! ways; and since the $n$ rows are independent of each other, the order of the group is $(n!)^{n}$.

Corollary la. The group of all row-latin squares is isomorphic to the direct product group of $n$ permutation groups, each on $n$ elements.

To prove the corollary it is sufficient to note that every row-latin square $A=\left(\Re_{1}, \cdots, \Re_{n}\right)$ can be written as the product of squares $A_{1} \cdot A_{2} \cdots A_{n}$, where $A_{i}=\left(\Im, \Im, \cdots, \Im, \Re_{i}, \Im, \cdots, \mathfrak{\Im}\right)$ with the permutation $\Re_{i}$ in the $i$ th position. Moreover, the set of all squares ( $\Im, \ldots, \Im, \mathfrak{F}, \Im, \ldots, \Im)$, where $\Re$ is any permutation, but always in the $i$ th position, is a normal subgroup of the set of all row-latin squares.

The following lemma is useful and obvious:
Lemma 1. A row-latin square is orthogonal to the square I if and only if it is a latin square.

It will also be helpful to have the lemma:
Lemma 2. If $A, B, \cdots, L$ are a set of mutually orthogonal row-latin squares and $X$ is any row-latin square, then $X A, X B, \cdots, X L$ are a set of mutually orthogonal row-latin squares.

To prove Lemma 2 it is sufficient to show that if $A$ and $B$ are orthogonal then $X A$ and $X B$ are orthogonal. By Theorem 1 they are row-latin. If they are not orthogonal, the greco-latin square obtained by composing them contains some repeated number pair $(u, v)$. Suppose a repeated pair occurs in row $m$, column $p$, and in row $n$, column $q$. Let the element of $X$ in row $m$, column $p$ be $x(m, p)$, and similarly label the elements of $A$ and $B$. Then

$$
u=a[m, x(m, p)]=a[n, x(n, q)]
$$

while

$$
v=b[m, x(m, p)]=b[n, x(n, q)] .
$$

So the greco-latin square composed from $A$ and $B$ contains the pair ( $u, v$ ) in row $m$, column $x(m, p)$, and in row $n$, column $x(n, p)$. Since $A$ is assumed orthogonal to $B$ this is a contradiction.

Theorem 2. Two row-latin squares $A$ and $B$ are orthogonal if and only if there is a latin square $L$ such that $A L=B$.

If $L$ is any latin square, then, since $L$ is orthogonal to $l, A L$ is orthogonal to $A I$ by Lemma 2 ; hence, $A$ is orthogonal to $B$. Conversely, if $A$ is orthogonal to $B$, then by Theorem 1 there is a row-latin square $L$ such that $A L=B$. We have $B^{-1} A=L, B^{-1} B=l$; so, by Lemma 2, $L$ is orthogonal to $l$. From Lemma $1, L$ is latin.

If $S$ is a member of a set of $m$ mutually orthogonal row-latin squares, multiply each square of the set on the left by $S^{-1}$. The result, by Theorem 1 and Lemma 2 , is still a set of $m$ mutually orthogonal row-latin squares. Since it contains $S^{-1} S=I$, all other squares of the set are orthogonal to $I$ and are latin by Lemma 1. A complete set of mutually orthogonal latin squares may always be extended as a set of orthogonal row-latin squares by adjoining the unit square $l$. Therefore we have:

Theorem 3. A row-latin square $S$ is a member of a set of mutually orthogonal row-latin squares if and only if there exists a set of $m-1$ mutually orthogonal latin-squares.

A set of $n$ mutually orthogonal row-latin squares of order $n$ will be called a complete set. This is the maximum number of row-latin squares of order $n$ which can belong to a mutually orthogonal set. A set of $n-1$ mutually orthogonal latin squares is customarily called a complete set of latin squares. The following corollary is immediate from Theorem 3:

Corollary 3a. There exists a complete set of mutually orthogonal latin squares if and only if each row-latin square is a member of a complete set of mutually orthogonal row-latin squares. If such a set exists for one row-latin square, it exists for every row-latin square of the same order.
3. Powers of $A$. In a row latin square $A=\left(\Re_{1}, \cdots, \Re_{n}\right)$ each permutation $\Re_{i}$ has an exponent $p(i)$, the least positive integer such that $\Re_{i} p^{(i)}=l$. Let $p=$ l.c.m. $[p(1), \ldots, p(n)]$. Then $A^{p}=I$, but $A^{q} \neq I$ for $0<q<p$.

The squares $I, A, \cdots, A^{p^{-1}}$ form a series of row-latin squares. If $A$ is latin then each is orthogonal to its predecessor in the series. Let $m$ be the smallest exponent such that $A^{m}$ is not latin. Then any $m$ successive powers of $A$ form a mutually orthogonal set of row-latin squares. For suppose that the squares are $A^{i}, \cdots, A^{i+m-1}$. If $i \leq j \leq k \leq i+m-1$, then $A^{k}=A^{j} A^{k-j}$. Since $k-j<m$, $A^{k-j}$ is latin; and $A^{k}$ is orthogonal to $A^{j}$ by Theorem 2. Therefore we have:

Theorem 4. If $A$ is a latin square and $m$ is the smallest exponent such that $A^{m}$ is not latin, then any $m$ successive powers of $A$ form a set of mutually orthogonal row-latin squares.

The theorem of H. B. Mann [3, p. 418] follows as a corollary:
Corollary 4a. The squares $A, \cdots, A^{m-1}$ are a set of mutually orthogonal latin squares if and only if they are all latin squares.

We need the following:
Theorem 5. If $A$ is a latin square, then so is $A^{-1}$.
By Theorem $1, A^{-1}$ is row-latin. Since $A$ is orthogonal to $I, A^{-1} A=I$ is orthogonal to $A^{-1} \cdot I=A^{-1}$ by Lemma 2. Then by Lemma $1, A^{-1}$ is latin.

Combining Theorems 4 and 5 we have:
Corollary 5a. If $A, \ldots, A^{m-1}$ are latin squares, then any m-l successive squares of $A^{-m+1} A^{-m+2}, \cdots, A^{-1}, A, A^{2}, \cdots, A^{m-1}$ form a nutually orthogonal set of latin squares.

Suppose $A^{p}=I$. Then $A^{-j}=A^{p-j}$, so we have the following:
Corollary 5b. If $A^{p}=1$, and $A, \cdots, A^{m-1}$ are latin squares for some $m-1 \geq p / 2$ then $A, \cdots, A^{p}$ are a set of mutually orthogonal latin squares.

Examples may be constructed to show that it is not true conversely that if $A, \cdots, A^{n}$ are latin squares, and $A^{r}$, for some $r>n$, is a latin square, then $A^{r}$ belongs to a series of $n$ successive powers of $A$ which form a mutually or-
thogonal set.
4. Squares as multiplication tables. A pseudo-latin square may be considered as the multiplication table of a groupoid. Two groupoids $G(\cdot)$ and $H(\circ)$ are isotopic if there exist mappings $\mathfrak{l}, \mathfrak{B}$, and $\mathfrak{刃}$ of $G$ into $H$ such that

$$
(x \cdot y) \mathfrak{W}=(x \mathfrak{Z}) \circ(y \mathfrak{B})
$$

for all $x$ and $y$ of $G$ (for this and other concepts for finite multiplicative systems see for instance Bruck [ $1, \mathrm{pp} .245-255]$ ). If the groupoids are defined on the same set $G$, then the mappings $\mathfrak{U}, \mathfrak{B}$, and $\mathfrak{ß}$ induce a permutation of the rows, columns, and elements respectively of the multiplication table of $G(\cdot)$, transforming it into the multiplication table of $G(\circ)$. It is natural therefore to call two pseudo-latin squares isotopic if one may be transformed into the other by a permutation of rows, columns, and elements. The row-latin, column-latin, or latin squares are then multiplication tables of groupoids in which every element is left nonsingular, right nonsingular, or nonsingular, respectively.

Every latin square is isotopic to a standard latin square in which the first row and first column are the elements in their natural order. A latin square is a basis square [ 3 p . 249] if there is a latin square orthogonal to it. If $A$ is a basis latin square, there are latin squares $X$ and $B$ such that $A X=B$. From this we have $X=A^{-1} B$, and $A^{-1}$ is also a basis square. If $A=A^{-1}$ then $A^{2}=l$. All other basis latin squares occur in pairs $A$ and $A^{-1}$, so there are an even number of basis latin squares with exponent greater than 2.

Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ row-latin square of exponent 2 . If $a, b, c, \cdots$ are the elements of the groupoid defined by $A$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
b L_{a}^{2}=b \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $p\langle m\rangle$ be the number of ways of selecting the order of $m$ elements of row $a$ of $A$ to satisfy (1). Equivalent to (1) is the statement that $a b=c$ implies $a c=b$. If $c=b$, the element of the $b$ th column alone is determined. If $c \neq b$ the elements of both columns $b$ and $c$ are determined, so only $n-2$ remain to be fixed. Hence

$$
p\langle n\rangle=1 \cdot p\langle n-1\rangle+(n-1) \cdot p\langle n-2\rangle .
$$

Since each row is independent of the other rows, we have:
THEOREM 6. The number of $n \times n$ row-latin squares with exponent 2 is [ $p\langle n\rangle]^{n}$, where $p\langle n\rangle$ is given inductively by

$$
p\langle n\rangle=p\langle n-1\rangle+(n-1) p\langle n-2\rangle
$$

and

$$
p\langle 1\rangle=1, p\langle 2\rangle=2 .
$$

If the square is further restricted to be standard, the first row is predetermined as well as the first element of each row. But if this first element is $b$, then in the statement equivalent to (l) above we have $c \neq b$ so that two elements of each row are predetermined and we have:

Corollary 6a. The number of $n \times n$ standard row-latin squares with exponent 2 is $[p\langle n-2\rangle]^{n-1}$.

We might further note that $p\langle 2\rangle=2, p\langle 3\rangle=4$, so that the number of $n \times n$ row-latin squares with exponent 2 is even for $n>1$.

Suppose $A$ is a standard latin square with exponent 2. It is the multiplication table for a loop, and the element in row $i$, column $j$ is the product element $i j$ in the loop. The permutation $\Re_{i}$ carries the element $j$ into the element $i j$. Repeating $\mathfrak{S}_{i}$ further carries $i j$ into $i(i j)=j L_{i}^{2}$; so the element of the $i$ th row, $j$ th column of $A^{2}$ is $j L_{i}^{2}$. Since $A^{2}=I$, then $j L_{i}^{2}=j$ for all $i, j$. In particular if $j=i$ then $j\left(j^{2}\right)=j$, so $j^{2}=1$ for all $j$. Every element of the loop has exponent 2 , and the loop has the left inverse property. Conversely if the loop has the left inverse property and every element has exponent 2 , then $i(i j)=i^{-1}(i j)=1 \cdot j=j$. Therefore $A^{2}=I$. We have proved the following:

Theorem 7. If $A$ is a standard latin square, then $A^{2}=I$ if and only if the loop defined by $A$ has exponent 2 and has the left inverse property.

If $A$ is an $n \times n$ latin square with exponent $p$, let $\{A\}$ be the cyclic group of elements $l, A, \cdots, A^{p-1}$. If $\{A\}$ is a set of mutually orthogonal row-latin squares then $p \leq n$.

As before, if $A$ is considered as the multiplication table of a loop, the element in the $i$ th row, $j$ th column of $A^{r}$ is $j L_{i}^{r}$. Then $j L_{i}^{p}=j$. If $\{A\}$ is a set of mutually orthogonal row-latin squares, then $A, \cdots, A^{p-1}$ are latin squares; so for any $r<p$ and for any $j$, we have $j L_{i}^{r}=j L_{k}^{r}$ if and only if $i=k$. This proves:

Theorem 8. If $A$ is a row-latin square with exponent $p$, then $\{A\}$ is a group of mutually orthogonal row-latin squares if and only if for any $j$, we have $j L_{i}^{p}=$ $j$, but for any $r<p$ the equality $j L_{i}^{r}=j L_{k}^{r}$ implies $i=k$.

If a finite loop of order $n$ has a subloop of order $m<n$, then it contains an element $i$ with left exponent $p, 1 \cdot L_{i}^{p}=1, p \leq m$. If $A$ is the multiplication table of the loop then $A^{p}$ is not a latin square. So we have:

Corollary 8a. If $A$ is a latin square, then a necessary condition that $A^{P}$ be a latin square is that the quasigroup $L$, defined by $A$, be not isotopic to a
loop with a subloop of order less than or equal to p.

## References

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