# ON NONISOMORPHIC ROOM SQUARES 

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> AbSTRACT. Let $\operatorname{NR}(s)$ denote the number of nonisomorphic Room squares of side $s$. We prove that for $s$ sufficiently large, $\operatorname{NR}(s) \geqslant \exp \left(c s^{2}\right)$ for some absolute constant c. More precisely, $\mathrm{NR}(s) \geqslant .19 \exp \left(.04 s^{2}\right)$ for $s \geqslant 153$ odd; and $\operatorname{NR}(s) \geqslant$ $.19 \exp \left(.09 s^{2}\right)$ for $s \geqslant 1001$ odd.

1. Introduction. Let $s$ be a positive odd integer, and let $S$ be a set of size $s+1$. A Room square of side $s$ is an $s$ by $s$ array, $R$, which satisfies the following properties:
(0) each cell of $R$ either is empty or contains an unordered pair of elements (symbols) of $S$,
(1) every symbol occurs in precisely one cell of each row and column of $R$,
(2) every unordered pair of symbols occurs in precisely one cell of $R$.

Room squares have appeared in the literature as early as 1850 (see Kirkman [5]). They have been studied extensively since the 1960s, and the existence question was solved in 1974 by Mullin and Wallis [8]. We state their result as

Theorem 1.1. There exists a Room square of side sif and only if $s$ is an odd positive integer other than 3 or 5 .

For $i=1,2$, let $R_{i}$, be a Room square of side $s$ based on the symbol set $S_{i}$, and let $\phi: S_{1} \rightarrow S_{2}$ be a bijection. $R_{1}^{\phi}$ is defined to be the Room square based on symbol set $S_{2}$, in which $x$ is replaced by $\phi(x)$ for all $x \in S_{1}$. We say that $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$ are isomorphic Room squares if there exists some $\phi$ such that $R_{2}$ can be obtained from $R_{i}^{\phi}$ by permutations of rows and columns. It is clear that isomorphism is an equivalence relation. It is thus natural to ask how many nonisomorphic Room squares exist for each side $s$. We will denote this quantity by $\mathrm{NR}(s)$. We are able to show that $\operatorname{NR}(s) \geqslant \exp \left(c s^{2}\right)$ for some absolute constant $c$, so that clearly $\operatorname{NR}(s)$ grows extremely rapidly.

The transpose of a Room square $R$ is the Room square $R^{T}$ obtained by interchanging the roles of the rows and columns of $R$. Two Room squares $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$ are equivalent if $R_{1}$ is isomorphic to either of $R_{2}$ or $R_{2}^{T}$ (this also clearly yields an equivalence relation). The number of inequivalent Room squares will be denoted by $\operatorname{IR}(s)$. The following lemma is immediate.

Lemma 1.2. $\operatorname{IR}(s) \geqslant \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{NR}(s)$

[^0]We note that strict inequality will hold if there exists a Room square of side $s$ which is isomorphic to its transpose. However, our lower bounds for $\operatorname{NR}(s)$ provide bounds for $\operatorname{IR}(s)$ as well.

The question of determining the number of nonisomorphic designs of a given type has been studied for several types of designs: Steiner triple systems (see [15]), Steiner quadruple systems [4], and one-factorizations of complete graphs [1 and 7]. In [6], Lindner establishes that $\operatorname{IR}(s)$ is very large for certain $s$, but our paper provides the first proof that $\operatorname{NR}(s)>1$ for all but a finite number of sides $s$.

The number of inequivalent and nonisomorphic Room squares of side 7 was determined exactly in [ 3 and 14].
2. A recursive construction. We obtain our lower bounds on $\mathrm{NR}(s)$ by using a recursive construction for Room squares based on group divisible designs. A group divisible design (GDD) is a triple ( $X, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{Q}$ ) which satisfies:
(0) $X$ is a finite set (elements of which are called points), and $\mathcal{G}$ and $\mathscr{Q}$ are sets of nonempty subsets of $X$ (elements of $\mathcal{Q}$ are called groups and elements of $\mathcal{Q}$ are called blocks),
(1) $\mathcal{G}$ is a partition of $X$,
(2) every block has size at least two, and the groups and blocks together contain every unordered pair of points exactly once.

A transversal design (or $\operatorname{TD}(k, n)$ ) is a GDD with $|X|=k n$, having $k$ groups of size $n$, and $n^{2}$ blocks of size $k$. It is well known that a $\operatorname{TD}(k, n)$ is equivalent to a set of $k-2$ mutually orthogonal Latin squares of order $n$.

Our recursive construction starts with a suitable transversal design, replaces each block by an array called a frame, and then replaces each group by a Room square. Let $X$ be a set, and let $\left\{S_{1}, S_{2}, \ldots, S_{r}\right\}$ be a partition of $X$. An $\left\{S_{1}, S_{2}, \ldots, S_{r}\right\}$-frame is a square array $F$ of size $|X|$, with rows and columns indexed by $X$, which satisfies:
(0) every cell of $F$ either is empty or contains an unordered pair of symbols of $X$,
(1) for every $i, 1 \leqslant i \leqslant r$, the cells of $F\left(s, s^{\prime}\right)$, with $\left\{s, s^{\prime}\right\} \subseteq S_{i}$, are empty (these empty cells are called holes),
(2) each symbol of $X \backslash S_{i}$ occurs in precisely one cell of each row and each column $s \in S_{i}$ of $F$,
(3) the pairs occurring in $F$ are precisely those $\left\{s, s^{\prime}\right\}$ with $\left(s, s^{\prime}\right) \in X^{2} \backslash \cup_{i=1}^{r} S_{i}^{2}$.

Suppose $R$ is a Room square of side $s$ on symbol set $S \cup\{\infty\}(|S|=s)$. Index the rows and columns of $R$ so that $\{\infty, S\}$ occurs in cell $(s, s)$ for each $s \in S$. If the contents of these cells are deleted, an $\{\{s\}: s \in S\}$-frame is formed. Conversely, given such a frame, one can "complete" it to a Room square by filling in the holes (i.e. cells $(s, s)$ ), appropriately.

The type of an $\left\{S_{1}, \ldots, S_{r}\right\}$-frame is the multiset $\left\{\left|S_{i}\right|: 1 \leqslant i \leqslant r\right\}$. We will use the notation $1^{t^{t}} 2^{t_{2}} \cdots$ to describe the type of frame where there are precisely $t_{i} S_{j}$ 's of size $i(i \geqslant 1)$. Thus the above discussion demonstrates that a Room square of side $s$ is equivalent to a frame of type $l^{s}$.

The following two frames are essential ingredients in our recursive construction.

Lemma 2.1. There exist frames of type $1^{9}$ and $1^{8} 3^{1}$.

Proof. A frame of type $1^{9}$ is equivalent to a Room square of side 9 , which exists by Theorem 1.1. The frame of type $1^{9}$ in Figure 1 was given by Beaman and Wallis in [2]. The frame of type $1^{8} 3^{1}$ was found by the first author and is presented in Figure 2. Both frames were found by the use of the computer.

Figure 1. A frame of type $1^{9}$

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 |  |  | 4,9 | 3,7 | 2, 8 |  | 5,6 |  |  |
| 2 | 8,9 |  |  |  |  | 5,7 | 3,4 |  | 1,6 |
| 3 |  | 5,8 |  |  | 6,9 | 2,4 |  | 1,7 |  |
| 4 |  | 3,6 | 7,8 |  |  | 1,9 |  | 2,5 |  |
| 5 |  | 7,9 |  | 1,2 |  | 3,8 |  | 4,6 |  |
| 6 | 4,5 |  |  |  |  |  | 1,8 | 3,9 | 2,7 |
| 7 |  |  | 2.6 | 5.9 | 1,3 |  |  |  | 4,8 |
| 8 | 6,7 | 1,4 |  |  |  |  | 2,9 |  | 3,5 |
| 9 | 2,3 |  | 1.5 | 6.8 | 4,7 |  |  |  |  |

Figure 2. A frame of type $1^{8} 3^{1}$

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 |  |  |  | 5,9 |  |  | 4, 8 | 7,11 |  |  | 6,10 |
| 2 |  |  |  | 7,10 |  |  | 6,11 | 4,9 |  |  | 5,8 |
| 3 |  |  |  |  | 4,10 | 5,11 |  |  | 6,8 | 7,9 |  |
| 4 | 7,8 | 9,11 |  |  |  |  | 1,5 | 2,6 | 3,10 |  |  |
| 5 | 6,9 | 8,10 |  |  |  | 1,4 |  |  |  | 3,11 | 2,7 |
| 6 | 10, 11 |  | 8,9 |  | 1,7 |  |  | 3,5 |  | 2,4 |  |
| 7 |  |  |  | 1,6 | 8,11 | 9, 10 |  |  | 2,5 |  | 3,4 |
| 8 |  | 5,7 | 4,11 |  | 3,6 |  | 2, 10 |  |  |  | 1,9 |
| 9 |  | 4,6 | 5,10 | 2,11 |  | 3,7 |  |  |  | 1,8 |  |
| 10 | 4,5 |  | 6,7 |  |  | 2,8 | 3,9 |  | 1.11 |  |  |
| 11 |  |  |  | 3,8 | 2, 9 |  |  | 1,10 | 4,7 | 5,6 |  |

Let $(X, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{Q})$ be a $\operatorname{TD}(9, n)$, where $\mathcal{G}=\left\{G_{i}: 1 \leqslant i \leqslant 9\right\}$, and let $W \subseteq G_{9}$. Denote $t=|W|$. Define a function $S$, with domain $X$, by

$$
S(x)= \begin{cases}x & \text { if } x \in X \backslash W, \\ \left\{x_{i}: 1 \leqslant i \leqslant 3\right\} & \text { if } x \in W .\end{cases}
$$

For every $A \in \mathcal{Q}$, let $F_{A}$ be any $\{S(x): x \in A\}$-frame. (Such a frame is of type $1^{9}$ or $1^{8} 3^{1}$.) Then $F=\cup_{A \in G} F_{A}$ is a $\left\{\cup_{x \in G_{1}} S(x): 1 \leqslant i \leqslant 9\right\}$-frame of type $n^{8}(n+2 t)^{1}$ by [11, Construction 2.2]. Now, we complete $F$ to a Room square of side $9 n+2 t$. Let $\infty \notin \cup_{x \in X} S(x)$, and place a Room square, on symbol set $\{\infty\} \cup\left(\cup_{x \in G_{i}} S(x)\right)$ in the hole of $F$ induced by $\cup_{x \in G} S(x)$, for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 9$. The resultant array is a Room square by [12, Theorem 3.1]. We summarize this as

Lemma 2.2. Suppose there is a $\mathrm{TD}(9, n)$, with $n$ odd, and $0 \leqslant t \leqslant n$. If there exist Room squares of sides $n$ and $n+2 t$, then there exists a Room square of side $9 n+2 t$.

Our basic method is as follows. We construct a large number of distinct Room squares on a specified symbol set. We can obtain a naive upper bound on the number of Room squares isomorphic to a given Room square. The quotient of these two quantities provides a lower bound on the number of nonisomorphic Room squares. This is done in the next section.

3: A bound. We first prove that there are many distinct frames of the types $1^{9}$ and $1^{8} 3^{1}$ (on fixed symbol sets).

Lemma 3.1. There are at least 9 ! distinct frames of type $1^{9}$, on a fixed symbol set.
Proof. The frame $F_{9}$ of Figure 1 is an $\{\{i\}: 1 \leqslant i \leqslant 9\}$-frame. For II a permutation of $\{1,2, \ldots, 9\}$, let $F_{9}{ }^{I I}$ be the frame defined by $F_{9}{ }^{11}(\Pi(i), \Pi(j))=\{\Pi(s), \Pi(t)\}$ where $F_{9}(i, j)=\{s, t\}$. It is easily seen that $F_{9} \mathrm{II}$ is also a $\{\{i\}: 1 \leqslant i \leqslant 9\}$-frame. We show that the 9 ! permutations of $\{1,2, \ldots, 9\}$ give rise to distinct frames.

Suppose that $F_{9}^{\Pi}=F_{9}^{\phi}$. Then, clearly $F_{9}^{I I \phi^{-1}}=F_{9}$. Thus, it suffices to show that $F_{9}^{\Pi} \neq F_{9}$ for all $\Pi$. This can be established with only a moderate amount of case-work.

If $F(i, j)$ is nonempty, then $F(\Pi(i), \Pi(j))$ must be nonempty. Thus, there are only 36 possibilities for $\{\Pi(i), \Pi(j)\}$, determined by the filled cells of $F_{9}$. We let $i=1, j=3$, and consider each case.

All cases are handled similarly. We give an example. Suppose $(\Pi(1), \Pi(3))=(2,7)$. Then $\{\Pi(4), \Pi(9)\}=\{3,4\}=F_{9}(2,7)$. If $\Pi(4)=4$ and $\Pi(9)=3$, then $F(\Pi(4), \Pi(9))=F(4,3)$ must be empty. It is not, so we have a contradiction. Thus, suppose $\Pi(4)=3$ and $\Pi(9)=4$. Then $\{3, \Pi(7)\}=\{\Pi(4), \Pi(7)\}=F(\Pi(9), \Pi(5))$ $=F(4, \Pi(5))$. Since $F(4,2)=\{3,6\}$, we have $\Pi(5)=2$ and $\Pi(7)=6$. Then $F(\Pi(4), \Pi(7))=F(3,6)$ must be empty. It is not, so we have a contradiction in this case as well.

The other cases are handled similarly.
Lemma 3.2. There are at least $8!(3!)^{3}$ distinct frames of type $8^{1} 3^{1}$, on a fixed symbol set.

Proof. We start with the $\{\{1,2,3\},\{i\}: 4 \leqslant i \leqslant 11\}$-frame $F_{11}$ presented in Figure 2. Let $\alpha$ and $\beta$ be permutations of $\{1,2,3\}$ and let $\Pi$ be a permutation of $\{1,2, \ldots, 11\}$ such that $\{\Pi(1), \Pi(2), \Pi(3)\}=\{1,2,3\}$. Define the frame $F_{11}^{\alpha, \beta, \Pi}$ as follows:
for $4 \leqslant i, j \leqslant 11, F_{11}^{\alpha, \beta, \Pi}(\Pi(i), \Pi(j))=\{\Pi(s), \Pi(t)\} ;$
for $1 \leqslant i \leqslant 3,4 \leqslant j \leqslant 11, F_{11}^{\alpha, \beta, \Pi}(\alpha(i), \Pi(j))=\{\Pi(s), \Pi(t)\}$;
and for $4<i<11,1<j<3, F_{11}^{\alpha, \beta \Pi}(\Pi(i), \beta(j))=\{\pi(s), \Pi(t)\}$, where, in each case $F_{11}(i, j)=\{s, t\}$. It is easily shown that each $F_{11}^{\alpha, \beta, \Pi}$ thus constructed is a $\{\{1,2,3\},\{i\}: 4 \leqslant i \leqslant 11\}$-frame. We assert that the (3!) ${ }^{3} 8$ ! frames thus produced are distinct.

Again, it suffices to show that $F_{11}^{\alpha, \beta, \Pi} \neq F_{11}$ for any $\alpha, \beta$, . Consider $F_{11}(7,5)=$ $\{8,11\}$. Then $F_{11}^{\alpha, \beta, \Pi}(\Pi(7), \Pi(5))=\{(8), \Pi(11)\}$. Now $\Pi(5), \Pi(7), \Pi(8), \Pi(11) \in$ $\{4,5, \ldots, 11\}$ so we see from $F_{11}$ that $\{\Pi(8), \Pi(11)\}=\{8,11\},\{9,10\},\{4,7\}$ or $\{5,6\}$. These four cases are easily disposed of, as in Lemma 3.1, proving the result.

Theorem 3.3. Suppose there exists a $\mathrm{TD}(9, n)$, with $n$ odd and $0 \leqslant t \leqslant n$. Then there are at least

$$
(9!)^{(n-t) n} \cdot\left(8!(3!)^{3}\right)^{n t} \cdot\left(2(n!)^{2}\right)^{8} \cdot 2((n+2 t)!)^{2}
$$

distinct Room squares of side $9 n+2 t$, on a fixed symbol set.
Proof. We apply Lemma 2.2. In the construction of the Room square of side $9 n+2 t$, there are $(n-t) n$ blocks which miss $W$, each of which correspond to a frame of type $1^{9}$. The remaining $t n$ blocks correspond to a frame of type $1^{8} 3^{1}$. We thus obtain $(9!)^{(n-t) n}\left(8!(3!)^{3}\right)^{t n}$ distinct frames of type $n^{8}(n+2 t)^{1}$.

Now we fill in the holes of this frame. Let $R$ be any Room squares of side $n$, by permuting rows and columns of $R$, and transposing (i.e. interchanging the function of rows and columns), we can obtain $2(n!)^{2}$ distinct Room squares of side $n$. We fill in eight Room squares of side $n$ and one of side $n+2 t$; so each frame can be completed in at least $\left(2(n!)^{2}\right)^{8} 2((n+2 t)!)^{2}$ ways.

It is easily seen that all the Room squares obtained by this construction are distinct.

Corollary 3.4. Suppose there exists a $\mathrm{TD}(9, n)$ and $9 n \leqslant s \leqslant 11$, where $n$ and $s$ are odd. Then

$$
\operatorname{NR}(s) \geqslant \frac{(9!)^{n^{2}} 2^{9}(n!)^{18}}{((11 n)!)^{2}(11 n+1)!}
$$

Proof. First, write $s=9 n+2 t$, where $0 \leqslant t \leqslant n$. We divide the lower bound for the number of distinct Room squares of side $s$ obtained in Theorem 3.3 by the number of possible distinct Room squares isomorphic to a given Room square of side $s$. This number can be at most $((9 n+2 t)!)^{2}(9 n+2 t+1)$ ! (allowing perumtations of rows, columns and symbols). Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{NR}(s) & =\operatorname{NR}(9 n+2 t) \geqslant \frac{(9!)^{(n-t) n}\left(8!(3!)^{3}\right)^{t n}\left(2(n!)^{2}\right)^{8} 2((n+2 t)!)^{2}}{((9 n+2 t)!)^{2}(9 n+2 t+1)!} \\
& >\frac{(9!)^{n^{2}} 2^{9}(n!)^{18}}{((11 n)!)^{2}(11 n+1)!} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We examine the behavior of the above quantity with the following version of Stirlings's formula (see [9]).

Lemma 3.5. $n!=(2 \pi n)^{1 / 2}(n / e)^{n} e^{\alpha_{n}}$ where $1 /(12 n+1)<\alpha_{n}<1 / 12 n$.
Theorem 3.6. Suppose there is a $\operatorname{TD}(9, n)$ and $9 n \leqslant s \leqslant 11 n$ where $n$ and $s$ are odd. Then

$$
\mathrm{NR}(s)>c \cdot \exp \left(n^{2} \ln (9!)-15 n \ln (n)-(33 \ln 11-15) n+\frac{13}{2} \ln (n)\right)
$$

where $c=\left(2^{29} \pi^{15} /\left(9 \cdot 11^{3}\right)\right)^{1 / 2}$.
Proof. From Corollary 3.4, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathrm{NR}(s) & >\frac{2^{9} \cdot(9!) n^{2} \cdot(n!)^{18}}{((11 n)!)^{3}(11 n+1)} \\
& \geqslant \frac{2^{9}(9!)^{n^{2}}(2 \pi n)^{9}(n / e)^{18 n} e^{18 /(12 n+1)}}{(22 \pi n)^{3 / 2}(11 n / e)^{33 n} e^{3 /(12 \cdot 11 n)}(11 n+1)} \quad(\text { Lemma 3.5) }  \tag{Lemma3.5}\\
& >\frac{2^{9}(9!)^{n^{2}}(2 \pi n)^{9}(n / e)^{18 n}}{(22 \pi n)^{3 / 2}(11 n / e)^{33 n} \cdot 12 n} \\
& =\left(\frac{2^{29} \cdot \pi^{15}}{9 \cdot 11^{3}}\right)^{1 / 2} \exp \left(n^{2} \ln (9!)-15 n \ln (n)-(33 \ln 11-15) n+\frac{13}{2} \ln (n)\right) .
\end{align*}
$$

The above bound is dependent upon the existence of certain transversal designs. The following result is well known.

Lemma 3.7. Let $n$ have prime power factorization $\pi p_{i}^{\alpha i}$. If $k \leqslant 1+\min \left\{p_{i}^{\alpha}\right\}$, then there exists a $\operatorname{TD}(k, n)$.

One can then prove the following by use of the above lemma and a simple arithmetic argument (see [13]).

Corollary 3.8. If $s \geqslant 153$, then there is a positive integer $n$, with $9 n \leqslant s \leqslant 11 n$, such that a $\operatorname{TD}(9, n)$ exists.

Elementary calculus shows that the bound of Corollary 3.6 is an increasing function of $n$ (for $n \geqslant 9$, for example). Thus we have

Theorem 3.9. For $s \geqslant 153$ odd,
$\mathrm{NR}(s)>c \cdot \exp \left(\frac{s^{2}}{121} \ln (9!)-\frac{15}{11} s \ln (s)+\left(\frac{15}{11}-\frac{18}{11} \ln (11)\right) s+\frac{13}{2} \ln (s)\right)$,
where $c=\left(2^{29} \pi^{15} /\left(9 \cdot 11^{16}\right)\right)^{1 / 2}>.19$.
Corollary 3.10. (1) For $s \geqslant 153$, $s$ odd, $\mathrm{NR}(s)>.19 e^{.04 s^{2}}>1$.
(2) For $s \geqslant 1001$, sodd, $\mathrm{NR}(s)>.19 e^{.09 s^{2}}$.
(3) $\mathrm{NR}(1001)>10^{40850}$.
4. Summary and remarks. We have shown that the number of nonisomorphic (and inequivalent) Room squares grows extremely rapidly. The techniques in this paper are quite general. A similar argument involving group-divisible designs could be used, for example, to show that the number of nonisomorphic ( $v, k, 1$ ) balanced incomplete block designs approaches infinity as $v$ approaches infinity.

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