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Magic Rectangles Revisited

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Abstract

Magic rectangles are a generalization of magic squares that have been recently investigated by Bier and Rogers (European J. Combin. 14 (1993) 285–299); and Bier and Kleinschmidt (Discrete Math. 176 (1997) 29–42). In this paper, we present a new, simplified proof of the necessary and sufficient conditions for a magic rectangle to exist. We also show that magic rectangles, under the natural multiplication, have a unique factorization as a product of irreducible magic rectangles. © 1999 Elsevier Science B.V. All rights reserved.

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1. Introduction

Magic rectangles are a natural generalization of the magic squares which have long intrigued mathematicians and the general public. A magic (m, n) -rectangle R is an $m \times n$ array in which the first mn positive integers are placed so that the sum over each row of R is constant and the sum over each column of R is another (different if $m \neq n$) constant. They were first studied a century ago by Harmuth who proved in [5,6] that

Theorem 1. *For $m, n > 1$, there is a magic (m, n) -rectangle R if and only if $m \equiv n \pmod{2}$ and $(m, n) \neq (2, 2)$.*

Recently, Sun [7], Bier and Rogers [2], and Bier and Kleinschmidt [3] have published modern proofs of Harmuth's result. In [4], the concept of magic rectangles was generalized to n -dimensions and several existence theorems were proven.

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In this paper, we present an elementary proof of Theorem 1. We use the ideas of [3,4], to give a very simple construction of the even magic rectangles. We also give a new construction of the odd magic rectangles. Our method is entirely theoretical and does not depend on any experimental constructions of magic rectangles (see [3, Section 2.7]). This last point was important philosophically for the work in [4] as the experimental calculation of magic rectangles in higher dimensions is computationally unfeasible. Finally, in Section 5, we extend Adler's result [1] that magic squares have a unique prime factorization to the case of magic rectangles.

2. Properties of centrally symmetric rectangles

Let $R = (r_{ij})$ be a magic (m, n) -rectangle. Since the row sums of R are $n(mn + 1)/2$ and the column sums of R are $m(mn + 1)/2$ and both are integral, we have

Lemma 1. *If R is a magic (m, n) -rectangle, then $m \equiv n \pmod{2}$.*

Lemma 1 allows the set of magic rectangles to be divided into the set of odd and even rectangles. Inspection quickly shows that an even magic $(2, 2)$ -rectangle does not exist. To show the existence of the other even magic rectangles, we introduce the closely related concept of centrally symmetric (m, n) -rectangles.

Definition 1. Let $x > -1$ and let R be an even $m \times n$ rectangular array whose entries are the numbers $\pm(x + 1), \dots, \pm(x + mn/2)$. R is a centrally symmetric (m, n) -rectangle of type x if the sum of all the rows and columns is zero. Additionally, if R has an equal number of positive and negative numbers in each row and column, we say that R is balanced.

If R is an even magic (m, n) -rectangle then by subtracting $(mn + 1)/2$ from each entry of R , we obtain a centrally symmetric (m, n) -rectangle of type $-1/2$. Similarly, every centrally symmetric (m, n) -rectangle of type $-1/2$ determines an even magic (m, n) -rectangle. Thus, we can use the existence of centrally symmetric (m, n) -rectangles to prove results about magic (m, n) -rectangles. The following propositions are proved in [4].

Proposition 1. *If a balanced centrally symmetric (m, n) -rectangle exists, then a magic (m, n) -rectangle exists.*

Proposition 2. *If balanced centrally symmetric (m_i, n) -rectangles exist for $i=1, 2$, then a balanced centrally symmetric $(m_1 + m_2, n)$ -rectangle exists.*

Proposition 3. *Suppose a magic (m_1, n) -rectangle and a balanced centrally symmetric (m_2, n) -rectangle exist. Then a magic $(m_1 + m_2, n)$ -rectangle exists.*

3. Even magic rectangles

Using the concept of a centrally symmetric rectangle, we can quickly prove the existence of even magic rectangles. Our tools are the balanced centrally symmetric $(2, 4)$ -rectangle

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & -3 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 & 3 & -4 \end{pmatrix}$$

and the magic $(2, 6)$ -rectangle

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 11 & 3 & 9 & 8 & 7 \\ 12 & 2 & 10 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proposition 4. *Let $n > 2$ be an even integer. Then a magic $(2, n)$ -rectangle exists.*

Proof. We induct on n . The existence of rectangles A and B shows that we need only prove the proposition for $n \geq 8$. Assume we know that a magic $(2, m)$ -rectangle exists for all even $m < n$. Then we know a magic $(2, n - 4)$ -rectangle R exists. By Proposition 3, we can add R and A together to form a magic $(2, n)$ -rectangle.

Proposition 5. *Let m and n be even positive integers with $(m, n) \neq (2, 2)$. Then a magic (m, n) -rectangle exists.*

Proof. By Proposition 4, we can assume that $n > 2$. Using A and Proposition 2, induction shows that a balanced centrally symmetric $(m, 4)$ -rectangle R exists. Thus a magic $(m, 4)$ -rectangle exists and we can assume that $n > 4$. Now assume that a magic (m, n') -rectangle exists for all even $n' < n$. Then a magic $(m, n - 4)$ -rectangle S exists. By Proposition 2, adding R and S together gives a magic (m, n) -rectangle.

4. Odd magic rectangles

In this section, we present a simplified proof that odd magic 2-rectangles exist. Our proof is inspired by the centrally symmetric rectangles of [3], but eliminates the need for the explicit calculation of examples. We first prove:

Proposition 6. For $n > 1$ an odd integer, there exists a magic $(3, n)$ -rectangle R such that one row of R contains all the integers from $n + 1$ to $2n - 1$, with the exception of $(3n + 1)/2$.

Our construction of R will use smaller rectangles as building blocks. Define the 3×2 matrices

$$B_+(i) = \begin{pmatrix} i + 1 & n + 1 - i \\ \frac{3n + 1}{2} + i & \frac{3n + 1}{2} - i \\ 3n - 2i & 2n + 2i \end{pmatrix},$$

$$B_-(i) = \begin{pmatrix} 3n - 2i & 2n + 2i \\ \frac{3n + 1}{2} + i & \frac{3n + 1}{2} - i \\ i + 1 & n + 1 - i \end{pmatrix}.$$

The column sums of both matrices are $3(3n + 1)/2$. The row sums of $B_+(i)$ are $n + 2, 3n + 1$, and $5n$ respectively and the row sums of $B_-(i)$ are $5n, 3n + 1$, and $n + 2$. Hence when a 3×4 matrix is formed from the matrices $B_+(i)$ and $B_-(j)$, it has constant row and column sums.

Proof of Proposition 6. Since a magic $(3, 3)$ -square exists, we can assume that $n > 3$. We first consider the case $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2n & \frac{n + 3}{2} \\ 3n & \frac{n + 1}{2} & n + 1 \\ \frac{3n + 1}{2} & 2n + 1 & 3n - 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and let R be the $3 \times n$ rectangle obtained by glueing to A the $(n - 5)/4$ matrices $B_+(i)$, for $i = 1, \dots, (n - 5)/4$ and the $(n - 1)/4$ matrices $B_-(j)$, for $j = (n - 1)/4, \dots, (n - 3)/2$. By construction, the column sums of R are constant. The row sums of R are also constant since glueing A to $B_-(i)$, and glueing $B_+(i)$ to $B_-(j)$ gives rectangles whose row sums are constant. A straightforward calculation shows that the entries of R are precisely the integers from 1 to $3n$. Hence R is a magic rectangle.

We now consider the case when $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Let $m = [(n + 1)/3]$. Then $n - 3m = 0$ or ± 1 . We let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{n + 3}{2} \\ 3n & n + 1 \\ \frac{3n + 1}{2} & 3n - 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$B = \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} m+1 & 2n+1 & 2n+2m \\ \frac{3n+1}{2} + m & \frac{n+1}{2} & \frac{3n+1}{2} - m \\ 3n-2m & 2n & n+1-m \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } n-3m=1, \\ \begin{pmatrix} m+1 & 2n & 2n+2m \\ \frac{3n+1}{2} + m & \frac{n+1}{2} & \frac{3n+1}{2} - m \\ 3n-2m & 2n+1 & n+1-m \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } n-3m=0, \\ \begin{pmatrix} 3n-2m & 2n+1 & n+1-m \\ \frac{3n+1}{2} + m & \frac{n+1}{2} & \frac{3n+1}{2} - m \\ m+1 & 2n & 2n+2m \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } n-3m=-1. \end{cases}$$

In all three cases, when we glue A and B with the matrix $B_-(1)$, we have a 3×7 matrix whose row sums are all equal. We now construct our magic $(3, n)$ -rectangle R by adding the $(n-7)/4$ blocks $B_+(i)$, $2 \leq i \leq (n-3)/4$ and the $(n-7)/4$ blocks $B_-(i)$, $(n+1)/4 \leq i \leq (n-3)/2$, $i \neq m$ to A and B . We note that we omit the block $B_-(m)$ since its entries already appear in A and that we know $m = \lceil (n+1)/3 \rceil \geq (n+1)/4$. The respective row and column sums of our rectangle are constant. Again, it is straightforward to see that the entries in R are the integers from 1 to $3n$. \square

Proposition 7. For odd numbers $m, n > 1$, a magic (m, n) -rectangle exists.

Proof. We can assume that $m \leq n$. Then the existence of a magic (m, n) -rectangle follows from the more general proposition:

Proposition 8. Suppose $n \geq m > 1$ are odd integers and $d = \frac{1}{2}(m-1)$. Then there exists a magic (m, n) -rectangle R that contains the $n-2d$ integers $d(n+1) \leq x \leq d(n-1) + n, x \neq dn + (n+1)/2$, in a single row.

To construct R , we introduce the following matrices. Let

$$C_+(i) = \begin{pmatrix} i & n+1-i \\ mn+1-i & mn-n+i \end{pmatrix},$$

$$C_-(i) = \begin{pmatrix} mn+1-i & mn-n+i \\ i & n+1-i \end{pmatrix},$$

and

$$D_n = \begin{cases} \begin{pmatrix} (n+1)/2 \\ mn+(1-n)/2 \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ \begin{pmatrix} mn+(1-n)/2 \\ (n+1)/2 \end{pmatrix} & \text{if } n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

Proof of Proposition 8. By the proof of Proposition 6, we can assume that $m \geq 5$. We will prove the general case by induction on m . Assume that the proposition is true for $m - 2$ and let S be the desired magic $(m - 2, n)$ -rectangle. By adding n to each entry of S , we obtain a rectangle R . The entries of R are the integers $[n + 1, mn - n]$ and one row of R , row i , contains the integers $x \neq dn + (n + 1)/2$ from $dn + d - 1$ to $dn + n + 1 - d$. We now obtain a magic (m, n) -rectangle by adding two rows containing the integers in $[1, n]$ and $[mn + 1 - n, mn]$ to R . By interchanging the columns of R , we can assume that the integers $dn + d - 1$ and $dn + n + 1 - d$ in row i appear in the first and second columns of R . We now let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} d - 1 & d & n + 2 - d & n + 1 - d \\ mn + 2 - d & mn + 1 - d & mn - n + d - 1 & mn - n + d \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now, there are $(n - 5)/2$ positive integers less than $n/2$ which are not equal to $d - 1$ or d . If $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, divide these numbers into a collection of $(n - 1)/4$ integers a_i and a group of $(n - 9)/4$ integers b_i . If $n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, divide these integers into a collection of $(n - 3)/4$ integers a_i and a group of $(n - 7)/4$ numbers b_i . Let R_1 be the rectangle obtained by appending to the bottom of R the two rows formed by glueing in order the rectangles A , the $C_-(a_i)$, the $C_+(b_i)$, and D_n . The column sums of R_1 are all equal. However, the sums of the last two rows of R_1 are not equal. The sum of row $m - 1$ is easily checked to be $mn - n$ less than the sum of the last row. But we can correct this problem by exchanging the positions of $d - 1$ and $dn + d - 1$ in the first column of R_1 and the positions of $mn + 1 - d$ and $dn + n + 1 - d$ in the second column of R_1 . This does not change the column sums. And the sum of row i of R is unchanged as $dn + d - 1$ and $dn + n + 1 - d$ lie in the same row i of R and their sum $2dn + n = mn$ equals $(d - 1) + (mn + 1 - d)$. Now, the row sums of the last two rows of R_1 both equal the desired $n(mn + 1)/2$. Hence R_1 is a magic (m, n) -rectangle and the integers from $dn + d$ to $dn + n - d$, with the exception of $dn + (n + 1)/2$, lie in row i . So the induction hypothesis is satisfied and the proposition has been proven. \square

5. Unique prime factorization

Proposition 3 shows that in certain cases one can add two magic rectangles together to form a third magic rectangle. We now recall a classical method for multiplying magic rectangles. If $A = (a_{ij})$ is a magic (m_1, n_1) -rectangle and $B = (b_{ij})$ is a magic (m_2, n_2) -rectangle, then we define the magic $(m_1 m_2, n_1 n_2)$ -rectangle $C = A * B$ by letting $C = (c_{ij})$, where

$$c_{ij} = a_{i_0 j_0} + m_1 n_1 (b_{i_1 j_1} - 1),$$

where $i = m_1 i_1 + i_0$, with $0 \leq i_0 < m_1$ and $j = n_1 j_1 + j_0$, with $0 \leq j_0 < n_1$. C can be shown to be a magic rectangle [2]. For this multiplication, the magic $(1, 1)$ -rectangle e is the identity element. The multiplication's definition immediately shows that we have left and right cancellation laws:

Proposition 9. *Suppose A, B , and C are magic rectangles. If $A * B = A * C$, then $B = C$. If $A * C = B * C$, then $A = B$.*

We call A an irreducible magic rectangle if A cannot be expressed as a product $B * C$ of two magic rectangles $B, C \neq e$. Since the size of the factors of A must be smaller than A , we can factor every magic rectangle as a product of irreducible magic rectangles. In [1], Adler showed that for magic squares this decomposition is unique. We now show the analogous proposition for magic rectangles:

Proposition 10. *A magic rectangle has a unique decomposition as a product of irreducible magic rectangles.*

Proof. We will derive a contradiction by supposing that the magic rectangle A can be written in two different ways as the product of irreducible magic rectangles. Let $\prod_{i=1}^n R_i$ and $\prod_{i=1}^m S_i$ be the two different factorizations. Using the left cancellation law, we can assume that $R_1 \neq S_1$. However, this contradicts Proposition 11 and the proposition is proven.

Proposition 11. *Let A, B, C , and D be magic rectangles with $A * B = C * D$. Suppose that A and C are irreducible. Then $A = C$.*

Proof. Let $A = (a_{ij})$ be a magic (m_1, n_1) -rectangle and $C = (c_{ij})$ a magic (m_2, n_2) -rectangle. We can assume that $m_1 n_1 \leq m_2 n_2$. Suppose that the integer 1 appears in B at the (b_1, b_2) -th place. If $A * B = (\alpha_{ij})$, then $\alpha_{ij} = \alpha_{m_1 b_1 + i, m_2 b_2 + j}$ and thus a copy A_0 of A occurs in $A * B$. Similarly there is a copy C_0 of C inside of $C * D$. Since these are equal, and A and C consist of the first $m_1 n_1$ (resp. $m_2 n_2$) positive integers, we must have that $A_0 \subset C_0$. If $m_1 n_1 = m_2 n_2$, then $A_0 \subset C_0$ implies that $m_1 = m_2$ and $n_1 = n_2$. And since the entries agree, we see that $A_0 = C_0$ and $A = C$.

Hence we can assume that $m_1 n_1 < m_2 n_2$. Let A_k be the translate of A in $A * B$ obtained by adding $km_1 n_1$ to all the entries of A . Now a similar argument as above shows that C_0 is covered by the translates A_0, \dots, A_t of A , where $A_t \cap C_0 \neq \emptyset$. Since the entries of C_0 and each translate A_k are consecutive positive integers, the first t translates of A must be contained in C_0 . The last translate A_t may or may not be contained in C_0 . If $A_t \subset C_0$, then the rectangle C_0 is tiled by the $t + 1$ translates of A . By the geometry of $A * B$, these tiles are obtained by horizontal and vertical translations of A_0 . Thus, m_2 (resp. n_2) must be a multiple of m_1 (resp. n_1). We then have $C = A * E$, where $E = (e_{ij})$ is defined by $c_{m_1 i + i_0, n_1 j + j_0} = a_{i_0, j_0} + m_1 n_1 (e_{ij} - 1)$. Since C and A are magic rectangles, it is straightforward to show that E is a magic rectangle. But this contradicts the irreducibility of C .

So we can assume that $A_t \not\subset C_0$. But the only way that A_t can be the only translate of A not contained in C_0 is if either $m_1 = m_2$ or $n_1 = n_2$. Without loss of generality, we can assume $n_1 = n_2$. Let $r > 0$ be the remainder of the quotient m_2/m_1 . Then the translate A_t will have r of its rows contained in C_0 and $m_1 - r$ of its rows not contained

in C_0 . Since C_0 consists of the first $m_2 n_2$ positive integers, all the entries of the r rows of A_t contained in C_0 will be less than the entries of the rows of A_t not in C_0 . Hence the sums of the rows of A_t will not be the same. But since A_t is a translate of the magic rectangle A , its row sums must be equal. We have a contradiction. Hence our assumption that $m_1 n_1 < m_2 n_2$ is incorrect and $A = C$. The proposition is proved.

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