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# On the Existence of k-SOLSSOMs

Sobre la Existencia de k-SOLSSOMs

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#### Abstract

In [2] Finizio reports some new results about k-SOLSSOMs. One of these results states that there exist 2-SOLSSOM(n), for all n > 4308 and if n > 135 is an odd integer, a 2-SOLSSOM(n) exists. In addition, when  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$ , and  $n \notin \{24, 40, 48\}$ , a 2-SOLSSOM(n) exists. These results were proved by Lee in [4].

In this paper we prove that if  $p \ge 5$  is the least prime factor of n, then a  $\frac{p-3}{2}$ -SOLSSOM(n) exists. In particular, if  $n \in \{49, 77, 91, 119, 133\}$ , a 2-SOLSSOM(n) exists, thus extending Lee's results.

Key words and phrases: Latin square, orthogonal latin square, selforthogonal latin square, SOLSSOM.

#### Resumen

En [2] Finizio reporta algunos nuevos resultados acerca de k-SOLS-SOMs. Uno de estos resultados afirma que para todo n > 4308 existe un 2–SOLSSOM(n), y si n > 135 es un entero impar, existe un 2–SOLSSOM(n). Adicionalmente, cuando  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$  y  $n \notin \{24, 40, 48\}$ , existe un 2–SOLSSOM(n). Estos resultados fueron probados por Lee en [4].

En este artículo probamos que si  $p\geq 5$  es el menor factor primo de n, entonces existe un  $\frac{p-3}{2}-\mathrm{SOLSSOM}(n)$ . En particular, si  $n\in\{49,77,91,119,133\}$ , existe un 2–SOLSSOM(n), extendiendo así los resultados de Lee.

**Palabras y frases clave:** Cuadrado latino, cuadrado latino ortogonal, cuadrado latino auto-ortogonal, SOLSSOM.

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A. R. Ashrafi, A. Gordji

### 1 Introduction

In this section we describe some definitions. If  $A = [a_{ij}]$  and  $B = [b_{ij}]$  are two  $n \times n$  matrices, the join (A, B) of A and B is the  $n \times n$  matrix whose (i, j)-th entry is the pair  $(a_{ij}, b_{ij})$ . The latin squares A, B of order n are orthogonal if all the entries in the join of A and B are distinct. Latin squares  $A_1, \ldots, A_r$  are mutually orthogonal if they are orthogonal in pairs. The abbreviation MOLS will be used for mutually orthogonal latin squares.

A self-orthogonal latin square (SOLS) is a latin square that is orthogonal to its transpose. Finally, a k-SOLSSOM(n) is a set  $\{S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_k\}$  of self-orthogonal latin squares, together with a symmetric latin square M, for which  $\{S_i, S_i^T \mid 1 \le i \le k\} \cup \{M\}$  is a set of 2k + 1 MOLS(n).

The objective of this paper is to prove:

**Theorem 1.** If  $p \leq 5$  is the least prime factor of n, then a  $\frac{p-3}{2}$ -SOLSSOM(n) exists. In particular, if  $n \in \{49, 77, 91, 119, 133\}$ , a 2-SOLSSOM(n) exists.

In this paper, as usual,  $Z_n$  denotes the cyclic group of order n. Our notations are standard and taken mainly from [1] and [2].

### 2 Proof of the Theorem

For any odd prime power q there exist  $\frac{q-3}{2}$ -SOLSSOM(q) and, for  $n \ge 1$ , there is a  $(2^{n-1} - 1)$ -SOLSSOM( $2^n$ ) (see [2, 41.21]). In [4], Lee shows that there exist 2-SOLSSOM(n) for all n > 4308 and, if n > 135 is an odd integer, a 2-SOLSSOM(n) exists. In addition, when  $n \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$ , and  $n \notin \{24, 40, 48\}$ , a 2-SOLSSOM(n) exists.

In this section we use a group theoretical approach to the problem of existence of k-SOLSSOMs. We first assume that  $A = [a_{ij}]$  is an arbitrary latin square of order n. We define  $R_i = [a_{i1} \dots a_{in}]$  and  $C_i = [a_{1i} \dots a_{ni}]^T$ , for all  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , then it is easy to see that  $R_i$  is the *i*-th row and  $C_i$  is the *i*-th column of the latin square A and we can write

$$A = [C_1 C_2 \dots C_n] = [R_1 R_2 \dots R_n]^T$$

Next we assume that  $\sigma \in S_n$ , the symmetric group on n letters, then  $\sigma$  induces a permutation on rows, columns and elements of the latin square A which we denote by the same symbol. Set  $A_r(\sigma) = [R_{\sigma(1)}R_{\sigma(2)} \dots R_{\sigma(n)}]^T$  and  $A_c(\sigma) = [C_{\sigma(1)}C_{\sigma(2)} \dots C_{\sigma(n)}]^T$ , then it is obvious that  $A_r(\sigma)$  and  $A_c(\sigma)$  are latin squares and so for all  $\sigma, \tau \in S_n$ ,  $A(\sigma, \tau) = (A_r(\sigma))_c(\tau)$  is a latin square.

26

#### On the existence of k-SOLSSOMs

Now we assume that G is a group of order n and  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  are permutations of G which can be identified with the permutations of  $S_n$ . It is obvious that the multiplication Cayley table A of the group G is a latin square and we can use the above argument to obtain the latin square  $A(\sigma, \tau)$ .

We begin with an elementary lemma which will be of use later.

**Lemma 1.** Let  $G = \{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$  be a group of order n, A be the Cayley table of G and  $\alpha, \beta, \tau, \sigma \in S_n$ . The latin squares  $A(\alpha, \beta)$  and  $A(\tau, \sigma)$  are orthogonal if and only if, for all  $1 \leq i, j, r, s \leq n$ , where  $(i, j) \neq (r, s)$ , the following condition is satisfied:

$$\alpha(x_i)\beta(x_j) = \alpha(x_r)\beta(x_s) \Longrightarrow \tau(x_i)\sigma(x_j) \neq \tau(x_r)\sigma(x_s).$$

Proof. Let  $A = [a_{ij}]$  be the Cayley table of G,  $A(\alpha, \beta) = [b_{ij}]$  and  $A(\tau, \sigma) = [c_{ij}]$ . Then it is easy to see that  $b_{ij} = a_{\alpha(i)\beta(j)} = x_{\alpha(i)}x_{\beta(j)}$  and  $c_{ij} = a_{\tau(i)\sigma(j)} = x_{\tau(i)}x_{\sigma(j)}$ . Suppose  $A(\alpha, \beta)$  and  $A(\tau, \sigma)$  are orthogonal,  $(i, j) \neq (r, s)$  and  $\alpha(x_i)\beta(x_j) = \alpha(x_r)\beta(x_s)$ . If  $\tau(x_i)\sigma(x_j) = \tau(x_r)\sigma(x_s)$  then  $b_{ij} = b_{rs}$  and  $c_{ij} = c_{rs}$ , hence  $(b_{ij}, c_{ij}) = (b_{rs}, c_{rs})$  and by orthogonality we must have i = r and j = s, a contradiction. Therefore the above condition is satisfied. We can repeat this argument to yield the converse of the theorem.

**Corollary 1.** Suppose  $\alpha, \beta \in S_n$  and let A be the multiplication table of the group G. Then the latin squares  $A(i, \alpha)$  and  $A(i, \beta)$ , where i is the identity element of  $S_n$ , are orthogonal if and only if the map  $\alpha^{-1}\beta$ , where  $\alpha^{-1}\beta(x) = \alpha(x)^{-1}\beta(x)$ , is bijective.

Proof. Suppose that  $\alpha^{-1}\beta(x_j) = \alpha^{-1}\beta(x_s)$ , so  $\alpha(x_s)\alpha(x_j^{-1}) = \beta(x_s)\beta(x_j^{-1})$ . If  $\alpha(x_s)\alpha(x_j^{-1}) = x_r^{-1}x_i$ , then  $x_r\alpha(x_s) = x_i\alpha(x_j)$  and  $x_r\beta(x_s) = x_i\beta(x_j)$  and by orthogonality (i, j) = (r, s), i.e.  $x_j = x_s$ . Conversely, assume that  $\alpha^{-1}\beta$  is bijective,  $(i, j) \neq (r, s)$ ,  $x_i\alpha(x_j) = x_r\alpha(x_s)$  and  $x_i\beta(x_j) = x_r\beta(x_s)$ . Then  $\alpha^{-1}\beta(x_j) = \alpha^{-1}\beta(x_s)$  and, since  $\alpha^{-1}\beta$  is bijective,  $x_j = x_s$ . This implies that  $x_i = x_r$ , which is a contradiction.

**Corollary 2.** Let G be a group and  $f_i \in Aut(G), 1 \leq i \leq 4$ . The latin squares  $A(f_1, f_2)$  and  $A(f_3, f_4)$  are orthogonal if and only if for all  $x, y \in G$  with  $x \neq e, y \neq e$  the following condition holds:

$$f_1(x) = f_2(y) \Longrightarrow f_3(x) \neq f_4(y)$$

*Proof.* We assume that  $f_1(x) = f_2(y)$ , so  $f_1(x)f_2(e) = f_1(e)f_2(y)$ , and by Lemma 1,  $f_3(x)f_4(e) \neq f_3(e)f_4(y)$ , i.e.  $f_3(x) \neq f_4(y)$ . Conversely, suppose  $f_1(x_i)f_2(x_j) = f_1(x_r)f_2(x_s)$ , so  $f_1(x_r^{-1}x_i) = f_2(x_sx_j^{-1})$ , which yields the required result.

A. R. Ashrafi, A. Gordji

**Corollary 3.** Let G be the cyclic group of order n, p the least prime factor of n and A the Cayley table of G. Then for all  $1 \le r < p$  the latin squares  $A(i, f_r)$ , where  $f_r(x) = rx$ , are orthogonal.

Proof. It is well known that  $f_r \in Aut(Z_n)$  if and only if (r, n) = 1, hence for all  $1 \leq i \leq p - 1$ ,  $f_i \in Aut(Z_n)$ . We show now that if  $1 < i, j \leq p - 1$ , then  $f_i - f_j$  is bijective. To do this, suppose  $(f_i - f_j)(x) = (f_i - f_j)(y)$ . Then (i - j)(x - y) = 0 and since (n, i - j) = 1, x = y. Now by Corollary 1, the proof is complete.

Remark 1. Let G be a group of order n and let A be the Cayley table of G. It is easy to see that the latin square  $A(\alpha, \beta)$  is self-orthogonal if and only if  $A(\alpha, \beta)$  and  $A(\beta, \alpha)$  are orthogonal latin squares. Therefore by Lemma 1, the latin square  $A(\alpha, \beta)$  is self-orthogonal if and only if for any elements x, y, z, t of G, the following condition holds,

$$\alpha(x)\beta(y) = \alpha(z)\beta(t) \Longrightarrow \beta(x)\alpha(y) \neq \beta(t)\alpha(z).$$

Remark 2. Assume that  $f, g \in Aut(G)$ . By Corollary 2, the latin square A(f,g) is self-orthogonal if and only if for any non-identity elements  $x, y \in G$ , f(x) = g(y) implies that  $f(y) \neq g(x)$ .

Remark 3. Let G be the cyclic group of order n and A be the Cayley table of G. If p is the least prime factor of n then all of the latin squares  $A(i, f_r), 1 < r < p - 1$ , are mutually and self-orthogonal.

Proof of Theorem 1. Assume that there exists a  $2 \times k$  matrix  $M = (a_{ij})$  with the following conditions :

(a) For all i = 1, 2 and  $1 \le j \le n$ ,  $a_{ij} < n$ ,  $(a_{ij}, n) = 1$  and  $a_{1j} \ne a_{2j}$ ,

(b) For all  $1 \le j' \le j \le k$ ,  $((a_{1j}a_{1j'} - a_{2j}a_{2j'}), n) = 1$ ,

(c) For all  $1 \le j' \le j \le k$ ,  $((a_{1j}a_{2j'} - a_{2j}a_{1j'}), n) = 1$ .

We now show that with these conditions, a k-SOLSSOM(n) exists. To do this, let  $i = 1, 2, 1 \leq j \leq k$  and  $g_{ij}$  be the map  $x \mapsto a_{ij}x$ . Then it is easy to see that  $g_{ij} \in Aut(Z_n)$ . Set  $A_j = A(g_{1j}, g_{2j})$ , in which A is the latin square obtained from the Cayley table for  $Z_n$ . Then we can see that the set  $\{A_j, A_j^t \mid 1 \leq j \leq k\} \cup \{A\}$  form a k-SOLSSOM(n). Suppose that  $p \geq 5$  is the least prime factor of n. We now define a  $2 \times \frac{p-3}{2}$  matrix  $M = (a_{ij})$  as follows:

$$a_{1j} = j$$
 and  $a_{2j} = j + 1$ .

Now we can see that the matrix M satisfies the conditions (a), (b) and (c). Therefore a  $\frac{p-3}{2}$ -SOLSSOM(n) exists.

28

On the existence of k-SOLSSOMs

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