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Monogamous latin squares

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ABSTRACT

We show for all $n \notin \{1, 2, 4\}$ that there exists a latin square of order n that contains two entries γ_1 and γ_2 such that there are some transversals through γ_1 but they all include γ_2 as well. We use this result to show that if $n > 6$ and n is not of the form $2p$ for a prime $p \geq 11$ then there exists a latin square of order n that possesses an orthogonal mate but is not in any triple of MOLS. Such examples provide pairs of 2-maxMOLS.

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1. Introduction

A latin square of order n is an $n \times n$ array in which each one of n symbols appears exactly once in each row and exactly once in each column. Two latin squares $A = [a_{ij}]$ and $B = [b_{ij}]$ are orthogonal if $(a_{ij}, b_{ij}) \neq (a_{i'j'}, b_{i'j'})$ whenever $i \neq i'$ or $j \neq j'$. A set of MOLS (mutually orthogonal latin squares) is a set of latin squares in which each pair is orthogonal. A transversal of a latin square of order n is a set of n entries containing no pair of entries that share a row, column or symbol. If two latin squares are orthogonal then the set of cells occupied by a fixed entry in one defines a transversal in the other. Further background and terminology of latin squares can be found in [2].

A set of k -maxMOLS(n) is a set of k MOLS of order n that is maximal in the sense that it is not contained in any set of $k + 1$ MOLS. A bachelor latin square is a latin square which has no orthogonal mate; or equivalently, is a latin square with no decomposition into disjoint transversals. We define a monogamous latin square to be a latin square that has an orthogonal mate, but is in no triple of MOLS. Thus, a monogamous latin square and its orthogonal mate are a pair of 2-maxMOLS.

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The main purpose of this paper is to study the existence of monogamous latin squares and thereby prove the existence of a pair of 2-maxMOLS for many new orders. In Section 5 we prove the following result.

Theorem 1.1. *For each order $n > 6$ there exists a pair of 2-maxMOLS(n) except possibly when $n = 2p$ for some prime $p \geq 11$.*

It is well known (see e.g. [4]) that there does not exist a pair of 2-maxMOLS of order $n \in \{1, 2, 4, 5, 6\}$. We conjecture that these are the only orders for which a pair of 2-maxMOLS does not exist. The only orders less than 100 for which existence now remains in doubt are $n \in \{22, 26, 34, 38, 58, 62, 74, 86, 94\}$.

The study of “bachelor squares” dates back to Euler. However, the name [12] and the four distinct proofs [6,9,10,13] of their existence for all orders ≥ 4 , are comparatively recent.

Drake [4] showed that a pair of 2-maxMOLS exists for all orders $\neq 6$ that are 3 or 6 mod 9. Drake, van Rees and Wallis [5] showed that a pair of 2-maxMOLS exists for all orders that are one less than a power of two, as well as all orders that are 1 mod 9, 7 mod 9 or 11 mod 18.

2. Notation

Suppose that L is a latin square of order n . We will index the rows, columns and symbols of L with an abelian group G of order n , called the *index group* of L . We shall take $G = \mathbb{Z}_{p_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_t}$ where p_1, p_2, \dots, p_t are positive integers (typically, but not necessarily, primes). To save clutter, an element (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t) of G will sometimes be written simply as $a_1 a_2 \dots a_t$. We define an order $<$ on the elements of G by saying that $a_1 a_2 \dots a_t < b_1 b_2 \dots b_t$ iff $a_j < b_j$ where $j = \max\{i: a_i \neq b_i\}$ and a_j, b_j are taken to be the least non-negative integers representing their congruence class modulo p_j . Whenever we write a latin square the rows and columns will be listed in increasing order of their indices under $<$. When specifying an orthogonal mate M for a latin square L we will always assume the rows and columns of M are indexed by the index group of L . However, in the interests of readability we will use letters for the symbols in M rather than elements of the index group.

We let $L[x, y]$ denote the symbol in row x and column y of a latin square L . It will prove convenient to think of a latin square of order n as a set of n^2 triples, or *entries*, of the form $(x, y, L[x, y])$. Let $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_t)$, $\vec{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_t)$ and $\vec{z} = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_t)$ denote elements of G . For $i = 1, 2, \dots, t$, we define a function $\Delta_i : L \mapsto \mathbb{Z}_{p_i}$ which on an entry $(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z})$ of L evaluates to

$$\Delta_i(\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z}) = x_i + y_i - z_i \pmod{p_i}.$$

We define $\delta_i = \delta_i(G)$ by

$$\delta_i = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} p_i & \text{if } p_i \text{ is even and } n/p_i \text{ is odd,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The following simple lemma is crucial to our work, just as related results have been in [1,6–10,13].

Lemma 2.1. *The sum of the Δ_i values over the elements of a transversal T of a latin square indexed by G is*

$$\sum_{e \in T} \Delta_i(e) = \delta_i.$$

Proof. A transversal, by definition, comprises one entry from each row, one entry from each column, and one entry containing each symbol. Hence in \mathbb{Z}_{p_i} ,

$$\sum_{e \in T} \Delta_i(e) = \frac{n}{p_i} \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}_{p_i}} g + \frac{n}{p_i} \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}_{p_i}} g - \frac{n}{p_i} \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}_{p_i}} g = \frac{n}{p_i} \sum_{j=0}^{p_i-1} j = \frac{n(p_i - 1)}{2} = \delta_i. \quad \square$$

For any latin square L , let $\Delta_i^* = \{e \in L : \Delta_i(e) \neq 0\}$. Let S_i be the set of subsets T of Δ_i^* satisfying:

- (D1) If $(x_1, y_1, z_1) \in T$ and $(x_2, y_2, z_2) \in T$ then $x_1 \neq x_2, y_1 \neq y_2$ and $z_1 \neq z_2$.
- (D2) $\sum_{e \in T} \Delta_i(e) = \delta_i$.

Sets of entries which satisfy (D1) will be called *independent*. By Lemma 2.1 each transversal of L intersects Δ_i^* in an element of S_i .

We say a latin square L is Δ_i -*crimped* if there exist entries $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in L$ such that:

- (C1) There is at least one transversal of L that includes γ_1 .
- (C2) There is no $T \in S_i$ for which $\gamma_1 \in T$ but $\gamma_2 \notin T$.

Condition (C2) ensures that every transversal through γ_1 also includes γ_2 . Condition (C1) ensures that (C2) is not vacuously true. Without condition (C1) the definition would be uninteresting. It is known [6,9,13] that for every order $n \geq 4$ there exists a latin square containing an entry γ_1 for which there is no $T \in S_i$ with $\gamma_1 \in T$.

We say a latin square is Δ -*crimped* if there is some i for which it is Δ_i -crimped.

Example 2.1. The latin square L_{10} below, indexed by $\mathbb{Z}_5 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$, is Δ_1 -crimped, with $\gamma_1 = (00, 00, 20)$ and $\gamma_2 = (20, 40, 40)$ shaded.

$$L_{10} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{20} & \mathbf{00} & \mathbf{40} & 30 & \mathbf{10} & 01 & 11 & 21 & 31 & 41 \\ 10 & 20 & 30 & 40 & 00 & 11 & 21 & 31 & 41 & 01 \\ \mathbf{00} & 30 & \mathbf{20} & \mathbf{10} & \mathbf{40} & 21 & 31 & 41 & 01 & 11 \\ 30 & 40 & \mathbf{10} & \mathbf{00} & \mathbf{21} & 31 & 41 & 01 & 11 & \mathbf{20} \\ 40 & \mathbf{10} & \mathbf{00} & \mathbf{21} & \mathbf{31} & 41 & 01 & 11 & \mathbf{20} & \mathbf{30} \\ 01 & 11 & 21 & 31 & 41 & 00 & 10 & 20 & 30 & 40 \\ 11 & 21 & 31 & 41 & 01 & 10 & 20 & 30 & 40 & 00 \\ 21 & 31 & 41 & 01 & 11 & 20 & 30 & 40 & 00 & 10 \\ 31 & 41 & 01 & 11 & \mathbf{20} & 30 & 40 & 00 & 10 & \mathbf{21} \\ 41 & 01 & 11 & \mathbf{20} & \mathbf{30} & 40 & 00 & 10 & \mathbf{21} & \mathbf{31} \end{pmatrix},$$

$$L'_{10} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & d & e & f & g & h & i & j \\ g & d & a & h & i & e & b & j & f & c \\ c & h & e & f & a & i & d & g & j & b \\ f & g & b & j & d & a & h & e & c & i \\ i & j & f & c & h & b & a & d & g & e \\ h & a & j & e & c & g & i & f & b & d \\ j & f & g & a & b & d & c & i & e & h \\ e & c & i & g & f & h & j & b & d & a \\ b & e & d & i & j & c & f & a & h & g \\ d & i & h & b & g & j & e & c & a & f \end{pmatrix}.$$

The square L'_{10} is orthogonal to L_{10} .

In L_{10} we have marked in **bold** all entries that are in Δ_i^* for some i . This practice will be adopted in all subsequent examples.

Theorem 2.2. Every Δ -crimped latin square is either monogamous or a bachelor.

Proof. Let L be a latin square that is Δ_i -crimped for some i , and let $\gamma_1 = (e_1, e_2, e_3)$ and $\gamma_2 = (f_1, f_2, f_3)$ be the two entries satisfying (C1) and (C2) in the definition of Δ_i -crimped. Suppose that L is orthogonal to latin squares A and B . Since A is orthogonal to L , we can locate a transversal of L by taking the cells in L that correspond to occurrences of the symbol $A[e_1, e_2]$ in A . This transversal

includes γ_1 and hence also γ_2 , by (C2). But now our method for choosing the transversal shows that $A[e_1, e_2] = A[f_1, f_2]$. Similarly $B[e_1, e_2] = B[f_1, f_2]$, which by definition then means that A and B are not orthogonal. Thus L cannot be in any triple of MOLS. \square

Corollary 2.3. *If there exists a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order n then there exists a pair of 2-maxMOLS(n).*

For instance, in Example 2.1 we gave an orthogonal mate L'_{10} for a Δ -crimped latin square L_{10} . We now see that L_{10} must be monogamous and that $\{L_{10}, L'_{10}\}$ is a pair of 2-maxMOLS(10).

In this context we state one of the major results of this paper, which will be proved in Section 5.

Theorem 2.4. *There exists a Δ -crimped latin square of order n for every positive integer $n \notin \{1, 2, 4\}$.*

3. Monogamous crimped squares of odd order

Having demonstrated, in Corollary 2.3, the potential usefulness of monogamous Δ -crimped latin squares, we now pursue the question of their existence. In this section, we answer that question for all odd orders. We begin by defining a latin square C_n of odd order $n > 1$, indexed by \mathbb{Z}_n . We separate into three cases.

Case 0: $n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$. Let $n = 3k$ and define

$$C_n[i, j] = \begin{cases} i + j + k & i = 0 \text{ and } j \in \{0, k, 2k\}, \\ i + j - k & i = k \text{ and } j \in \{0, k, 2k\}, \\ i + j & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Case 1: $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. Let $n = 3k + 1$ and define

$$C_n[i, j] = \begin{cases} i + j + k & i = 0 \text{ and } j \in \{0, k, 2k\}, \\ i + j - k & i = k \text{ and } j \in \{0, k, 2k\}, \\ i + j + 1 = 0 & i = n - j - 1 \text{ and } n - k \leq j < n, \\ i + j - 1 = -1 & i = n - j \text{ and } n - k \leq j < n, \\ i + j & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Case 2: $n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. Let $n = 3k - 1$ and define

$$C_n[i, j] = \begin{cases} i + j + k & i = 0 \text{ and } j \in \{0, k, 2k\}, \\ i + j - k & i = k \text{ and } j \in \{0, k, 2k\}, \\ i + j + 1 = 1 & i = n - j \text{ and } 1 \leq j \leq n - k, \\ i + j - 1 = 0 & i = n - j + 1 \text{ and } 1 \leq j \leq n - k, \\ i + j & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Lemma 3.1. C_n is a Δ -crimped latin square for every odd $n > 1$.

Proof. Let $k = \lfloor (n + 1)/3 \rfloor$, $\gamma_1 = (0, 0, k)$ and $\gamma_2 = (k, 2k, 2k)$, so that $\Delta_1(\gamma_1) = -k$ and $\Delta_1(\gamma_2) = k$. It is easy to check that in C_3 the only entry in Δ_1^* that is independent of γ_1 is γ_2 , and hence the result holds for $n = 3$.

We now assume $n \geq 5$ and thus $2 \leq k \leq n - 2$. The entries in Δ_1^* all have Δ_1 values in $\{\pm 1, \pm k\}$. The only entry that is independent of γ_1 and has Δ_1 value in $\{\pm k\}$ is γ_2 . All the entries which have Δ_1 value equal to 1 share the same symbol, and the same is true of those with Δ_1 value -1 . Hence any independent set of entries can contain at most one of each. Thus, since the sum of Δ_i values in a transversal of C_n is 0 by Lemma 2.1, there is no $T \in S_1$ for which $\gamma_1 \in T$ but $\gamma_2 \notin T$.

Thus we have shown that C_n satisfies condition (C2). It remains to construct a transversal through γ_1 . Naturally, we include γ_1 and γ_2 in our transversal. Then in all rows $i \notin \{0, k\}$ we take the entry in cell $(i, 2k - 2i)$. Given that n is odd, it is routine to check that these choices produce a transversal. \square

Table 1
Five special diagonals when $n = 3k + 1$.

| 0 | $k - 1$ | k | $2k$ | $3k$ |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|
| $0, 0^*$ | $0, k - 1$ | $0, k^*$ | $0, 2k$ | $0, 3k^*$ |
| $1, k - 1^*$ | $j - 1, k$ | $1, 3k$ | $1, 2k$ | $j - 1, 0$ |
| j, k | $i, 0$ | $j, 2k$ | $j, k - 1$ | $i, 3k$ |
| $i + 1, 2k$ | $\frac{1}{2}k - 1, 0 : 3k$ | $i + 1, 3k$ | $i + 1, k - 1$ | $\frac{1}{2}k - 1, k : 0$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}k, 0 : 2k$ | $\frac{1}{2}k, k : 0$ | $\frac{1}{2}k, 2k : k - 1$ | $\frac{1}{2}k, 3k$ | $\frac{1}{2}k, k - 1 : k$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}k + 1, 3k : 0$ | $k - i - 1, k - 1$ | $\frac{1}{2}k + 1, 2k : 3k$ | $\frac{1}{2}k + 1, k$ | $\frac{1}{2}k + 1, 0 : k - 1$ |
| $k - i, k - 1$ | $k - j, 2k$ | $k - i, 3k$ | $k - i, k$ | $k - i, 0$ |
| $k - j + 1, 3k$ | $k - 1, k - 1^*$ | $k - j + 1, 0$ | $k - j + 1, k$ | $k - j + 1, 2k$ |
| $k, k - 1$ | $k, 0^*$ | $k, 3k^*$ | k, k^* | $k, 2k$ |
| $k + 1, 2k$ | $k + 1, 3k$ | $k + 1, k$ | $k + 1, 0$ | $k + 1, k - 1$ |
| $k + j, 0$ | $k + j, k$ | $k + j, 2k$ | $k + j, k - 1$ | $k + j, 3k$ |
| $k + i + 1, k$ | $k + i + 1, 3k$ | $k + i + 1, 0$ | $k + i + 1, k - 1$ | $k + i + 1, 2k$ |
| $\frac{3}{2}k, 3k : 0$ | $\frac{3}{2}k, 0 : k - 1$ | $\frac{3}{2}k, 2k : 3k$ | $\frac{3}{2}k, k$ | $\frac{3}{2}k, k - 1 : 2k$ |
| $\frac{3}{2}k + 1, 0 : k$ | $\frac{3}{2}k + 1, 2k : 0$ | $\frac{3}{2}k + 1, k : 3k$ | $\frac{3}{2}k + 1, k - 1$ | $\frac{3}{2}k + 1, 3k : 2k$ |
| $2k - i, 2k$ | $2k - i, k - 1$ | $2k - i, 3k$ | $2k - i, k$ | $2k - i, 0$ |
| $2k - j + 1, k - 1$ | $2k - j + 1, 0$ | $2k - j + 1, 2k$ | $2k - j + 1, k$ | $2k - j + 1, 3k$ |
| $2k, 2k$ | $2k, 3k$ | $2k, k$ | $2k, 0$ | $2k, k - 1$ |
| $2k + 1, 3k$ | $2k + 1, k$ | $2k + 1, k - 1$ | $2k + 1, 0$ | $2k + 1, 2k$ |
| $2k + 2, k$ | $2k + j, 2k$ | $2k + j, 3k$ | $2k + j, k - 1$ | $2k + j, 0$ |
| $2k + j + 1, 3k$ | $2k + i + 1, k$ | $2k + i + 1, 0$ | $2k + i + 1, k - 1$ | $2k + i + 1, 2k$ |
| $2k + i + 2, k$ | $\frac{5}{2}k, 2k : 0$ | $\frac{5}{2}k, 0 : k$ | $\frac{5}{2}k, k - 1$ | $\frac{5}{2}k, 3k : 2k$ |
| $\frac{5}{2}k + 1, k - 1 : 0$ | $\frac{5}{2}k + 1, 0 : 3k$ | $\frac{5}{2}k + 1, k : k - 1$ | $\frac{5}{2}k + 1, 2k$ | $\frac{5}{2}k + 1, 3k : k$ |
| $\frac{5}{2}k + 2, 0 : 2k$ | $3k - i, 3k$ | $\frac{5}{2}k + 2, k - 1 : 0$ | $3k - i, k$ | $3k - i, 2k$ |
| $3k - i + 1, 0$ | $3k - j + 1, k - 1$ | $3k - i + 1, 2k$ | $3k - j + 1, k$ | $3k - j + 1, 3k$ |
| $3k - j + 2, k - 1$ | $3k, k$ | $3k - j + 2, 0$ | $3k, 3k$ | $3k, 2k$ |

Lemma 3.2. C_n is a monogamous latin square for odd $n \geq 3$ except $n \in \{5, 7\}$.

Proof. By Theorem 2.2 and Lemma 3.1 it suffices to exhibit an orthogonal mate M_n for C_n . All calculations of indices will be in \mathbb{Z}_n . We treat three cases. In each case we leave it to the reader to perform the (routine but laborious) check that M_n is orthogonal to C_n .

Case: $n = 3k$. We let

$$M_n[i, j] \equiv \begin{cases} i + j - k & \text{if } i \in \{0, k\} \text{ and } j \in \{0, k, 2k\}, \\ 2i + j & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Case: $n = 3k + 1$. We let $M_n[i, j] \equiv 2i + j \pmod n$ unless $2i + j \in \{0, k - 1, k, 2k, 3k\}$. For the remaining entries we refer to Table 1. Each column of that table specifies the entries for the case when $2i + j$ is the value at the head of the column. An entry x, y in column z means that $M[x, z - 2x] = y$. An entry $x, y_1 : y_2$ in column z means that $M[x, z - 2x] = y_1$ if $k \equiv 0 \pmod 4$ and $M[x, z - 2x] = y_2$ if $k \equiv 2 \pmod 4$. An asterisk * on an entry means that the corresponding entry in C_n has non-zero Δ_1 value. Finally, we note that the parameter i takes all values in $\{2, 4, 6, \dots, 2\lfloor k/4 \rfloor - 2\}$ and parameter j takes all values in $\{2, 4, 6, \dots, 2\lfloor k/4 \rfloor - 2\}$.

Case: $n = 3k - 1$. This case works very similarly to the previous case. We let $M_n[i, j] \equiv 2i + j \pmod n$ unless $2i + j \in \{0, 1, k, k + 1, 2k\}$. All other entries are provided by Table 2, using the same format as was used in Table 1. \square

From the above results, it is a short step to:

Table 2
Five special diagonals when $n = 3k - 1$.

| 0 | 1 | k | $k + 1$ | $2k$ |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| $0, 0^*$ | $0, 1^*$ | $0, k^*$ | $0, k + 1$ | $0, 2k^*$ |
| $j - 1, 0$ | $1, 2k$ | $j - 1, 1$ | $1, k + 1$ | $1, k$ |
| $i, 2k$ | $j, 1$ | $i, 0$ | j, k | $j, k + 1$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}k - 1, 1 : 0$ | $i + 1, k$ | $\frac{1}{2}k - 1, 0 : 2k$ | $i + 1, 2k$ | $i + 1, k + 1$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}k, 0 : 2k$ | $\frac{1}{2}k, k + 1 : k$ | $\frac{1}{2}k, 2k : k + 1$ | $\frac{1}{2}k, k : 0$ | $\frac{1}{2}k, 1$ |
| $k - i - 1, 1$ | $\frac{1}{2}k + 1, k + 1 : 0$ | $k - i - 1, k$ | $\frac{1}{2}k + 1, 0 : k$ | $k - i - 1, 2k$ |
| $k - j, k + 1$ | $k - i, k$ | $k - j, 1$ | $k - i, 0$ | $k - j, 2k$ |
| $k - 1, 2k$ | $k - j + 1, 0$ | $k - 1, k$ | $k - j + 1, k + 1$ | $k - 1, 1$ |
| $k, 1$ | $k, 2k^*$ | $k, k + 1^*$ | $k, 0^*$ | k, k^* |
| $k + j - 1, 2k$ | $k + j - 1, 0$ | $k + j - 1, k$ | $k + 1, 1^*$ | $k + j - 1, k + 1$ |
| $k + i, k$ | $k + i, 1$ | $k + i, 0$ | $k + j, 2k$ | $k + i, k + 1$ |
| $\frac{3}{2}k - 1, 0 : k$ | $\frac{3}{2}k - 1, 2k : 0$ | $\frac{3}{2}k - 1, k : 1$ | $k + i + 1, 1$ | $\frac{3}{2}k - 1, k + 1$ |
| $\frac{3}{2}k, k : 0$ | $\frac{3}{2}k, k + 1 : 2k$ | $\frac{3}{2}k, 2k : k$ | $\frac{3}{2}k, 0 : k + 1$ | $\frac{3}{2}k, 1$ |
| $2k - i - 1, k + 1$ | $2k - i - 1, 1$ | $2k - i - 1, 0$ | $2k - i - 1, k$ | $2k - i - 1, 2k$ |
| $2k - j, 0$ | $2k - j, k$ | $2k - j, 1$ | $2k - j, k + 1$ | $2k - j, 2k$ |
| $2k - 1, 1$ | $2k - 1, 2k$ | $2k - 1, k + 1$ | $2k - 1, k$ | $2k - 1, 0^*$ |
| $2k, 2k$ | $2k, k$ | $2k, k + 1$ | $2k, 1$ | $2k, 0^*$ |
| $2k + j - 1, 1$ | $2k + j - 1, 0$ | $2k + j - 1, k$ | $2k + j - 1, 2k$ | $2k + j - 1, k + 1$ |
| $2k + i, 2k$ | $2k + i, k$ | $2k + i, 1$ | $2k + i, 0$ | $2k + i, k + 1$ |
| $\frac{5}{2}k - 1, k + 1 : 0$ | $\frac{5}{2}k - 1, 1 : k$ | $\frac{5}{2}k - 1, k : k + 1$ | $\frac{5}{2}k - 1, 0 : 1$ | $\frac{5}{2}k - 1, 2k$ |
| $3k - i - 2, k + 1$ | $\frac{5}{2}k, k : 2k$ | $\frac{5}{2}k, 0 : k + 1$ | $\frac{5}{2}k, 2k : 0$ | $\frac{5}{2}k, 1$ |
| $3k - j - 1, k$ | $3k - i - 1, 1$ | $3k - i - 1, 0$ | $3k - i - 1, k + 1$ | $3k - i - 1, 2k$ |
| $3k, k + 1^*$ | $3k - j, 0$ | $3k - j, k$ | $3k - j, 1$ | $3k - j, 2k$ |

Theorem 3.3. *There exists a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of odd order n if and only if $n = 3$ or $n \geq 7$.*

Proof. For $n = 7$ the square L_7 below is Δ -crimped, with index group \mathbb{Z}_7 and $\gamma_1 = (5, 5, 1)$ and $\gamma_2 = (4, 3, 2)$ shaded. It has an orthogonal mate L'_7 .

$$L_7 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & \mathbf{0} & 4 & 5 & 6 & \mathbf{3} \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & \mathbf{1} & 6 & 0 & \mathbf{2} & \mathbf{5} \\ 4 & 5 & 6 & \mathbf{2} & 1 & \mathbf{3} & \mathbf{0} \\ 5 & 6 & \mathbf{3} & \mathbf{0} & 2 & \mathbf{1} & 4 \\ 6 & 0 & \mathbf{5} & \mathbf{1} & 3 & 4 & \mathbf{2} \end{pmatrix}, \quad L'_7 = \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c & d & e & f & g \\ g & d & e & f & b & c & a \\ e & f & g & c & a & b & d \\ c & a & f & b & d & g & e \\ b & g & d & a & c & e & f \\ d & e & b & g & f & a & c \\ f & c & a & e & g & d & b \end{pmatrix}.$$

For $n = 3$ and odd $n > 7$ we can use C_n by Lemma 3.1 and Lemma 3.2. It only remains to note that there are no monogamous latin squares of order $n \in \{1, 5\}$. All latin squares of order 5 are either bachelors or are contained in a set of 4 MOLS. \square

4. A product construction

In this section we give a product construction that allows us to build larger crimped squares from smaller ones.

Let A and B be latin squares both indexed by a group $G_1 = \mathbb{Z}_{p_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_2} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_t}$ and let C be a latin square indexed by an arbitrary abelian group G_2 in which the identity is ε . We define a latin square indexed by $G_1 \times G_2$ and denoted $A \leftrightarrow B \times C$ by

$$A \leftrightarrow B \times C[(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2)] = \begin{cases} (A[x_1, x_2], C[y_1, y_2]) & \text{if } y_1 = y_2 = \varepsilon, \\ (B[x_1, x_2], C[y_1, y_2]) & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Lemma 4.1. Suppose that

1. A is Δ_i -crimped,
2. Δ_i is uniformly zero on B ,
3. B has a transversal,
4. C has a transversal that includes the cell $[\varepsilon, \varepsilon]$,
5. p_i is odd or $|G_2|$ is odd or $|G_1|/p_i$ is even.

Then $A \hookrightarrow B \times C$ is Δ_i -crimped.

Proof. Let $M = A \hookrightarrow B \times C$. Condition 5 ensures that $\delta_i(G_1 \times G_2) = \delta_i(G_1)$. We now argue that M is Δ_i -crimped. By assumption A is Δ_i -crimped, so there exist $\gamma_1 = (e_1, e_2, e_3)$ and $\gamma_2 = (f_1, f_2, f_3)$ satisfying (C1) and (C2). Let

$$\bar{\gamma}_1 = ((e_1, \varepsilon), (e_2, \varepsilon), (e_3, C[\varepsilon, \varepsilon])) \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\gamma}_2 = ((f_1, \varepsilon), (f_2, \varepsilon), (f_3, C[\varepsilon, \varepsilon])).$$

Let $\Delta_i^*, \bar{\Delta}_i^*$ be respectively the sets of entries of A and M with non-zero Δ_i values. Condition 2 means that there is a bijection from Δ_i^* to $\bar{\Delta}_i^*$ given by $(x, y, z) \mapsto ((x, \varepsilon), (y, \varepsilon), (z, C[\varepsilon, \varepsilon]))$. This map preserves Δ_i , so it is not hard to see that $\bar{\gamma}_1$ and $\bar{\gamma}_2$ satisfy (C2).

We next argue that (C1) is satisfied. By Condition 4, there exists a transversal, say $\{(i, y_i, z_i) : i \in G_2\}$ in C , where $y_\varepsilon = \varepsilon$. We can then form a transversal of M by taking the union of transversals of each of the latin subsquares

$$S_i = \{(a, i), (b, y_i), (c, z_i)\} \in M : a, b, c \in G_1\}$$

for $i \in G_2$. Note that S_ε is a copy of A and we may choose the transversal in it to include $\bar{\gamma}_1$ and $\bar{\gamma}_2$. If $i \neq \varepsilon$ then S_i is a copy of B , which has a transversal by Condition 3. Further, this transversal has all Δ_i values equal to 0 by Condition 2. Hence M satisfies (C1), and is Δ_i -crimped. \square

Example 4.1. The latin square $C_5 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_5 \times (\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2)$ is Δ -crimped by Lemma 3.1 and Lemma 4.1. To show that it is monogamous we provide the following orthogonal mate:

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| p | m | q | l | s | a | b | c | d | e | k | n | r | t | o | f | g | h | i | j |
| o | r | n | t | k | e | a | b | c | d | p | l | s | m | q | j | f | g | h | i |
| q | t | s | r | p | d | e | a | b | c | m | o | k | n | l | i | j | f | g | h |
| s | k | m | n | q | c | d | e | a | b | l | r | t | o | p | h | i | j | f | g |
| l | n | r | k | o | b | c | d | e | a | t | p | q | s | m | g | h | i | j | f |
| f | g | h | i | j | l | p | t | r | m | a | b | c | d | e | o | s | k | n | q |
| j | f | g | h | i | k | l | q | o | t | e | a | b | c | d | m | n | r | p | s |
| i | j | f | g | h | o | m | n | p | q | d | e | a | b | c | t | k | s | l | r |
| h | i | j | f | g | p | r | s | t | n | c | d | e | a | b | q | l | m | k | o |
| g | h | i | j | f | s | o | l | m | k | b | c | d | e | a | n | r | t | q | p |
| a | b | c | d | e | r | s | p | k | o | f | g | h | i | j | l | m | q | t | n |
| e | a | b | c | d | n | k | o | q | s | j | f | g | h | i | r | p | l | m | t |
| d | e | a | b | c | m | t | r | n | p | i | j | f | g | h | k | q | o | s | l |
| c | d | e | a | b | q | n | k | l | r | h | i | j | f | g | s | t | p | o | m |
| b | c | d | e | a | t | q | m | s | l | g | h | i | j | f | p | o | n | r | k |
| t | q | o | m | l | f | g | h | i | j | r | s | n | p | k | a | b | c | d | e |
| k | l | p | s | m | j | f | g | h | i | q | t | o | r | n | e | a | b | c | d |
| n | s | k | p | r | i | j | f | g | h | o | m | l | q | t | d | e | a | b | c |
| r | p | l | o | t | h | i | j | f | g | n | q | m | k | s | c | d | e | a | b |
| m | o | t | q | n | g | h | i | j | f | s | k | p | l | r | b | c | d | e | a |

Our next construction will rely on ‘turning intercalates’. That is, we replace some 2×2 subsquares by the other possible subsquare on the same symbols, like so:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & a \end{bmatrix} \longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} b & a \\ a & b \end{bmatrix}.$$

Suppose $n = 2h$ for odd $h \geq 7$. We define a latin square \mathcal{D}_n of order n indexed by $\mathbb{Z}_h \times \mathbb{Z}_2$, by turning some intercalates in $\mathcal{C}_h \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_h \times \mathbb{Z}_2$. Specifically,

$$\mathcal{D}_n[(a_1, b_1), (a_2, b_2)] = \begin{cases} (a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2 + 1) & \text{if } a_1 = h - 2 \text{ and } a_2 = 2k + 2 \text{ or} \\ & a_1 = h - 1 \text{ and } 2k - \frac{h-7}{2} \leq a_2 \leq 2k + 2, \\ (\mathcal{C}_h[a_1, a_2], 0) & \text{if } b_1 = b_2 = 0 \text{ and not defined above,} \\ (a_1 + a_2, b_1 + b_2) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where $k = \lfloor (h + 1)/3 \rfloor$.

Lemma 4.2. For any odd $h \geq 3$ there exists a Δ -crimped latin square of order $2h$.

Proof. Let $n = 2h$. For $n = 6$ the following square indexed by \mathbb{Z}_6 is Δ -crimped, with $\gamma_1 = (1, 5, 4)$ and $\gamma_2 = (0, 0, 5)$. A transversal through these two entries is shaded. This square is the member Q_6 of an infinite family of latin squares studied in [1] and [7].

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{5} & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \mathbf{0} \\ 1 & \mathbf{0} & 3 & \mathbf{2} & 5 & \mathbf{4} \\ 2 & \mathbf{3} & 4 & 5 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 & \mathbf{0} & 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 & 0 & 1 & \mathbf{2} & 3 \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{2} & \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{4} & 3 & \mathbf{5} \end{pmatrix}.$$

For $n = 10$ we have Example 2.1. So it suffices to show \mathcal{D}_n is Δ -crimped for $n \geq 14$. Property (C2) is inherited from \mathcal{C}_h (by an argument similar to that in the proof of Lemma 4.1) so it suffices to find a transversal to demonstrate (C1). Let $k = \lfloor (h + 1)/3 \rfloor$. The following set of cells defines a transversal that does the job:

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} & [(0, 0), (0, 0)], [(k, 0), (2k, 0)], \\ & [(i, 0), (2k - 2i, 0)] \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, k - 1, \\ & [(i, 0), (h + 2k + 1 - 2i, 1)] \quad \text{for } i = k + 1, \dots, k + 1 + \frac{1}{2}(h - 1), \\ & [(i, 0), (2h + 2k + 1 - 2i, 0)] \quad \text{for } i = k + 2 + \frac{1}{2}(h - 1), \dots, h - 1, \\ & [(i, 1), (2k + 1 - 2i, 0)] \quad \text{for } i = 0, \dots, k, \\ & [(i, 1), (h + 2k - 2i, 1)] \quad \text{for } i = k + 1, \dots, k + \frac{1}{2}(h - 1), \\ & [(i, 1), (2h + 2k - 2i, 0)] \quad \text{for } i = k + 1 + \frac{1}{2}(h - 1), \dots, h - 1 \end{aligned} \right\}. \quad \square$$

Example 4.2. It is easy to show with Lemma 2.1 that \mathcal{C}_7 and \mathcal{D}_{14} are bachelors. However, a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order 14 can be found by turning some intercalates in $L_7 \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_7 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$, where L_7 is given in the proof of Theorem 3.3. Here is such an example, with an orthogonal mate specified by the subscripted letters.

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccc} \mathbf{01}_f & \mathbf{11}_c & 20_a & 30_i & 40_j & 50_k & 60_l & \mathbf{00}_g & \mathbf{10}_d & 21_h & 31_e & 41_b & 51_m & 61_n \\ \mathbf{11}_i & \mathbf{21}_m & \mathbf{00}_c & 40_a & 50_b & 60_g & \mathbf{30}_e & \mathbf{10}_j & \mathbf{20}_k & 31_n & 41_d & 51_l & 61_f & 01_h \\ 20_d & 30_k & 40_h & 50_l & 60_e & 00_n & 10_a & 21_b & 31_m & 41_i & 51_j & 61_g & 01_c & 11_f \\ 30_n & 40_l & \mathbf{10}_g & 60_j & 00_d & \mathbf{20}_m & \mathbf{50}_c & 31_f & 41_h & 51_b & 61_i & 01_k & 11_e & 21_a \\ 40_k & 50_d & 60_n & \mathbf{20}_h & 10_i & \mathbf{30}_f & \mathbf{00}_b & 41_l & 51_e & 61_a & 01_g & 11_m & 21_j & 31_c \\ 50_a & 60_i & \mathbf{30}_b & \mathbf{00}_m & 20_c & \mathbf{10}_h & 40_f & 51_k & 61_j & 01_e & 11_n & 21_d & 31_l & 41_g \\ 60_b & 00_j & \mathbf{50}_e & \mathbf{10}_f & 30_m & 40_i & \mathbf{20}_g & 61_c & 01_n & 11_l & 21_k & 31_h & 41_a & 51_d \\ \\ \mathbf{00}_h & \mathbf{10}_e & 21_f & 31_k & 41_n & 51_a & 61_d & \mathbf{01}_i & \mathbf{11}_b & 20_j & 30_l & 40_c & 50_g & 60_m \\ \mathbf{10}_l & \mathbf{20}_n & 31_d & 41_c & 51_f & 61_e & 01_m & \mathbf{11}_a & \mathbf{21}_i & 30_g & 40_b & 50_j & 60_h & 00_k \\ 21_g & 31_a & 41_m & 51_n & 61_k & 01_l & 11_j & 20_e & 30_c & 40_d & 50_h & 60_f & 00_i & 10_b \\ 31_j & 41_f & 51_i & 61_b & 01_a & 11_d & 21_n & 30_h & 40_g & 50_m & 60_c & 00_e & 10_k & 20_l \\ 41_e & 51_g & 61_l & 01_d & 11_h & 21_c & 31_i & 40_m & 50_f & 60_k & 00_a & 10_n & 20_b & 30_j \\ 51_c & 61_h & 01_j & 11_g & 21_l & 31_b & 41_k & 50_n & 60_a & 00_f & 10_m & 20_i & 30_d & 40_e \\ 61_m & 01_b & 11_k & 21_e & 31_g & 41_j & 51_h & 60_d & 00_l & 10_c & 20_f & 30_a & 40_n & 50_i \end{array} \right)$$

We say that an abelian group G possesses an orthogonal mate if there is a latin square orthogonal to the Cayley table of G . A finite abelian group possesses an orthogonal mate unless it is isomorphic to the direct sum of cyclic groups of which exactly one has even order (see e.g. [2]).

Theorem 4.3. *Suppose L is a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order n , indexed by an abelian group G that possesses an orthogonal mate. Then for any integer $m \geq 3$ there exists a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order nm .*

Proof. We first treat the case when $m \neq 6$. In this case there exists a pair (A, A') of MOLS of order m . We use \mathbb{Z}_m to index A and A' . By assumption, L has an orthogonal mate L' and there exists a latin square G' orthogonal to G . Define a pair (M, M') of latin squares of order nm , indexed by $G \times \mathbb{Z}_m$, by $M = L \hookrightarrow G \times A$ and $M' = L' \hookrightarrow G' \times A'$. It is routine to check that (M, M') are orthogonal, and Lemma 4.1 tells us that M is Δ -crimped.

Finally, we treat the case when $m = 6$. If $n > 3$ then $nm = 3k$ for some $k > 6$ so the existence of a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order nm is guaranteed by the $m \neq 6$ case treated above, given that there is a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order 3, by Theorem 3.3. If $n = 3$ then $nm = 18$ and we use \mathcal{D}_{18} , which we proved to be Δ -crimped in Lemma 4.2. To see that \mathcal{D}_{18} is monogamous, we provide the following orthogonal mate:

$$\left(\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccc} r & b & i & q & j & c & p & d & a & k & f & l & e & h & g & m & n & o \\ c & n & j & k & r & a & l & b & g & p & h & m & d & e & f & o & i & q \\ d & i & r & e & k & o & m & h & j & n & p & f & l & b & a & q & g & c \\ q & m & f & p & h & i & r & o & l & a & b & k & n & d & e & c & j & g \\ g & p & d & i & f & m & a & j & c & q & r & o & h & k & l & e & b & n \\ i & o & q & g & c & k & e & n & f & h & l & r & b & j & m & p & d & a \\ f & e & h & r & m & p & b & q & n & j & g & a & o & l & k & i & c & d \\ a & d & l & n & o & q & h & k & e & f & j & b & g & i & c & r & m & p \\ e & j & g & b & l & n & f & c & p & d & m & i & q & r & o & a & h & k \\ \\ n & h & c & l & e & b & k & m & r & o & i & q & f & a & d & g & p & j \\ b & r & k & m & n & h & c & p & d & l & a & g & i & q & j & f & o & e \\ m & q & o & a & i & e & n & r & k & g & d & p & j & c & b & l & f & h \\ j & k & p & d & q & l & i & a & o & e & c & h & m & g & n & b & r & f \\ l & c & a & j & g & f & q & e & h & b & o & n & r & p & i & d & k & m \\ o & g & b & c & p & r & d & f & i & m & e & j & k & n & q & h & a & l \\ p & l & m & h & d & j & o & g & q & i & n & c & a & f & r & k & e & b \\ k & f & e & o & a & g & j & i & b & c & q & d & p & m & h & n & l & r \\ h & a & n & f & b & d & g & l & m & r & k & e & c & o & p & j & q & i \end{array} \right)$$

If $n < 3$ there is no L that satisfies the hypothesis of the theorem. \square

Corollary 4.4. For any positive integer $n \equiv 0 \pmod 8$ there exists a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order n .

Proof. The square L_8 below, indexed by $\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$, is Δ_1 -crimped on the shaded entries $\gamma_1 = (01, 00, 11)$ and $\gamma_2 = (31, 10, 31)$. It is orthogonal to L'_8 . Thus, by Theorem 4.3 there are monogamous Δ -crimped latin squares for all orders which are divisible by 8, except possibly 16.

$$L_8 = \begin{pmatrix} 00 & 10 & 20 & 30 & 01 & 11 & 21 & 31 \\ 10 & 20 & 30 & 00 & 11 & 21 & 31 & 01 \\ 20 & 30 & 00 & 10 & 21 & 31 & 01 & 11 \\ 30 & 00 & 10 & 20 & 31 & 01 & 11 & 21 \\ \mathbf{11} & \mathbf{01} & 21 & 31 & 00 & \mathbf{30} & 20 & \mathbf{10} \\ \mathbf{01} & 21 & 31 & \mathbf{11} & 10 & 20 & 30 & 00 \\ \mathbf{31} & \mathbf{11} & 01 & \mathbf{21} & 20 & \mathbf{10} & 00 & \mathbf{30} \\ \mathbf{21} & \mathbf{31} & 11 & \mathbf{01} & 30 & 00 & 10 & 20 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$L'_8 = \begin{pmatrix} d & f & g & a & b & e & h & c \\ h & b & f & g & c & d & e & a \\ c & h & b & e & a & g & d & f \\ e & c & a & d & f & h & g & b \\ a & g & c & h & e & b & f & d \\ f & e & d & b & g & a & c & h \\ b & d & e & f & h & c & a & g \\ g & a & h & c & d & f & b & e \end{pmatrix}.$$

An example of order 16 is $L_8 \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2) \times \mathbb{Z}_2$, which has the following orthogonal mate:

$$\begin{pmatrix} j & h & a & f & k & l & d & m & g & p & o & e & c & i & b & n \\ o & i & b & l & f & m & a & j & e & c & g & p & n & h & k & d \\ d & n & m & p & c & b & l & o & f & k & a & i & j & g & e & h \\ g & f & l & o & d & e & n & k & a & h & j & m & i & b & c & p \\ k & p & f & c & b & a & g & e & i & l & m & h & o & d & n & j \\ h & j & g & e & m & c & i & n & p & d & f & o & a & k & l & b \\ e & a & d & h & n & i & c & p & o & b & k & j & g & m & f & l \\ p & k & j & i & o & g & b & h & l & f & e & n & d & c & m & a \\ m & g & h & n & l & k & e & a & d & j & b & c & f & p & i & o \\ n & l & i & d & a & f & p & g & c & e & h & k & b & o & j & m \\ i & b & n & k & g & d & h & f & j & m & p & a & e & l & o & c \\ f & e & c & b & j & n & m & i & k & o & d & l & p & a & h & g \\ a & d & k & m & i & o & j & c & b & g & l & f & h & n & p & e \\ b & c & e & j & h & p & o & l & m & a & n & g & k & f & d & i \\ l & o & p & g & e & h & k & b & n & i & c & d & m & j & a & f \\ c & m & o & a & p & j & f & d & h & n & i & b & l & e & g & k \end{pmatrix}.$$

Moreover, $L_8 \hookrightarrow (\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_2) \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ is Δ_1 -crimped. Condition (C2) can be seen as per the proof of Lemma 4.1, and condition (C1) is immediate from the existence of an orthogonal mate. \square

A turn-square, with underlying group G , is a latin square created from the Cayley table of G by turning some of the intercalates. For orders $n \equiv 2 \pmod 4$, where no group has a transversal (or an

orthogonal mate), turn-squares are a convenient way to produce squares with many transversals [11] and many orthogonal mates [3]. Unsurprisingly then, turn-squares are useful for $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$, where Theorem 4.3 does not apply.

Theorem 4.5. *Let $G = \mathbb{Z}_h \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ for some odd $h \geq 5$. Let T be a turn-square with underlying group G , such that T possesses an orthogonal mate. Let L be a monogamous Δ_1 -crimped latin square that is indexed by G . Then for any integer $m \geq 3$ there exists a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order $2hm$.*

Proof. The proof is similar to that for Theorem 4.3. The $m = 6$ case is handled the same way, by writing $2hm = 3 \times 4h$. For $m \neq 6$ we again use a pair (A, A') of MOLS of order m . Define $M = L \hookrightarrow T \times A$ and $M' = L' \hookrightarrow T' \times A'$ where L' and T' are orthogonal mates for L and T respectively. Then M and M' are orthogonal. Moreover, M is Δ_1 -crimped by Lemma 4.1, given that Δ_1 is uniformly zero on T . \square

It seems likely that for all odd $h \geq 5$ there exists a turn-square with underlying group $\mathbb{Z}_h \times \mathbb{Z}_2$, and which has an orthogonal mate. This is certainly true [11] for $h \in \{5, 7\}$. The only case in which we need Theorem 4.5 in the present paper is the following example.

Example 4.3. A monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order 50 can be found by applying Theorem 4.5 with $h = m = 5$ and $L = L_{10}$ as given in Example 2.1.

5. The main results

We are now in a position to draw the threads together and prove our main results.

Theorem 5.1. *There exists a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square for any order $n > 6$ not of the form $2p$ for a prime $p \geq 11$.*

Proof. Corollary 4.4 handles $n \equiv 0 \pmod{8}$ and Theorem 3.3 takes care of all odd orders. The cases $n \in \{10, 14, 20, 50\}$ are solved by Examples 2.1, 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3. Every other order n under consideration can be written as $n = ab$ for $b > 2$ and odd $a \notin \{1, 5\}$. By Theorem 3.3 there exists a monogamous Δ -crimped latin square of order a . Furthermore, this square is indexed by \mathbb{Z}_a , which has an orthogonal mate, so the result follows by Theorem 4.3. \square

Corollary 2.3 and Theorem 5.1 together imply Theorem 1.1. Our other main result, Theorem 2.4, is that Δ -crimped latin squares exist for all orders $n \notin \{1, 2, 4\}$. This follows for odd orders from Lemma 3.1 and for orders that are $2 \pmod{4}$ from Lemma 4.2. All remaining cases are shown by Theorem 5.1.

To summarise: we have introduced the notion of a crimped latin square, which is one that contains an entry γ_1 that is in some transversal, but all transversals through γ_1 also include another specific entry γ_2 . Using a product construction, we have shown (Theorem 2.4) that crimped latin squares exist for all orders $n \notin \{1, 2, 4\}$. A crimped latin square cannot be in any triple of MOLS. Thus if it has an orthogonal mate then together with that mate it forms a pair of 2-maxMOLS, a maximal set of 2 MOLS. By this means we have shown (Theorem 1.1) that a pair of 2-maxMOLS exist for all orders $n \notin \{1, 2, 4, 5, 6\}$ except possibly if $n = 2p$ for some prime $p \geq 11$.

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