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Essay

Polynomial-Time Algorithms for 0-1 Matrix Isomorphism, Graph Isomorphism and Latin Squares

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Abstract

This paper presents a polynomial-time algorithm for 0-1 matrix isomorphism. Since 0-1 matrix isomorphism is equivalent to graph isomorphism, this algorithm can solve graph isomorphism in polynomial time with a time complexity of $O(n^4)$. I also prove that counting the number of mappings between two graphs is a $\#P$ -complete problem. In addition, this paper proposes a general algorithm for rapidly generating all $N \times N$ Latin squares, together with its precise counting framework, a polynomial-time algorithm for (quasigroup) isomorphism, and a method for the polynomial-time reduction of Latin square isomorphism to 0-1 matrix isomorphism. Efficient algorithms for solving Latin square filling problems are also introduced. Numerous combinatorial isomorphism problems, including Steiner triple systems, Mendelsohn triple systems, 1-factorization, networks, affine planes, and projective planes, can be reduced to Latin square isomorphism. Since groups are proper subsets of quasigroups and group isomorphism is a subproblem of quasigroup isomorphism, group isomorphism naturally becomes a P-problem. A Latin square of order N is an $N \times N$ matrix where each row and column contain exactly N distinct symbols, with each symbol appearing only once. A matrix derived from such a multiplication table forms an N -order Latin square. In contrast, a binary operation derived from an N -order Latin square as a multiplication table constitutes a pseudogroup over the Q set. I discovered four new algebraic structures that remain invariant under permutation of rows and columns, known as quadrilateral squares. All $N \times N$ Latin squares can be constructed using three or all four of these quadrilateral squares. Leveraging the algebraic properties of quadrilateral squares that remain unchanged by permutation, we designed an algorithm to generate all $N \times N$ Latin squares without repetition when permuted, resulting in the first universal and nonrepetitive algorithm for Latin square generation. Building on this, we established a precise counting framework for Latin squares. The generation algorithm further reveals deeper structural aspects of Latin squares (pseudogroups). Through studying these structures, we derived a crucial theorem: two Latin squares are isomorphic if their subline modularity structures are identical. Based on this important and key theorem, and combined with other structural connections discussed in this paper, a polynomial-time algorithm for Latin square isomorphism has been successfully designed. This algorithm can also be directly applied to solving quasigroup isomorphism, with a time complexity of $5/16(n^5 - 2n^4 - n^3 + 2n^2) + 2n^3$. Furthermore, more symmetrical properties of Latin squares (pseudogroups) were uncovered. The problem of filling a Latin grid is a classic NP-complete problem. Solving a fillable Latin grid can be viewed as generating grids that satisfy constraints. By leveraging the connections between parametric group algebra structures revealed in this paper, we have designed a fast and accurate algorithm for solving fillable Latin grids. I believe the ultimate solution to NP-complete problems lies within these connections between parametric group algebra structures, as they directly affect both the speed of solving fillable Latin grids and the derivation of precise counting formulas for Latin grids.

Keywords: Latin square isomorphism; quasigroup isomorphism; group isomorphism; polynomial algorithm

1. Introduction

The Latin grid was introduced by Euler in a 1782 paper [1], and its generation and counting have remained long-standing problems in combinatorial mathematics. Valiant's groundbreaking work proved that the product and summation of 0-1 matrices are **#P-complete** [2], while subsequent proofs showed that precise counting of Latin grids is also **#P-complete** [3], indicating their extreme difficulty. Most researchers use Monte Carlo sampling methods [4] to approximate the number of Latin grids. The inability to achieve precise counting primarily stems from limitations in generation algorithms, including random generation, swapping method, recursive construction, and group-theoretic construction [3], which can only produce specific types like cyclic Latin grids or generate duplicates due to inherent uncertainty in generation strategies. Due to these algorithmic constraints, the maximum order of Latin grids calculated so far is $n=11$ [5]. BD McKay and colleagues compiled precise counts for various orders and classifications of Latin grids [6]. This paper's algorithm leverages the algebraic structural property of square grids where row-column swaps remain invariant, enabling generation of all $N \times N$ Latin grids without repetition. Benefiting from this unique generative characteristic, we further propose a framework for precise counting of Latin grids. The specific counting formula is still under derivation and may be presented in future versions.

An n -order Latin square is an $n \times n$ matrix where each row and column contains exactly n symbols, with each symbol appearing exactly once. In the multiplication table of an n -order quasi-group $(Q, \circ)$, the element at position (a, b) represents the product $a \circ b$. If we define $L = mab$ where $mab = a \circ b$, then the resulting array L forms an n -order Latin square. Conversely, any binary operation derived from such a Latin square constitutes a quasi-group on the set Q . Thus, Latin squares and quasi-groups are mathematically equivalent in structure. In the paper by NA Collins et al., it is explicitly stated that Latin grid isomorphism is equivalent to group homomorphism [7]. Marty J. Wolf categorized Latin grid isomorphism (group homomorphism) into $NNC(\text{polylog})$, where NNC represents a new non-deterministic complexity class introduced by them as a quantifiable resource for non-deterministic computations. This classification uses a finite number of non-deterministic gates to derive $NNC(\text{polylog})$ from NC circuits, serving as a candidate to separate NC and NP . It also demonstrates that $NNC(\text{polylog}) \subseteq DSPACE(\text{polylog})$ [8]. NA Collins et al. advanced this classification by showing that group homomorphism $\in \exists^{\log^2 n} AC^0(DTISP(\text{polylog}(n), \log n))$, and demonstrated that group homomorphism, Steiner triple system isomorphism, pseudo-Steiner triple system graph isomorphism, Latin grid graph isomorphism, and Steiner $(t, t+1)$ designs share the same upper bound. They also improved the previous upper bound for isomorphism problems: $\exists^{\log^2 n} L \cap \exists^{\log^2 n} FOLL \subseteq \text{quasiFOLL}$ [7].

Many isomorphism problems, including Latin Grid Isomorphism, Quasi-Group Isomorphism, Group Isomorphism, Graph Isomorphism, and Steiner's Design Isomorphism Test, are considered candidates for the intermediate zone between P -problems and NP -complete problems. A Chattopadhyay et al. demonstrated that graph isomorphism cannot be $\text{Not } AC^0$ -Reducible to quasi-group isomorphism and group isomorphism. Graph isomorphism is more challenging than quasi-group and group isomorphism unless all three can be solved in polynomial time [9]. Subsequently, M. Levet extended this result to Latin Grid Isomorphism [10], while Gary L. Miller [11] adapted Tarjan's technique to Latin Grid Isomorphism and Quasi-Group Isomorphism, enabling determination of isomorphism between two n -order quasi-groups within $n^{\log n}$ steps. Latin Grid Isomorphism, Quasi-Group Isomorphism, and Group Isomorphism have been studied for decades due to their close connections with computational complexity theory, cryptography, computational group theory, and algebraic complexity theory [12,13]. The following section presents a polynomial-time algorithm for Latin Grid Isomorphism.

The Latin Square Filling Problem (LPFP) is a classic NP -complete problem [14]. Since its introduction, it has become one of the most significant challenges in theoretical computer science, attracting extensive research from mathematicians and yielding numerous algorithms. The classical solutions for LPFP include backtracking algorithms and dance chain algorithms. This paper presents a novel generation-based algorithm for efficient and accurate solution computation. Unlike conventional ap-

proaches, our algorithm not only guarantees all possible solutions but also demonstrates computational efficiency. Furthermore, the algorithm remains continuously optimized for enhanced performance, with new versions to be released subsequently.

2. Basic Terminology

Quadrilateral: In any $N \times N$ Latin square L , select two pairs of symbols located on opposite diagonals and equidistant from each other, denoted as (a, b) and (c, d) . Here, a and b lie on one diagonal, while c and d reside on the opposite diagonal. The ordered pair formed by these numbers $((a, b), (c, d))$ is called a quadrilateral. When performing arbitrary row-column swaps on a Latin square L to obtain a new square L' , the diagonal structure remains unchanged. This means the quadrilateral serves as an invariant under row-column operations in Latin squares. These four types of quadrilaterals maintain their identity under row-column swaps, making them algebraic invariants equivalent to mathematical operations involving such transformations.

Diagonal Symmetry: In the four-square grid $((a, b), (c, d))$, where a and b lie on one diagonal while c and d form another, the diagonal distance between a and b equals that between c and d . This ensures that any symbol in the grid aligns with its adjacent symbols either horizontally or vertically. When symbol a undergoes transposition to symbol b , symbol c will symmetrically correspond to symbol d . From this, we derive four types of four-square grids: Type I $((a, b), (c, d))$, Type II $((a, b), (d, c))$, Type III $((a, a), (c, c))$, and Type IV $((a, a), (c, d))$.

Square grid element: The basic element that constitutes a square grid, namely two pairs of symbols located on the opposite diagonals and at equal distances from each other. Each square grid has and only one Four square quanta.

Main and Secondary Lines: In any $N \times N$ Latin square, there are two diagonals of the longest geometric length $n\sqrt{2}$ (where n is the side length of the Latin square). One is called the main line if all symbols are the same, and the other is called the secondary line.

Mainline Normative Type: Let L be an $N \times N$ Latin square (where each row and column in L is a permutation of the set $1, 2, \dots, N$). If there exists a row-column swapping transformation T (a combination of row and column transformations) such that the transformed Latin square $L' = T(L)$ satisfies the following conditions:

- 1. The elements on the main diagonal are $L'_{ii}, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$;
- 2. If each row and column are still permutations of $1, 2, \dots, N$, then L' is called a line-oriented regular Latin grid.

For the fourth type of square grid under the main-line specification framework in $N \times N$ Latin squares, a primary line is selected (where all symbols on the main diagonal are identical, denoted as K). Two symbols x and y positioned symmetrically on both sides of this main line form a pair $(x: y)$. All pairs must satisfy the following properties.

- 1. The total number of groups is $(N - 1) + (N - 2) + \dots + 2 + 1 = \frac{N(N-1)}{2}$;
- 2. Number of symbol occurrences: in all pairs, the total number of symbols is N ;
- 3. Invariance: the group is invariant under the exchange of Latin square rows and columns.

Pair structure: If two pairs can be obtained by symbol substitution, then the pair structures are identical. There are only two pair structures $(a: a)$ and $(a: b)$.

Collection of pairs: the collection formed by all pairs of groups in which any symbol is the main line (the same symbol on the diagonal).

Pairing set structure: If the pairing set of two Latin squares can be obtained from each other by symbol substitution, and the number of partition parts of the pairing is the same, and the symbol composition of each part is completely identical, then they are said to have the same pairing set structure.

pairs elements: Two symbols that are symmetric about the main line are the basic elements that make up the group.

Group: Set two pairs of groups. If their pairs are located in the same row or column, they are called pairs of groups, that is, they are in the same row and column. $\frac{4(N-2)}{2}$ (or simplified as $2(N-2)$, where $N \geq 4$)

External group: If two pairs of groups are not located in the same row or column, they are called external groups, that is, their positions in the row and column. There is no specific correspondence. In any $N \times N$ Latin square, the number of groups is: $(N-3) + (N-4) + \dots + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1$ ($N \geq 4$)

Origin: There are four vertices in the Latin square, two of which are located on the main line, and the other two vertices are located in the region called the origin.

Construction zone: The outermost two rows and two columns of the Latin square, with four vertices at the ends of these two rows and two columns, are called the construction zone, which does not include the outermost two rows and two columns.

Closing area: The two outermost rows and columns of the Latin grid, but not including the starting area.

Start symbol: A number located in the start area is called a start symbol. If symbol a is located in the start area, all symbols a are called start symbols. If both symbol a and b are located in the start area, all symbols a and b are called start symbols.

Non-starting symbol: All symbols that are not located in the starting area are called non-starting symbols.

3. Generating Algorithm

3.1. All $N \times N$ Latin Squares Are Generated So That the Rows and Columns Do Not Repeat, and the Generation Is a Unique Latin Square Algorithm

This section gives an algorithm designed based on the invariant property of the exchange structure of the four-dimensional square matrix. Using this algorithm, all $N \times N$ Latin squares can be generated, and the exchange of the matrix is not repeated. The generation is a unique Latin square algorithm, and there is no need to check for duplication.

The Latin square is defined as: Let n be a positive integer, and the set $S = 1, 2, \dots, n$. A $N \times N$ matrix $L = (L_{ij})$ satisfies:

1. For any $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, the set $\{L_{i1}, L_{i2}, \dots, L_{in}\} = S$ (that is, each row element forms a permutation of S);
2. For any $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, the set $\{L_{1j}, L_{2j}, \dots, L_{nj}\} = S$ (where each column of elements forms a permutation of S) is called the Latin square matrix L of order $N \times N$.

Therefore, we conclude that $L = (L_{ij})$ forms an $N \times N$ Latin square, where L_{ij} denotes the element at position i, j in the matrix ($i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$). For any $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$, there exist row permutation π (a permutation of $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$) and column permutation δ (also from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$) such that the transformed Latin square $L' = (L'_{ij})$ satisfies: For all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$, it holds that $L'_{i,i} = k$. In this case, L' is called a " k -line Latin square" – meaning through these permutation operations, all diagonal elements become k . The term " k -line" specifically denotes the canonical form where all diagonal elements are k .

Usually the line with the largest number is taken as the main line. The following example uses a 5 by 5 Latin square.

5	4	3	2	1
1	5	4	3	2
2	1	5	4	3
3	2	1	5	4
4	3	2	1	5

Figure 1. Graph 1.

This type of Latin grid, referred to as the mainline specification type in this paper, features paired groups on both sides of its mainline. For example, this Latin grid contains $N=5$, with a total of 10 paired groups ($4+3+2+1=10$). The group configurations are as follows: yellow (1:4), red (4:1), blue (2:3), cyan (2:3), and others include (1:4), (2:3), (1:4), (3:2), (2:3), (4:1), (1:4), (3:2), (2:3), and (1:4). Based on the definition of Latin grids and the mainline specification type, we can derive the following properties of paired groups, which are also known as constraint conditions.

1. In all the $N \times N$ Latin squares, the total number of groups is $(N - 1) + (N - 2) + \cdots + 2 + 1$.
2. The total number of all the numbers in the group adds up to N .

In this context, a pair group essentially represents the fourth type of square grid. Specifically, it refers to a pair within square grids where all numbers in the pair are identical. For instance, in the 5×5 Latin grid shown above, the pair group (1:4) corresponds to the square grid (4, 1) and (5,5). This principle holds true for all $N \times N$ Latin grids. Since square grids maintain their mathematical structure under column-row permutation, the pair group retains its structural integrity even after such transformations.

Look at the following 5 by 5 Latin square.

5	2	3	1	4
1	5	4	3	2
2	1	5	4	3
3	4	2	5	1
4	3	1	2	5

Figure 2. Graph 2.

The 5×5 Latin grid pair sets in Figure 2 are (4:4), (4:1), (4:2), (4:3), (1:2), (1:2), (1:3), (1:3), (2:3), and (2:3).

The 5×5 Latin grid pair sets in Figure 1 are (1:4), (1:4), (1:4), (1:4), (1:4), (2:3), (2:3), (2:3), (2:3), and (2:3).

Figure 1 and Figure 2 are different Latin square pair sets. Therefore, the Latin square in Figure 1 cannot be transformed into the Latin square in Figure 2 by row and column replacement.

The constraints strictly cover all possible Latin square pairs and ensure non-repetitive permutation of rows and columns in generated configurations. By applying these two constraint rules, we can systematically generate all $N \times N$ Latin squares with unique permutation patterns. However, this approach results in an excessively large collection of potential square pairs, making the generation process computationally intensive and inefficient.If multiple cannot form a Latin square, the speed of

the generation algorithm will be greatly reduced. Therefore, the following section gives a method to directly obtain the set of pairs that can form a Latin square.

3.2. Generate All $N \times N$ Latin Squares So That the Rows and Columns Do Not Exchange Repeatedly. The Generation Is a Unique Latin Square Algorithm Optimization

All pair groups can be rearranged into the initial region, thus allowing us to derive properties of various pair groups in different regions of the Latin grid or even stronger constraints. When the structure of the initial region pair group is (a: a), the following properties or constraints can be obtained:

- 1. The total number of initial symbols in the structure zone is $N - 2$.
- 2. The total number of non-starting symbols in the structure zone is $N - 4$.
- 3. Each non-starting symbol in the closing area has four on a 2 by 2 line.
- 4. The number of groups in the structure zone is $(N - 3) + (N - 4) + \dots + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1$.

If the group structure of the starting region is (a: b), then the following properties or constraints can also be obtained:

- 1. The total number of initial symbols in the construct zone is $N - 3$.
- 2. There are two start symbols in the closing section.
- 3. The total number of non-starting symbols in the structure zone is $N - 4$.
- 4. Each non-starting symbol in the closing area has four positions on a 2-row, 2-column grid.
- 5. The number of groups in the structure zone is $(N - 3) + (N - 4) + \dots + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1$.

Given these properties or constraints, we can generate sets of pairs that could form Latin squares. However, even the minimal set of such pairs generated by this method cannot actually form a Latin square. This problem is clearly an NP problem, though it remains unclear whether it is a NP-complete problem. Interestingly, it appears to be solvable in polynomial time. During my generation process, I observed that if certain pair sets fail to form Latin squares, this becomes evident without requiring exhaustive testing. Through continuous verification, I have confirmed that all 7×7 Latin squares satisfy this condition, though I haven't yet formally proven it. This conjecture is detailed in the specific steps of the following generation algorithm.

When generating Latin squares, there are two types. The first type contains only pairs with the (a:a) structure within the group set, which exists exclusively in $2N \times 2N$ Latin squares and can be uniquely identified through a very fast generation algorithm to be introduced later. The second type includes Latin squares containing (a:b) pair structures within the group set.

The specific algorithm steps are as follows:
The details are detailed in a 6 by 6 Latin square

- 1. Enter the pair group at the starting area (enter (a: a) here to show more details):

6					4
	6				
		6			
			6		
				6	
4					6

Figure 3.

The set of constraint-conditioned region pairs is (three typical sets are given):

- ① (4:1) (4:2) (4:3) (4:5) (1:2) (3:5)
② (4:1) (4:2) (4:3) (4:5) (1:3) (2:5)
③ (4:1) (4:2) (4:3) (4:5) (1:5) (2:3)
2. Eliminate the set of groups that satisfy the constraints but do not form a minimal part of the Latin square

6					4
	6	4		2	
	3	6	4		
		1	6	4	
	4		5	6	
4					6

Figure 4

First, place the pair groups containing start symbols into the construction zone. Interestingly, once these start- symbol pairs are placed, the remaining pair groups can be filled into the construction zone. Once the construction zone is fully populated, the finishing zone will automatically comply with the rules and directly produce a set of pair groups that satisfy the Latin grid requirements. This is my hypothesis as mentioned earlier, which I am currently working to prove.

3. Construction area group filling techniques

6					4
	6	4		2	
	3	6	4		
		1	6	4	
	4		5	6	
4					6

Figure 5. Graph3

As shown in Figure 3, the outer group of (4:1) corresponds to (4:2), while groups within the same pair are (4:3) and (4:5). The blue and yellow sections should be filled with (1:2), (3:5), (1:3), (2:5), or (1:5)(2:3). Through trial and error, only (1:2) and (3:5) fit these patterns, while the other pairs violate the rules. The next step involves adjusting relationships between groups: For example, adjust the outer group of (4:1) to (4:5), and the inner pair to (4:2) and (4:3). By systematically testing these combinations, we can complete the construction zone. Latin squares present such inter-group relationships, which remain the biggest challenge in solving their filling algorithm. Although group pairings can be quickly identified, understanding inter-group connections remains an ongoing exploration - this constitutes the primary bottleneck for algorithm speed. While current knowledge lacks clarity about inter-group relationships (e.g., how outer/inner pairings should correspond) or group pairings, efficient filling methods still exist. The core optimization principle allows a group to pair with another either as outer or inner (this generalizes to cases like (a:a) containing symbol a, though this isn't generalized here). However, when multiple groups combine, their interconnections become fixed. This phenomenon actually reflects a fundamental characteristic of NP-complete problems. In puzzle games, small pieces require complex time complexity to assemble into complete structures. However, when these pieces

can be reconstructed using only a few large components, the required combinatorial numbers become significantly fewer. Consequently, certain combinations here essentially have a single solution. The process involves first filling these specific configurations into the construction area, then integrating the remaining elements into the final assembly.

For example, in a 7×7 Latin grid, there are such paired groups (2:2), (3:3), (2:3), (5:5), (6:6), (5:6), (4:4), (4:4), (1:1), and (1:1). Therefore, among the three paired group combinations (2:2), (3:3), and (2:3), only one relationship exists: (2:2) is grouped with (3:3), while (2:3) is grouped with both (2:2) and (3:3). Similarly, the paired group combinations (5:5), (6:6), and (5:6) follow this pattern. As shown in Figure 4, we first fill in the (2:2), (3:3), and (2:3) groups.

7						1
	7	2	3			
	2	7				
	3		7			
				7	3	
				2	7	
4						7

Figure 6. Graph4.

Then fill in (5:5), (6:6), (5:6)

7						1
	7	2	3			
	2	7				
	3		7	6	5	
			6	7	3	
			5	2	7	
4						7

Figure 7. Graph5.

It can be found that group (5:6) cannot be filled in, because the areas of the outer group corresponding to group (5:5) and (6:6) are exactly the areas of group (2:2). At this time, adjustments are made as shown in Graph 6

7						1
	7	6	3	2		
	5	7			3	
	3		7	6	5	
	2		6	7		
		2	5		7	
4						7

Figure 8. Graph6

You can actually start by filling in (5:6) and then fill in (5:5) (6:6), which means using the smaller number to lock down the larger one. Fill in the remaining numbers to get

7						1
	7	6	3	2	4	
	5	7	1	4	3	
	3	1	7	6	5	
	2	4	6	7	1	
	4	2	5	1	7	
4						7

Figure 9

Another crucial consideration is to avoid grouping components into external groups whenever possible. While this principle generally holds, exceptions may exist. Each component pair maintains a unique relationship, and there are numerous such combinations. The examples I’ve provided illustrate the algorithm’s operational logic, though it’s unclear whether these pairs are fixed or become less interconnected as more components are added. For instance, the three (1:2) (1:2) (1:2) pairs could form either external or internal groups. However, adding additional (2:2) or (1:2) pairs would reduce their interconnections. While I’ve made some progress in this area, my research remains ongoing and will not be elaborated here.

For this type of pair group set with only one relationship in the construction area, the minimum number increases with N . The minimum number rule is obvious: $2N \times 2N$ and $(2N + 1) \times (2N + 1)$. The minimum pair group number is N , where $N \geq 3$.

4. Finally, the finishing area is completed according to the rules

6					4
	6	4	3	2	
	3	6	4	1	
	5	1	6	4	
	4	2	5	6	
4					6

Figure 10. Graph7.

To complete the Latin grid, I select specific areas in Figure 7 for filling with valid symbols. The blue sections allow numbers 1 and 5, while the yellow sections permit numbers 1 and 2. This creates four possible combinations: 11, 12, 51, and 52. Following the established rules, these configurations collectively form the complete Latin grid.

3.3. Algorithm for Generating All $N \times N$ Equivalent Class Latin Squares Quickly

Equivalent Latin squares refer to two Latin squares that can be transformed into each other through row permutation, column permutation, or symbol permutation. These two Latin squares are considered isomorphic and belong to the same equivalence class, which some literature also refers to as a homotopy class. Therefore, when generating equivalent Latin squares, it’s crucial to avoid creating new Latin squares that can be transformed into previously generated ones through row permutation, column permutation, or symbol permutation. Since symbol permutation must be avoided, only all distinct pair group structures (specifically the pair group structure of the construction zone) should be generated during the formation of paired groups. Existing structures from previously generated

construction zone pairs must be avoided. For example, when generating all 6×6 equivalent Latin squares with a starting zone pair (4:1), the following types of construction zone pair group structures may appear in the 6× 6 Latin square.

- ① (4:4) (4:1) (1:1) (2:2) (3:3) (5:5)

② (4:4) (4:1) (1:1) (2:3) (2:3) (5:5)

③ (4:4) (4:1) (1:1) (2:3) (2:5) (3:5)

④ (4:4) (4:2) (1:1) (1:2) (3:3) (5:5)

⑤ (4:4) (4:2) (1:1) (1:2) (3:5) (3:5)

⑥ (4:4) (4:2) (1:1) (1:5) (2:5) (3:3)

⑦ (4:4) (4:2) (1:1) (1:3) (2:5) (3:5)

⑧ (4:4) (4:1) (1:2) (1:2) (3:3) (5:5)

⑨ (4:4) (4:2) (1:3) (1:3) (1:2) (5:5)

⑩ (4:4) (4:1) (1:2) (1:2) (3:5) (3:5)

⑪ (4:4) (4:1) (1:2) (1:3) (2:5) (3:5)

⑫ (4:4) (4:2) (1:2) (1:3) (1:5) (3:5)

⑬ (4:4) (4:2) (1:3) (1:3) (2:5) (1:5)

⑭ (4:2) (4:3) (4:5) (1:2) (1:3) (1:5)

⑮ (4:2) (4:2) (4:3) (1:3) (1:5) (1:5)

⑯ (4:1) (4:1) (4:1) (2:5) (2:5) (3:3)

⑰ (4:1) (4:1) (4:1) (2:2) (5:5) (3:3)

⑱ (4:1) (4:1) (4:1) (2:5) (2:3) (3:5)

⑲ (4:1) (4:1) (1:2) (4:2) (3:5) (3:5)

⑳ (4:1) (4:1) (1:2) (4:2) (3:3) (5:5)

㉑ (4:1) (4:1) (1:2) (4:3) (2:3) (5:5)

㉒ (4:1) (4:1) (1:2) (4:3) (2:5) (3:5)

㉓ (4:1) (1:2) (1:2) (4:3) (4:3) (5:5)

㉔ (4:1) (1:2) (1:3) (4:3) (4:2) (5:5)

㉕ (4:1) (1:2) (1:5) (4:3) (4:3) (2:5)

㉖ (4:1) (1:2) (1:5) (4:3) (4:3) (3:5)

The initial group is (1:1) and the constructed group set structure is
㉗ (5:5) (2:2) (1:1) (1:1) (4:4) (3:3)

There are 27 groups in total. Among them, the first three pairs (1, 2, and 3) containing initial symbols cannot be filled into the construction area. Therefore, these three pairs are excluded. The remaining groups can generate all 6 ×6 equivalent-class Latin squares using the previous algorithm steps. However, some processing is required due to the involvement of the Latin Square Isomorphism Polynomial Algorithm, which I will address later. This section will not continue discussing this treatment as it requires specialized knowledge from the algorithm. After explaining the Latin Square Isomorphism Polynomial Algorithm, the necessary processing techniques will become clear. The algorithm is highly efficient - I manually generated all 22 equivalent-class Latin squares within just a few days.

After obtaining all 6×6 equivalent-class Latin squares, I discovered that generating complete sets of constructive pair group structures wasn't necessary. Each Latin square inherently contains multiple such group structures. Through processing all 6×6 equivalent-class Latin square transformations, I found only the following 9 groups of constructive pair group structures were required - in fact, fewer might be needed. This led me to focus on just these 9 groups during my analysis.

- ① (4:4) (1:1) (4:2) (1:5) (2:5) (3:3)

② (4:4) (4:1) (1:2) (1:3) (2:3) (5:5)

③ (4:4) (4:5) (1:3) (1:3) (1:2) (2:5)

④ (4:1) (4:1) (4:1) (2:2) (3:3) (5:5)

⑤ (4:1) (4:1) (4:1) (2:5) (2:5) (3:3)

⑥ (4:1) (4:1) (4:1) (2:3) (2:5) (3:5)

⑦ (4:1) (4:1) (4:3) (1:5) (3:5) (2:2)

⑧ (4:1) (4:2) (4:5) (1:2) (1:5) (3:3)

⑨ (4:1) (4:1) (1:5) (4:3) (2:5) (2:3)

Obviously, it is not necessary to generate all the N × N equivalent class Latin squares by generating all the structures of the pair group set, but it is not clear how to generate the required pair group set, which may be difficult.

3.4. All Main Class Latin Squares Without 2×2 Latin Sub Squares Are Generated Quickly

The main-class Latin grid refers to the extension of equivalence-class Latin grids that allows permutations of three roles: rows, columns, and symbols (for example, a symbol s in row r and column c can be transformed into a symbol r in row c and column s). This transformation is a constant multiple of six. When converting equivalence- class Latin grids to main-class Latin grids, no processing is required. Therefore, the core idea for rapidly generating all main-class Latin grids without 2×2 subgrids is to modify the existing algorithm for generating N×N equivalence-class Latin grids, ensuring the resulting grids contain no 2×2 subgrids. In fact, these 2×2 subgrids specifically refer to the four quadrilateral structures ((a,a)) and ((c,c)), which correspond to the (a:a) pair structure within the group.

Thus, the key lies in avoiding such (a:a) pair structures during generation. When constructing the pair structure set, we directly exclude (a:a) pairs to achieve this goal.

Taking the 6×6 Latin grid as an example, the initial pair group is (4:1), and the constructed area pair group structure is

14 (4:2) (4:3) (4:5) (1:2) (1:3) (1:5) 15 (4:2) (4:2) (4:3) (1:3) (1:5) (1:5)
18 (4:1) (4:1) (4:1) (2:5) (2:3) (3:5) 19 (4:1) (4:1) (1:2) (4:2) (3:5) (3:5)
22 (4:1) (4:1) (1:2) (4:3) (2:5) (3:5) 25 (4:1) (1:2) (1:5) (4:3) (4:3) (2:5)
26 (4:1) (1:2) (1:5) (4:3) (4:3) (3:5)

The remaining steps are the same as the fast generation of all $N \times N$ equivalent class Latin squares and will not be written here.

4. Latin Square Exact Counting Formula Framework

The Latin grid generation algorithm reveals that Latin grids fall into two categories: those containing (a: b) pairs, and those containing only (a: a) pairs. The mathematical description is as follows: Basic definitions and symbols

Consider an $N \times N$ Latin square L with a set of numbers $S=1,2,...,N$. The main line is defined as the diagonal running from the top-left to bottom-right corners (denoted as $L(i,i)$). The set P consists of binary pairs formed by symmetrically positioned elements along this main line, satisfying the following condition:

The total number of groups is $P = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} k = \frac{(N-1)N}{2}$

Digital total constraint: For any number $a \in S$, the total number of times it appears in all pairs is N

First type of Latin square: (only contains the pair (a: a) groups)

A Latin square L is classified as a non-odd pair Latin square (Category I) if all pairs in it are composed of identical symbols, meaning for any pair $(x,y) \in P$, we have $x = y$. In this case, the pair can be represented as $\{(a,a) \mid a \in S'\}$ where $S' \subseteq S \setminus \{\text{main line numbers}\}$. Each number a corresponds to a pair that appears exactly N times in total.

Type II Latin grid: (contains pairs of (a: b))

In the set of paired groups within an $N \times N$ Latin square, consider the paired group T . If there exist two distinct numbers y and z ($y \neq z$) such that $\forall e \in T, e = y$ or $e = z$, and y and $z \dots$ A pair group is classified as the second type when its occurrence count satisfies the constraint on the total number of digits within the group (where all digits in each pair group sum to N), while T also fulfills the constraint on the total number of pairs $(N - 1) + (N - 2) + \dots + 2 + 1$. The second type of pair groups represents typical pair group structures.

Latin square exact count = type 1 Latin square + Type 2 Latin square

First class Latin grid generation algorithm

As can be seen from the definition of the first type of Latin square group, this type of Latin square group is very clear and can know all the outer groups of the square group, so there is a very efficient generation algorithm. Take the 6×6 Latin square with 6 as the main line as an example

6 × 6 Latin squares satisfying the first category of pairs are (1:1) (1:1) (1:1) (2:2) (2:2) (2:2) (3:3) (3:3) (3:3) (4:4) (4:4) (4:4) (5:5) (5:5) (5:5)

The outer group of (1:1) is (1:1) as follows

6					1
	6			1	
		6	1		
		1	6		
	1			6	
1					6

Figure 11

(1:1) (1:1) (1:1) are equivalent to other pair groups. Therefore, by swapping rows and columns, we avoid the already existing pair group positions in the diagram. Subsequent pairs also avoid previously existing pair group positions. The row-column swapping operation that avoids positions in the diagram is one of

6				1	
	6		1		
		6			1
	1		6		
1				6	
		1			6

Figure 12

Instead of the previous two row swaps between groups that already exist

6		1			
	6				1
1		6			
			6	1	
			1	6	
	1				6

Figure 13

Instead of the previous three row-to-column swaps that already exist

6	1				
1	6				
		6		1	
			6		1
		1		6	
			1		6

Figure 14

Avoid the first four existing row-to-column swaps as

6			1		
	6	1			
	1	6			
1			6		
				6	1
				1	6

Figure 15

By replacing the first five positions with 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively, it is easy to obtain this type of Latin square for pairs. The 6x6 Latin square that satisfies the first type of pairs is

6	4	3	5	2	1
4	6	5	2	1	3
3	5	6	1	4	2
5	2	1	6	3	4
2	1	4	3	6	5
1	3	2	4	5	6

Figure 16

As long as we know the group, the outer group can be used to quickly generate the Latin square with the above algorithm, so the key to the generation algorithm and the solution algorithm is to solve the relationship between the group.

The first type of Latin square exists only in a 2N by 2N space, and there is only one.

The second type of Latin square generation algorithm

The second category of Latin squares can be classified as containing complete sets of pairs. For instance, in a 5x5 Latin square centered around 5, all possible pair combinations (essentially every possible pairing of two symbols) are 12, 13,41,23,42, and 43. A 5x5 Latin square with a pair set

containing (4:4), (4:2), (4:1), (4:3), (1:2), (1:2), (1:3), (1:3), (2:3), and (2:3) exemplifies this complete set, as every possible pairing exists within it. Another scenario involves partial pair sets. Consider a 5×5 Latin square with pairs (1:4), (1:4), (1:4), (1:4), (1:4), (2:3), (2:3), (2:3), (2:3), and (2:3). While it lacks the complete pair set (1:2), (1:3), (4:2), and (4:3), it still contains at least one type II pair set.

The mathematical description is

Full combination type II Latin square:

If the permutation pair set $P' \subseteq P$ of type II Latin squares L contains all possible numerical combinations in set C (i. e., for any $(x, y) \in C$, there exists at least one permutation pair (x, y) or (y, x)), then L is termed a full permutation type II Latin square. In this case, the permutation pair set satisfies $C \subseteq \{(x, y) \mid (x, y) \in P' \text{ or } (y, x) \in P'\}$. Example: When $N = 5$ and the main line number is 5, $C = \{(1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 3), (2, 4), (3, 4)\}$. If the permutation pair set contains all six combinations mentioned above (allowing repetitions), it belongs to the full permutation category.

Some combinations are in the second category: Latin squares:

If the odd pair group set P' of the second type Latin square L only contains some digital combinations in C (that is, there are $(x, y) \in C$ such that both (x, y) and (y, x) are not in P), but at least contains one odd pair group, it is called the second type Latin square of partial combination L .

Example: When $N=5$, a Latin square pair group consists of five groups (1,4) and five groups (2,3), which only contain two combinations in C , belonging to the partial combination class. The rigor of classification is shown

Exclusivity: The first and second types of Latin squares have no intersection, because the former group is the same number, the latter contains at least one odd group; in the second type, all combinations and partial combinations are also exclusive, because the former contains all combinations, the latter only contains part.

Completeness: Any $N \times N$ Latin square belongs to either category 1 or category 2 (completely combined or partially combined).

Equivalence and Derivation Basis: Since permutations (x, y) and (y, x) are structurally equivalent under matrix permutation swaps (as evidenced by interchangeable row-column exchanges), these pairs can be treated as identical combinations when formulating counting formulas, thereby simplifying combinatorial analysis of set C . This classification establishes a structured theoretical framework for precise counting algorithms. By processing combination counts across distinct scenarios through recursive or divide-and-conquer approaches, we ultimately derive the total number of Latin squares .

The counting method I've adopted above is intuitive and easy to understand, but its practical derivation isn't ideal. This is mainly because some combinations in the second type of Latin squares require full transformations into the second type. Additionally, groups with identical Latin square structures might actually be two completely different Latin squares (which seems solvable here). I also considered directly counting equivalent Latin square groups, but faced similar challenges due to varying group structure configurations when using different symbol layouts as main lines. Another difficulty lies in constructing group structures that can not form Latin squares. During formula derivation, I kept exploring whether these non-formatted group structures actually represent a category and their potential connections. This led me to propose my conjecture, which shifted my research direction. My initial focus was solving precise counting for arbitrary $N \times N$ Latin squares. These are the difficulties and approaches I encountered, hoping they'll help you. Although no particularly useful formulas have been written yet (as they're not fully accurate), you could adopt alternative methods. The generation algorithm I provided earlier allows for other classification approaches for counting.

5. Algorithm for Latin Square Isomorphic Polynomial

Two Latin squares are isomorphic if they can be transformed into each other through row permutation, column permutation, or sign permutation. To determine their isomorphism in polynomial time, four theorems are required. These theorems are derived from the definitions of Latin squares, group properties, outer group properties, and homogroup properties.

Theorem 1: If all the pairs of Latin squares in two Latin squares are the same in group or outer group, then the set of pairs of Latin squares must be the same.

Theorem 2: Pairings that are mutually external can be transformed to sub-axes by row-column swapping in polynomial time.

Theorem 3: Two Latin squares are identical under subline transformations in the main line canonical form if they can be mutually transformed through row and column permutations without symbolic substitution. This means these Latin squares can be identified as mutual pairs for subline operations within polynomial time, thereby making them completely identical.

Theorem 4: In a Latin square, if swapping positions of symbols a and b results in positions c and d also being swapped, then the swap of symbols a and b is equivalent to swapping symbols c and d. This means that after swapping symbols a and b, symbols c and d are also swapped. Therefore, the Latin square remains unchanged, as swapping symbols a and b again swaps both c and d. Note that multiple swaps may be equivalent because swapping positions of symbols a and b sometimes involves more than one pair of symbols. As long as positions are swapped, their symbol swaps are considered equivalent. Theorem 3 can be easily derived from Theorem 1 and Theorem 2, while Theorem 3 provides a simple proof and Theorem 4 offers a concrete interpretation.

Give a 9 by 9 Latin square and a 6 by 6 Latin square to illustrate

9	2	4	1	8	3	5	7	6
1	9	7	8	2	4	6	3	5
8	6	9	7	3	5	1	4	2
6	3	1	9	5	8	4	2	7
3	4	2	6	9	7	8	5	1
2	8	5	4	6	9	7	1	3
5	7	3	2	4	1	9	6	8
7	5	8	3	1	6	2	9	4
4	1	6	5	7	2	3	8	9

Figure 17

Any permutation of the (4:6) group on the initial region transforms the group into the light red area in the diagram. The outer group of any (4:6) group(5:3) The row-column permutation is transformed to the secondary main line in blue in the figure. At this time, the same group of group (4:6) and group (5:3) is shown in the cyan part of Figure 8.

9	2	4	1	8	3	5	7	6
1	9	7	8	2	4	6	3	5
8	6	9	7	3	5	1	4	2
6	3	1	9	5	8	4	2	7
3	4	2	6	9	7	8	5	1
2	8	5	4	6	9	7	1	3
5	7	3	2	4	1	9	6	8
7	5	8	3	1	6	2	9	4
4	1	6	5	7	2	3	8	9

Figure 18. Graph8.

9	2	4	1	8	3	5	7	6
1	9	7	8	2	4	6	3	5
8	6	9	7	3	5	1	4	2
6	3	1	9	5	8	4	2	7
3	4	2	6	9	7	8	5	1
2	8	5	4	6	9	7	1	3
5	7	3	2	4	1	9	6	8
7	5	8	3	1	6	2	9	4
4	1	6	5	7	2	3	8	9

Figure 19. Graph9.

The paired group (3:1) is the outer group of the paired group (4:6) and the paired group (5:3). The paired group (3:1) and the paired group (4:6) are shown in the light orange section of Figure 9. The paired group (3:1) and the paired group The same group (5:3) is shown in the brown part of Figure 9, so as above, the outer group also corresponds to the corresponding position.

9	2	4	1	8	3	5	7	6
1	9	7	8	2	4	6	3	5
8	6	9	7	3	5	1	4	2
6	3	1	9	5	8	4	2	7
3	4	2	6	9	7	8	5	1
2	8	5	4	6	9	7	1	3
5	7	3	2	4	1	9	6	8
7	5	8	3	1	6	2	9	4
4	1	6	5	7	2	3	8	9

Figure 20. Graph10.

6	5	1	3	4	2
1	6	5	2	3	4
5	1	6	4	2	3
3	2	4	6	1	5
2	4	3	5	6	1
4	3	2	1	5	6

Figure 21. Graph11.

It follows that when paired groups that are mutually external lie on the secondary mainline, their mutually external isomorphic groups are fixed at the corresponding positions. However, in odd-order Latin squares, there exists a region that does not correspond to either the dark blue or light blue sections shown in Figure 10. The fixed positions in this region are determined by the numbers or symbols between the external groups of the secondary mainline and the mainline.

The following is a specific explanation of Theorem 4 using the 6×6 Latin square as an example

3	5	2	1	4	6
5	3	6	4	2	1
1	4	3	2	6	5
2	6	1	3	5	4
4	1	5	6	3	2
6	2	4	5	1	3

Figure 22. Graph12.

The Latin square in Figure 13 is obtained by swapping the positions of group (1:2) in Figure 12

3	4	1	2	5	6
4	3	6	5	1	2
2	5	3	1	6	4
1	6	2	3	4	5
5	2	4	6	3	1
6	1	5	4	2	3

Figure 23. Graph13.

It can be observed that after the positions of numbers 1 and 2 are swapped, the positions of numbers 4 and 5 also swap. In fact, not only do numbers 4 and 5 swap positions, but numbers 5 and 6 also swap positions, as shown in Figure 14.

3	6	1	2	4	5
6	3	5	4	1	2
2	4	3	1	5	6
1	5	2	3	6	4
4	2	6	5	3	1
5	1	4	6	2	3

Figure 24. Graph14.

Now I’m going to use the 6 by 6 Latin square to show you how to do the Latin square isomorphic polynomial algorithm

1. First, compare the group structure of all numbers (symbols) as the main line. Look at the 4 A Latin grid and the 18A Latin grid.The group structure of numbers (symbols) as the main line in the 4A Latin grid is

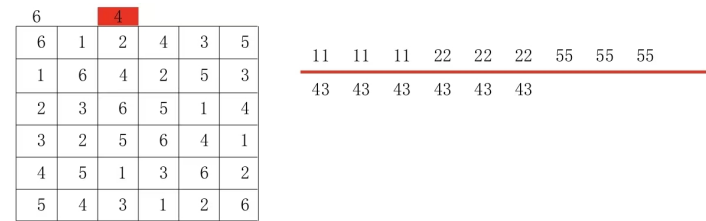


Figure 25

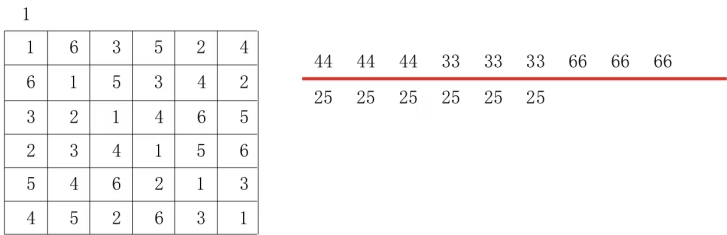
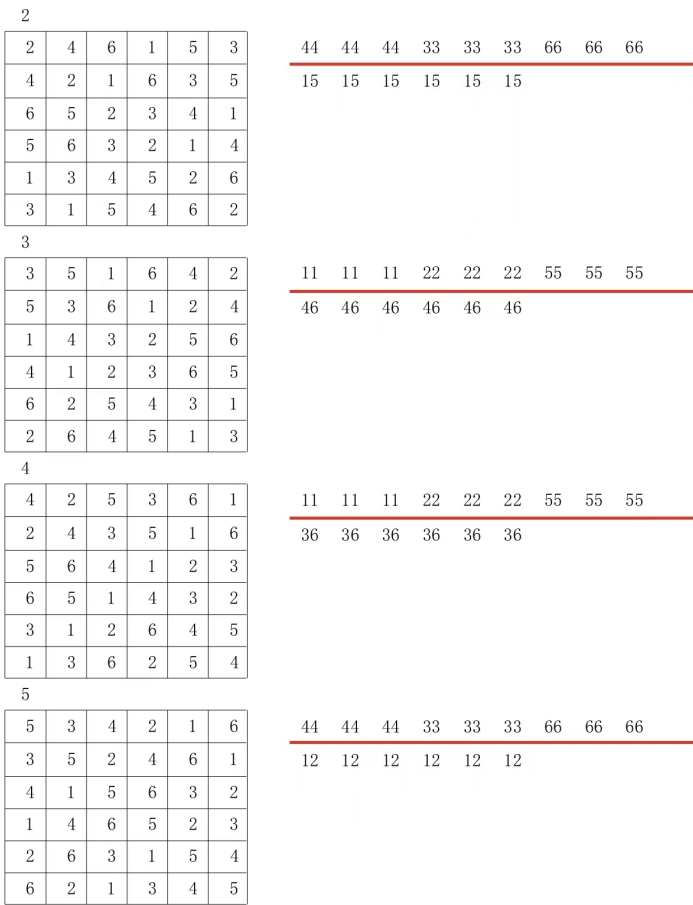


Figure 26



3

3	5	1	6	4	2
5	3	6	1	2	4
1	4	3	2	5	6
4	1	2	3	6	5
6	2	5	4	3	1
2	6	4	5	1	3

11 11 11 22 22 22 55 55 55

46 46 46 46 46 46

4

4	2	5	3	6	1
2	4	3	5	1	6
5	6	4	1	2	3
6	5	1	4	3	2
3	1	2	6	4	5
1	3	6	2	5	4

11 11 11 22 22 22 55 55 55

36 36 36 36 36 36

5

5	3	4	2	1	6
3	5	2	4	6	1
4	1	5	6	3	2
1	4	6	5	2	3
2	6	3	1	5	4
6	2	1	3	4	5

44 44 44 33 33 33 66 66 66

12 12 12 12 12 12

Figure 27

18A Latin square numbers (symbols) as the main line group structure are respectively

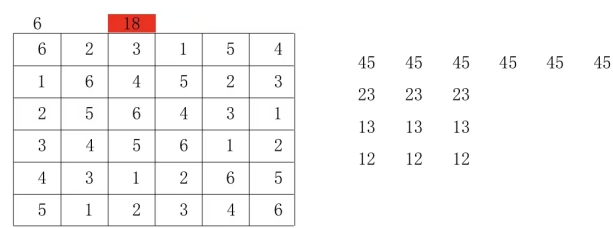


Figure 28

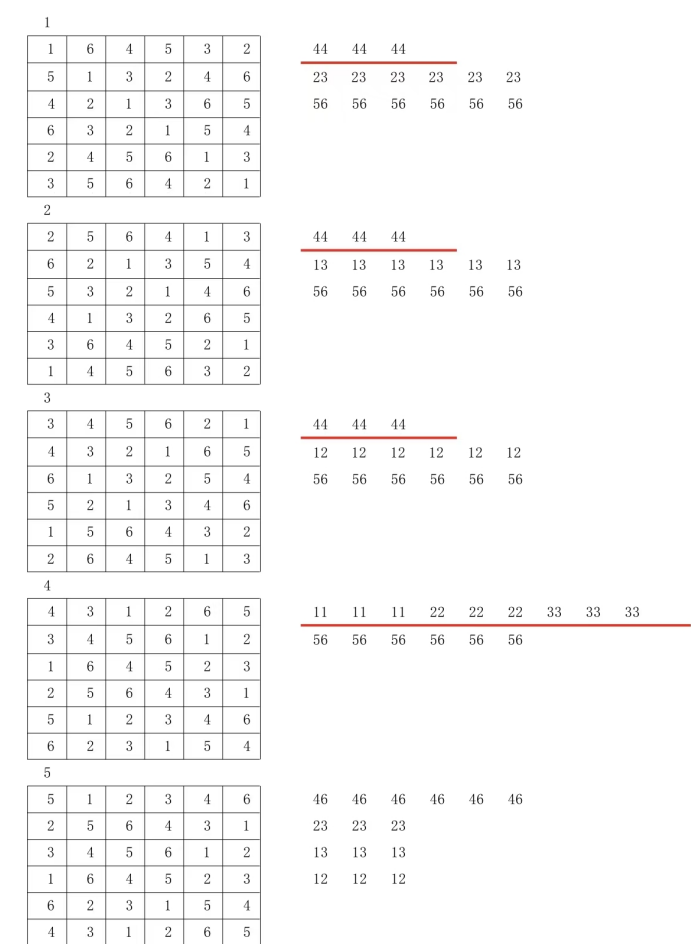


Figure 29

It can be immediately observed that the group structure of 4A Latin Grid using all numbers as main lines differs entirely from that of 18A Latin Grid. This directly proves that 4A and 18A Latin Grids are not isomorphic, with a time complexity of $2n^3$, as the differing group structures cannot be resolved through numerical substitution. The group structure of 4A Latin Grid using all symbols as main lines remains identical. Such Latin Grids may possess unexpected algebraic properties due to their exquisite symmetry, which I will further investigate in subsequent studies.

2.The Latin grid structure with all symbols forms the same main line grouping structure such as the 9A Latin grid and the 11A Latin grid. The 9A Latin grid maintains identical main line grouping structures for all numbers.

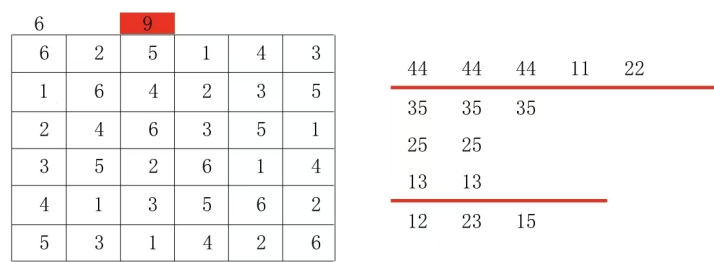


Figure 30

11A The Latin grid has all the numbers as the main line and the group structure is also the same

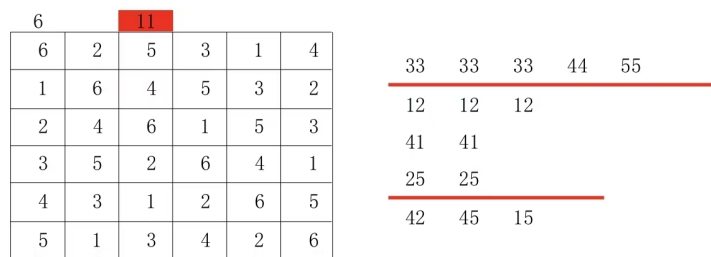


Figure 31

Next, align the 9A Latin Grid with the 11A Latin Grid by matching their paired sets, then select identical outer groups for the secondary mainline. In the 11A Latin Grid: swap positions 4 and 3, then swap positions 3 and 1 (note that this is the swapped version of 3), followed by swapping positions 2 and 5. This alignment ensures the 9A and 11A Latin Grids share identical paired sets.

9A Latin square

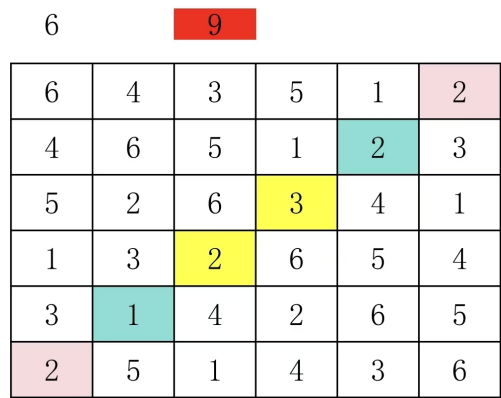


Figure 32

11A Latin square

6

11

6	5	4	1	3	2
3	6	5	4	2	1
4	2	6	3	1	5
1	4	2	6	5	3
5	1	3	2	6	4
2	3	1	5	4	6

Figure 33

It has been observed that all pair groups in these two Latin squares exhibit symmetry about the secondary axis. Let me propose a hypothesis: If the primary axis group structure of all symbols in both Latin squares is identical, then their pair groups would also be symmetrical about the secondary axis. However, for configurations like 9A and 11 A Latin squares, such symmetry through the secondary axis would result in mirror images. While my digitally transformed version of 9A maintains the same primary axis group structure, its pair groups are not symmetric about the secondary axis. This phenomenon holds true for other Latin squares. The symmetry’s inherent beauty compels me to persistently seek proof, with potential complete documentation of this hypothesis in future versions. Subsequent testing will verify whether digital transformations alter the pair group structures.

The set of pairs is

44	44	44	11	22
35	35	35		
25	25			
13	13			
12	23	15		

Figure 34

For example, 4 and 1 are replaced to get

11	11	11	44	22
35	35	35		
25	25			
43	43			
42	23	45		

Figure 35

The structure of the group set remains unchanged as long as the main line configuration stays consistent. Therefore, the 9A and 11A Latin squares cannot undergo numerical substitution. As the number of rows increases, the proportion of these Latin squares grows significantly. My random sampling tests on 9×9 Latin squares consistently revealed this pattern, which is evident in their group set structures. Numerical substitution does alter the group structure, and according to Theorem 3, 9A

and 11A Latin squares are not isomorphic. However, some configurations can be transformed through row-column permutations, provided no numerical substitution occurs. Theorem 3 remains applicable in such cases.

3.All symbols in the two Latin squares are grouped together with the same main line structure, and the group structure of the number replacement group is also unchanged. For example, 6A Latin square and 12A Latin square

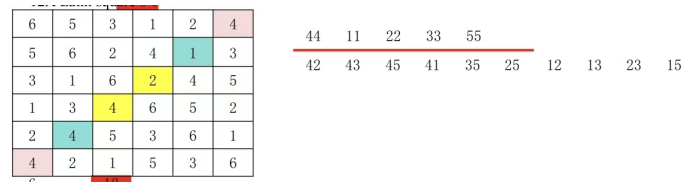


Figure 36

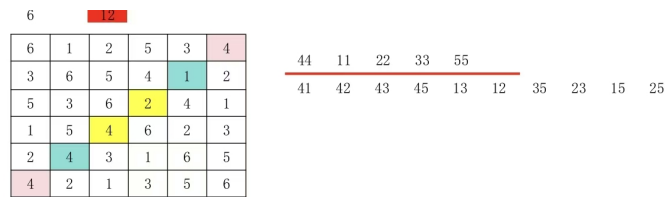


Figure 37

Through numerical substitution analysis, we observed that swapping numbers between 4 and 1, 4 and 2, 4 and 3, 4 and 5, 1 and 2, 1 and 3, 1 and 5, 2 and 3, 2 and 5, and 3 and 5 does not alter the group composition. However, this substitution modifies the relationships between outer groups and within groups. When the symbolic relationships between outer and within groups are aligned, they become isomorphic if the secondary main lines match; otherwise, they are not.

For example, 2 and 5 replace

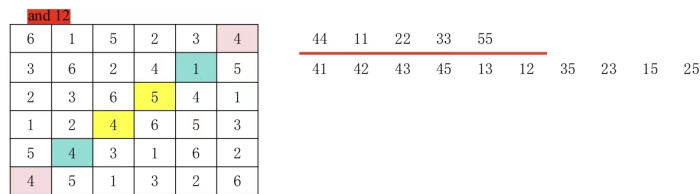


Figure 38

At this point, the same group of pair groups (4:1) becomes a pair group (4:2), or you can compare all the outer groups and all the same groups of the pair groups by sorting them out. The relationship between the outer groups and the same groups of all the pair groups can be made the same through symbolic replacement in polynomial time, which is also an operation in polynomial time.

4.Both Latin squares share identical group structures for their main line operations. The group structure remains unchanged under number permutation, and neither external nor internal group relationships between them are altered. According to Theorem 3, we can determine whether two Latin squares are isomorphic within polynomial time by examining sub-line transformations that exclude number permutation operations. For instance, when comparing Latin square 19A and 22A, it's crucial to avoid applying sub-line transformations during number permutation processes.

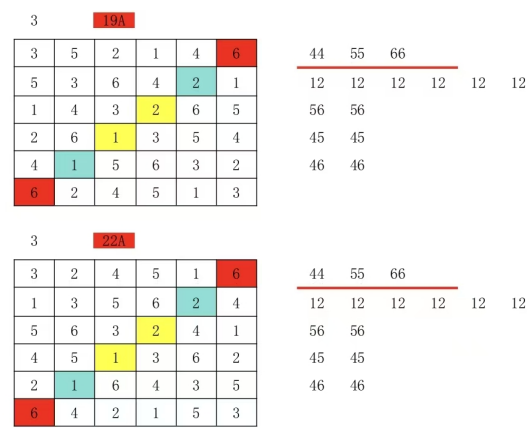


Figure 39

The secondary mainline does not contain the numbers 4 and 5 in the group. Therefore, these two numbers are swapped to check if they can be rearranged. If not, it indicates that these two Latin squares are not isomorphic. Note that in this step, only number combinations are excluded, meaning the total number of combinations is $(n^2-n)/2$.

If the secondary line in the group contains numbers to be replaced, it may transition to the primary line. However, the secondary line pair in the Latin grid must consist of replacement numbers, meaning each secondary line should contain exactly one number to be replaced. The secondary lines must not contain two replacement numbers simultaneously. For example, 10A Latin grid.

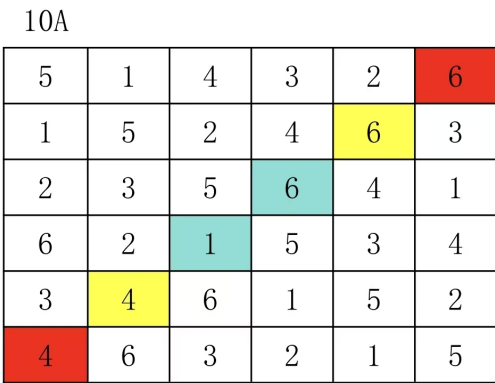


Figure 40

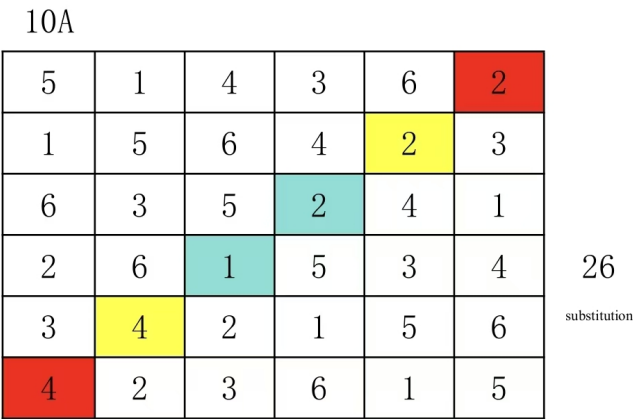


Figure 41

At this stage, I have tested that even 6×6 Latin squares can be processed in polynomial time. However, since there’s no guarantee that sub-rows will follow the aforementioned patterns, nor can we ensure that all two-number permutation tests will complete without being mapped to another, these two Latin squares remain isomorphic. As I haven’t provided proof of this, it might already be possible to solve Latin square isomorphism within polynomial time at this point. Nevertheless, I didn’t stop there and instead presented a polynomial-time algorithm for Latin square isomorphism that resolves all the aforementioned scenarios.

5.To solve the Latin Grid isomorphism problem in polynomial time, Theorem III serves as the cornerstone. While the secondary mainline structure of Latin Grid numbers undergoes transformation after digit replacement, its underlying modulo form remains unchanged. The key lies in identifying the corresponding secondary mainline modulo form within polynomial time. In the 19A Latin Grid framework, any digit replacement initially preserves its modulo form structure. This preservation mechanism is crucial for understanding the secondary mainline modulo form’s behavior.

19A					
3	5	4	1	2	6
5	3	2	4	6	1
4	1	3	6	5	2
2	6	5	3	1	4
1	4	6	2	3	5
6	2	1	5	4	3

Figure 42. Graph15.

Make a secondary main line for any group, then swap the numbers 6 and 5

19A					
3	6	4	1	2	5
6	3	2	4	5	1
4	1	3	5	6	2
2	5	6	3	1	4
1	4	5	2	3	6
5	2	1	6	4	3

65
substitution

Figure 43. Graph16.

As deduced from Theorem 3, the submainline modulo form remains invariant. In Figures 15 and 16, the steel-blue sections represent positions of group (6:6) and group (4:6) within their respective groups, as well as positions of group (5:5) and group (4:5) within their respective groups. Each steel-blue section position corresponds one-to-one with its corresponding permutation in both groups. Similarly, positions of group pairs on the submainline also maintain this one-to-one correspondence. Therefore, directly searching for the submainline modulo form enables solving Latin grid isomorphism problems within polynomial time. Below we detail the algorithmic steps using the 19A Latin grid as an illustration.

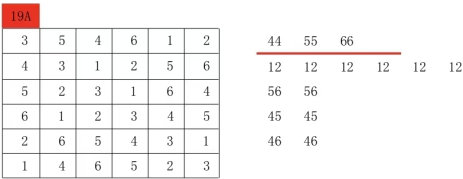


Figure 44. Graph17.

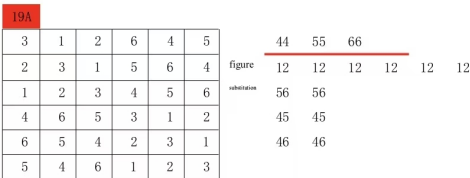


Figure 45. Graph18.

Figure 18 After digital replacement of the Latin grid, the submainline group selection in Figure 17 is (4:6), (4:5), and (4:4). Generally, the submainline group containing more identical numbers is selected, but it can also be randomly selected without affecting the result. However, this selection is convenient for processing and more intuitive

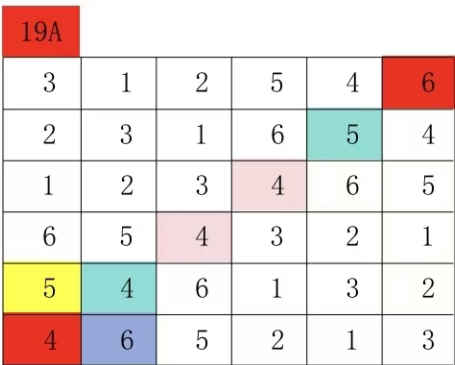


Figure 46. Graph19.

Next, select any replaceable number (the previously mentioned number substitution does not alter the group set) for corresponding purposes. Of course, structural correspondence is also required. Group (1:2) cannot correspond to Group (5:6) because these two groups have different quantities. Here, I choose numbers 4 and 6 to correspond. Therefore, the red pair group (4:6) in Figure 19 corresponds to the pair group (6:4), and the blue pair group (4:5) in Figure 19 corresponds to the pair group (6:5)

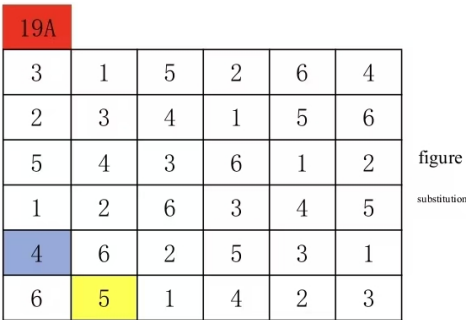


Figure 47. Graph20.

It is evident that the secondary mainline patterns in Figure 19 and Figure 20 differ significantly. Specifically, the yellow number 5 in Figure 20 should correspond to the steel-blue position, while the steel-blue number 4 should occupy the yellow position. Furthermore, the same group positions in

Group (4:6) and Group (4:5) of Figure 19 are paired as (2:1) (1:2), whereas in Figure 20, the corresponding group positions of Group (6:4) and (6:5) are (2:1) (2:1). If the secondary mainline patterns were identical, the number 2 would correspond to the number 1. Therefore, we must switch the positions accordingly.

19A						
3	1	2	5	6	4	
2	3	1	4	5	6	
1	2	3	6	4	5	figure
4	5	6	3	2	1	substitution
5	6	4	1	3	2	
6	4	5	2	1	3	

Figure 48. Graph21.

Figure 21 shows the correspondence between paired groups (6:4) and (6:5) in Latin squares, while Figure 19 illustrates the same relationship for paired groups (4:6) and (4:5). This correspondence establishes that numbers 4 correspond to number 6, 1 to number 1, 2 to number 2, and 5 to number 5. By continuing this process with subsequent paired groups along the secondary mainline until all pairs are completed, we can align the modulo forms of the secondary mainlines in both Latin squares. This entire process can be completed within polynomial time, with a time complexity of $5/16(n^5 - 2n^4 - n^3 + 2n^2) + 2n^3$

While this step is standard practice (as most would recognize), I'll still outline the original algorithm since it boasts lower time complexity. The core mechanism remains unchanged: when processing symbols in two Latin squares, the primary alignment group structure stays consistent, while the numerical permutation groups remain stable. However, the relationship between outer and inner groups within the same group structure becomes problematic. Although previously noted as inherently unstable, this scenario appears manageable. Through practical implementation, I discovered that aligning secondary alignment patterns across Latin squares proves effective. When secondary alignment patterns differ in modulo form, simply switch to another matching pattern. This approach directly identifies congruent secondary alignment patterns between Latin squares, likely due to their inherent properties. This discovery has fueled my ongoing exploration of deeper structural characteristics within Latin square systems. The proof process remains incomplete and will not be elaborated here.

This algorithm requires finding modular forms of the secondary mainlines, and the process of searching for such forms can be extremely time-consuming. Therefore, I propose a new algorithm.

6.This algorithm utilizes some previously established correct conclusions, and after rigorous proof on my part, it has been finally confirmed that the isotopy testing of arbitrary two Latin squares can be completed in polynomial time, thus successfully proving that the Latin square isotopy problem belongs to the complexity class P. If each number (symbol) of two Latin squares can correspond at the corresponding positions, the two Latin squares are obviously isotopic. This is also the core of the proposed algorithm: it only needs to determine whether each number (symbol) of the two Latin squares can maintain such correspondence at the corresponding positions, and the correspondence relationship between the numbers (symbols) can also be derived. Of course, a transformation is applied here, but the underlying principle remains unchanged.

When the two external groups A and B are in the secondary mainline state, there will be 4 pairs; these 4 pairs will belong to the same group as A and B, and they will be fixed at their corresponding positions.

In Graph 22 below, the corresponding group of the red external group (4:5) and the yellow external group (5:5) consists of four pairs, which are the blue parts in the figure.

3	2	4	1	6	5
1	3	6	2	5	4
5	4	3	6	1	2
2	1	5	3	4	6
6	5	2	4	3	1
4	6	1	5	2	3

Figure 49. Graph22.

In any Latin square, all two pairs that are mutually external groups can be transformed to the positions of the red external group (4:5) and the yellow external group (5:5) in Graph 22; accordingly, four pairs will be fixed at the corresponding positions (i.e., the blue positions in Graph 22), and these four pairs are the corresponding group of the two external groups.

Transform all such mutually external pairs to the positions of the red external group (4:5) and the yellow external group (5:5) in Graph 22, and record the positions of the four pairs—these four pairs are the corresponding group of the two mutually external pairs. From the recorded information, we can determine the distribution of numbers (symbols) at these fixed positions when the mutually external pairs are placed at the two positions. By directly comparing whether all numbers (symbols) at the fixed positions have corresponding matches, and whether the sets of external groups for all pairs of the two Latin squares can also correspond, we can conclude: if all numbers (symbols) can be matched, the two Latin squares are isotopic. All the above steps can be completed in polynomial time.

However, in odd Latin squares, additional information needs to be incorporated. This is because relying solely on mutually external groups fails to obtain the fixed position information of all numbers or symbols. In Graph 23, the yellow pair (3:5) and the blue pair (8:7) are only the corresponding group of the red pair (4:4) on the secondary mainline.

9	1	6	7	3	8	4	2	5
6	9	8	5	7	2	1	3	4
5	8	9	1	6	3	7	4	2
1	7	2	9	5	4	6	8	3
8	4	5	3	9	7	2	6	1
3	2	1	4	8	9	5	7	6
4	3	7	6	2	5	9	1	8
2	5	4	8	1	6	3	9	7
7	6	3	2	4	1	8	5	9

Figure 50. Graph23.

Processing Graph 23 yields Graph 24. When the red pair (4:4) is transformed to the position in Graph 24, the yellow pair (3:5) and the green pair (8:7) will automatically transform to fixed positions.

9	1	7	2	5	6	8	3	4
7	9	1	6	3	4	2	5	8
5	6	9	8	7	1	3	4	2
1	5	8	9	6	7	4	2	3
3	8	4	5	9	2	6	1	7
6	4	3	7	2	9	1	8	5
8	2	5	4	1	3	9	7	6
2	7	6	3	4	8	5	9	1
4	3	2	1	8	5	7	6	9

Figure 51. Graph24.

For all odd Latin squares, all pairs can satisfy this type of transformation. It is only necessary to sequentially transform all pairs of the two odd Latin squares to the same position on the secondary mainline, record the information of the fixed-position pairs, and combine the information of the fixed-position pairs when the mutually external groups are on the secondary mainline—thus completing the recording of all fixed-position pair information. These fixed positions cover every cell of the Latin square, which is equivalent to knowing the numbers or symbols at these fixed positions. By directly comparing whether all numbers or symbols at the fixed positions of the two odd Latin squares can be fully matched in a one-to-one correspondence, the isotopy testing of any two odd Latin squares can be completed in polynomial time.

Two 4×4 Latin squares are provided below to specifically illustrate the algorithm steps. They are Graph 25 and Graph 26 respectively. Due to the excessive number of colors causing confusion, we mark them with numbers—where the subsequent numbers are the marking numbers.

4	32	12	23
32	4	24	11
22	14	4	31
13	21	31	4

Figure 52. Graph25.

Note that the positions of mutually external groups on the secondary mainline must be the same. It is necessary to record the information of the mutually external groups’ positions on the secondary mainline and the information of the corresponding same groups’ fixed positions. The position information of the Latin square in Graph 25 is as follows

- (3:3)①(3:3)②:21③ 12④ 12① 21②
- (3:3)②(3:3)①:12④ 21③ 21① 12②
- (1:2)①(1:2)②:21③ 21④ 33① 33②
- (1:2)②(1:2)①:21④ 21③ 33① 33②
- (1:2)④(1:2)③:21① 21② 33② 33①
- (1:2)③(1:2)④:21② 21① 33② 33①

The set of external groups for all pairs in Graph 25 is

- (3:3)①:(3:3)②
- (3:3)②:(3:3)①
- (1:2)①:(1:2)②
- (1:2)②:(1:2)①

(1:2)④:(1:2)③
(1:2)③:(1:2)④

4	21	41	33
21	4	32	11
43	12	4	22
13	31	22	4

Figure 53. Graph26.

The position information of the Latin square in Graph 26 is as follows

(2:2)①(2:2)②:13② 31③ 31① 13②
(2:2)②(2:2)①:31③ 13② 13① 31④
(1:3)④(1:3)①:31② 31③ 22② 22①
(1:3)①(1:3)④:31③ 31② 22② 22①
(1:3)②(1:3)③:31① 31④ 22① 22②
(1:3)③(1:3)②:31④ 31① 22① 22②

The set of external groups for all pairs in Graph 26 is

(2:2)①:(2:2)②
(2:2)②:(2:2)①
(1:3)④:(1:3)①
(1:3)①:(1:3)④
(1:3)②:(1:3)③
(1:3)③:(1:3)②

Actually, it is possible to mark down to each individual number—here I only marked down to each pair.By checking the information of these fixed-position pairs, all numbers are in a one-to-one correspondence; thus, the Latin square in Graph 25 is isotopic to that in Graph 26.

When two mutually external pairs are at positions A and B on the secondary mainline, the numbers in their position information are in one-to-one correspondence with those of the mutually external pairs at positions A and B on the secondary mainline of the other Latin square. As long as the positions of the two mutually external pairs in the two Latin squares are maintained, the numbers in the position information at any position on the secondary mainline are also in one-to-one correspondence. Thus, it is only necessary to fix the mutually external pairs at two specific positions on the secondary mainline to obtain the information of all fixed-position pairs, which strictly correspond to each cell of the Latin square. Of course, additional processing must be incorporated for odd Latin squares—since some cells are not mapped to, as mentioned earlier. Through such processing, the information of fixed-position pairs can be obtained, which means knowing the numbers or symbols at these fixed positions. By directly comparing the fixed-position information of the two Latin squares, the isotopy testing of any two Latin squares can be completed in polynomial time. Therefore, the Latin square isotopy problem can be solved in polynomial time with my algorithm, and I have rigorously proven that my algorithm is a polynomial-time algorithm for Latin square isotopy.

As shown in Graph 27, A' and B' denote the processed Latin squares.

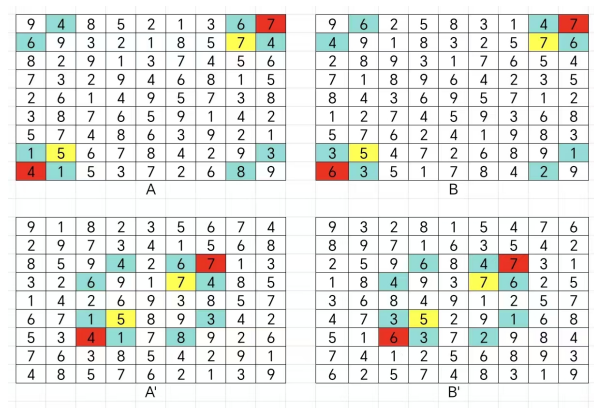


Figure 54. Graph27.

6. Polynomial-Time Algorithm for 0-1 Matrix Isomorphism

The algorithm is intended to identify the mapping relationships for all pairs of the two Latin squares. As this part was not specified previously, a detailed supplement is provided herein.

In fact, the change of positions of pairs in Latin squares is essentially the simultaneous permutation of rows and columns. Therefore, it can be represented by a 0-1 matrix, and the Latin square isomorphism problem can be reduced to the 0-1 matrix isomorphism problem. Next, we elaborate using the 0-1 matrix, in which the concepts of pair, external group, and group are also employed.

A 0-1 matrix is isomorphic to a graph. Permuting the vertices of a graph corresponds to permuting the rows and columns of its 0-1 matrix. Therefore, the pairs formed by the outermost rows and columns can serve as the signature for matching and can also be regarded as pair coordinates.

Next, we present two 0-1 matrices to illustrate the algorithm steps in detail. These two 0-1 matrices represent a 7-gon graph.

Graph 29 represents the 0-1 matrix A, and the pairs and their corresponding pair coordinates of the 0-1 matrix A are as follows. For convenience, the suffix "A" is added to each pair.

A	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	0	12	03	04	05	06	14
2	12	0	13	07	08	09	011
3	03	13	0	15	010	012	013
4	04	07	15	0	16	014	015
5	05	08	010	16	0	17	016
6	06	09	012	014	17	0	18
7	14	011	013	015	016	18	0

Figure 55. Grap29.

- A3(1:1): A2(1:1) A3(0:0) A11(0:0) A13(0:0)
- A7(0:0): A2(1:1) A4(0:0) A11(0:0) A15(0:0)
- A8(0:0): A2(1:1) A5(0:0) A11(0:0) A16(0:0)
- A9(0:0): A2(1:1) A6(0:0) A11(0:0) A8(1:1)
- A5(1:1): A3(0:0) A4(0:0) A13(0:0) A15(0:0)
- A10(0:0): A3(0:0) A5(0:0) A13(0:0) A16(0:0)
- A12(0:0): A3(0:0) A6(0:0) A13(0:0) A8(1:1)
- A6(1:1): A4 (0:0) A5(0:0) A15(0:0) A16(0:0)
- A14(0:0): A4(0:0) A6(0:0) A15(0:0) A8(1:1)
- A7(1:1): A5(0:0): A6(0:0) A16 (0:0) A8(1:1)

Graph 30 represents the 0-1 matrix B, and the pairs and their corresponding pair coordinates of the 0-1 matrix B are as follows. For convenience, the suffix "B" is added to each pair.

B	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	0	02	13	04	05	06	14
2	02	0	12	15	03	08	010
3	13	12	0	07	09	011	013
4	04	15	07	0	012	16	014
5	05	03	09	012	0	17	18
6	06	08	011	16	17	0	015
7	14	010	013	014	18	015	0

Figure 56. Graph30.

B2(1:1): B2(0:0) B3(1:1) B10(0:0) B13(0:0)
B5(1:1): B2(0:0) B4(0:0) B10(0:0) B14(0:0)
B3(0:0): B2(0:0) B5(0:0) B10(0:0) B8(1:1)
B8(0:0): B2(0:0) B6(0:0) B10(0:0) B15(0:0)
B7(0:0): B3(1:1) B4(0:0) B13(0:0) B14(0:0)
B9(0:0): B3(1:1) B5(0:0) B13(0:0) B8(1:1)
B11(0:0): B3(1:1) B6(0:0) B13(0:0) B15(0:0)
B12(0:0): B4(0:0) B5(0:0) B14(0:0) B8(1:1)
B6(1:1): B4(0:0) B6(0:0) B14(0:0) B15(0:0)
B7(1:1): B5(0:0) B6(0:0) B8(1:1) B15(0:0)

Collate the mappings between the pairs and their corresponding pair coordinates of the two 0-1 matrices

In 0-1 matrix A, the pair coordinates or pair signatures of A3(1:1) consist of four pairs: A2(1:1), A3(0:0), A11(0:0), and A13(0:0).

In 0-1 matrix B, there are two pairs that correspond to the pair A3(1:1) in 0-1 matrix A, provided that they contain the same number of (1:1) pairs and (0:0) pairs.

By collating all pair mappings between the two 0-1 matrices, we can obtain

1. A3(1 : 1): A2(1 : 1), A3(0 : 0), A11(0 : 0), A13(0 : 0) $\mapsto$
 - B2(1 : 1): B2(0 : 0), B3(1 : 1), B10(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0)
 - B7(1 : 1): B5(0 : 0), B6(0 : 0), B8(1 : 1), B15(0 : 0)
1. A7(0 : 0): A2(1 : 1), A4(0 : 0), A11(0 : 0), A15(0 : 0) $\mapsto$
 - B3(0 : 0): B2(0 : 0), B5(0 : 0), B10(0 : 0), B8(1 : 1)
 - B7(0 : 0): B3(1 : 1), B4(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0)
 - B11(0 : 0): B3(1 : 1), B6(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0), B15(0 : 0)
 - B12(0 : 0): B4(0 : 0), B5(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0), B3(1 : 1)
1. A8(0 : 0): A2(1 : 1), A5(0 : 0), A11(0 : 0), A16(0 : 0) $\mapsto$
 - B3(0 : 0): B2(0 : 0), B5(0 : 0), B10(0 : 0), B8(1 : 1)
 - B7(0 : 0): B3(1 : 1), B4(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0)
 - B11(0 : 0): B3(1 : 1), B6(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0), B15(0 : 0)
 - B12(0 : 0): B4(0 : 0), B5(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0), B3(1 : 1)
1. A9(0 : 0): A2(1 : 1), A6(0 : 0), A11(0 : 0), A8(1 : 1) $\mapsto$
 - B9(0 : 0): B3(1 : 1), B5(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0), B8(1 : 1)
1. A5(1 : 1): A3(0 : 0), A4(0 : 0), A13(0 : 0), A15(0 : 0) $\mapsto$

- $B5(1 : 1): B2(0 : 0), B4(0 : 0), B10(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0)$
 - $B6(1 : 1): B4(0 : 0), B6(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0), B15(0 : 0)$
1. $A10(0 : 0): A3(0 : 0), A5(0 : 0), A13(0 : 0), A16(0 : 0) \mapsto$
 - $B8(0 : 0): B2(0 : 0), B6(0 : 0), B10(0 : 0), B15(0 : 0)$
 1. $A12(0 : 0): A8(1 : 1), A3(0 : 0), A6(0 : 0), A13(0 : 0) \mapsto$
 - $B3(0 : 0): B2(0 : 0), B5(0 : 0), B10(0 : 0), B8(1 : 1)$
 - $B7(0 : 0): B3(1 : 1), B4(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0)$
 - $B11(0 : 0): B3(1 : 1), B6(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0), B15(0 : 0)$
 - $B12(0 : 0): B4(0 : 0), B5(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0), B3(1 : 1)$
 1. $A6(1 : 1): A4(0 : 0), A5(0 : 0), A15(0 : 0), A16(0 : 0) \mapsto$
 - $B5(1 : 1): B2(0 : 0), B4(0 : 0), B10(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0)$
 - $B6(1 : 1): B4(0 : 0), B6(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0), B15(0 : 0)$
 1. $A14(0 : 0): A8(1 : 1), A4(0 : 0), A6(0 : 0), A15(0 : 0) \mapsto$
 - $B3(0 : 0): B2(0 : 0), B5(0 : 0), B10(0 : 0), B8(1 : 1)$
 - $B7(0 : 0): B3(1 : 1), B4(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0)$
 - $B11(0 : 0): B3(1 : 1), B6(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0), B15(0 : 0)$
 - $B12(0 : 0): B4(0 : 0), B5(0 : 0), B14(0 : 0), B3(1 : 1)$
 1. $A7(1 : 1): A8(1 : 1), A5(0 : 0), A6(0 : 0), A16(0 : 0) \mapsto$
 - $B2(1 : 1): B2(0 : 0), B3(1 : 1), B10(0 : 0), B13(0 : 0)$
 - $B7(1 : 1): B5(0 : 0), B6(0 : 0), B8(1 : 1), B15(0 : 0)$

The External Group of all pairs in the 0-1 matrix A is

1. $A3(1 : 1): A6(1 : 1), A14(0 : 0), A7(1 : 1)$
2. $A7(0 : 0): A7(1 : 1), A10(0 : 0), A12(0 : 0)$
3. $A8(0 : 0): A12(0 : 0), A14(0 : 0), A5(1 : 1)$
4. $A9(0 : 0): A5(1 : 1), A10(0 : 0), A6(1 : 1)$
5. $A5(1 : 1): A8(0 : 0), A9(0 : 0), A7(1 : 1)$
6. $A10(0 : 0): A7(0 : 0), A9(0 : 0), A14(0 : 0)$
7. $A12(0 : 0): A7(0 : 0), A8(0 : 0), A6(1 : 1)$
8. $A6(1 : 1): A3(1 : 1), A12(0 : 0), A9(0 : 0)$
9. $A14(0 : 0): A3(1 : 1), A10(0 : 0), A8(0 : 0)$
10. $A7(1 : 1): A5(1 : 1), A7(0 : 0), A3(1 : 1)$

The Group in 0-1 matrix A is

1. $A3(1 : 1): A7(0 : 0), A8(0 : 0), A9(0 : 0), A5(1 : 1), A10(0 : 0), A12(0 : 0)$
2. $A7(0 : 0): A8(0 : 0), A9(0 : 0), A3(1 : 1), A6(1 : 1), A14(0 : 0), A5(1 : 1)$
3. $A8(0 : 0): A9(0 : 0), A3(1 : 1), A7(0 : 0), A7(1 : 1), A10(0 : 0), A6(1 : 1)$
4. $A5(1 : 1): A3(1 : 1), A10(0 : 0), A12(0 : 0), A7(0 : 0), A6(1 : 1), A14(0 : 0)$
5. $A9(0 : 0): A3(1 : 1), A8(0 : 0), A7(0 : 0), A12(0 : 0), A7(1 : 1), A14(0 : 0)$
6. $A10(0 : 0): A3(1 : 1), A5(1 : 1), A12(0 : 0), A8(0 : 0), A6(1 : 1), A7(1 : 1)$
7. $A12(0 : 0): A3(1 : 1), A5(1 : 1), A10(0 : 0), A9(0 : 0), A14(0 : 0), A7(1 : 1)$
8. $A6(1 : 1): A5(1 : 1), A7(0 : 0), A14(0 : 0), A10(0 : 0), A8(0 : 0), A7(1 : 1)$
9. $A14(0 : 0): A5(1 : 1), A7(0 : 0), A6(1 : 1), A12(0 : 0), A9(0 : 0), A7(1 : 1)$
10. $A7(1 : 1): A6(1 : 1), A10(0 : 0), A8(0 : 0), A14(0 : 0), A12(0 : 0), A9(0 : 0)$

The External Group in 0-1 matrix B is

1. $B2(1 : 1): B12(0 : 0), B6(1 : 1), B7(1 : 1)$
2. $B5(1 : 1): B7(1 : 1), B9(0 : 0), B11(0 : 0)$
3. $B3(0 : 0): B11(0 : 0), B6(1 : 1), B7(0 : 0)$

- 4. B8(0 : 0): B7(0 : 0), B9(0 : 0), B12(0 : 0)
- 5. B7(0 : 0): B3(0 : 0), B8(0 : 0), B7(1 : 1)
- 6. B9(0 : 0): B8(0 : 0), B5(1 : 1), B6(1 : 1)
- 7. B11(0 : 0): B5(1 : 1), B3(0 : 0), B12(0 : 0)
- 8. B12(0 : 0): B2(1 : 1), B11(0 : 0), B8(0 : 0)
- 9. B6(1 : 1): B2(1 : 1), B9(0 : 0), B3(0 : 0)
- 10. B7(1 : 1): B7(0 : 0), B5(1 : 1), B2(1 : 1)

The Group in 0-1 matrix B is

- 1. B2(1 : 1): B5(1 : 1), B3(0 : 0), B8(0 : 0), B7(0 : 0), B9(0 : 0), B11(0 : 0)
- 2. B5(1 : 1): B3(0 : 0), B8(0 : 0), B2(1 : 1), B12(0 : 0), B6(1 : 1), B7(0 : 0)
- 3. B3(0 : 0): B8(0 : 0), B2(1 : 1), B5(1 : 1), B7(1 : 1), B9(0 : 0), B12(0 : 0)
- 4. B8(0 : 0): B2(1 : 1), B5(1 : 1), B3(0 : 0), B11(0 : 0), B6(1 : 1), B7(1 : 1)
- 5. B7(0 : 0): B2(1 : 1), B9(0 : 0), B11(0 : 0), B5(1 : 1), B12(0 : 0), B6(1 : 1)
- 6. B9(0 : 0): B2(1 : 1), B11(0 : 0), B7(0 : 0), B3(0 : 0), B7(1 : 1), B12(0 : 0)
- 7. B11(0 : 0): B2(1 : 1), B7(0 : 0), B9(0 : 0), B8(0 : 0), B6(1 : 1), B7(1 : 1)
- 8. B12(0 : 0): B7(0 : 0), B5(1 : 1), B6(1 : 1), B9(0 : 0), B3(0 : 0), B7(1 : 1)
- 9. B6(1 : 1): B7(0 : 0), B5(1 : 1), B12(0 : 0), B11(0 : 0), B8(0 : 0), B7(1 : 1)
- 10. B7(1 : 1): B12(0 : 0), B9(0 : 0), B3(0 : 0), B6(1 : 1), B11(0 : 0), B8(0 : 0)

In the 0-1 matrix A, the External Group of the pair A7(0:0) is A7(1:1), A10(0:0), A12(0:0).

In the 0-1 matrix A, the pair A7(0:0) corresponds to the pairs B3(0:0), B7(0:0), B11(0:0) and B12(0:0) in the 0-1 matrix B.

The External Group of B3(0:0) is B11(0:0), B6(1:1), B7(0:0).

The External Group of B11(0:0) is B5(1:1), B3(0:0), B12(0:0).

The External Group of B12(0:0) is B2(1:1), B11(0:0), B8(0:0).

A7(1:1) maps to B2(1:1) and B7(1:1).

A10(0:0) maps to B8(0:0).

A12(0:0) maps to B3(0:0), B7(0:0), B11(0:0) and B12(0:0).

Thus, we can conclude that A7(0:0) does not map to B3(0:0) and B11(0:0), but maps to B7(0:0) and B12(0:0).

Do the same for the Group to ensure consistency between the External Group and the Group.

After performing this operation on all pairs, the bipartite matching algorithm or the Hungarian algorithm can be applied to ensure that all secondary main lines of the two 0-1 matrices correspond to each other.

In previous work, the External Groups and Groups of the pairs of the two Latin squares correspond, and all secondary main lines can be fully matched. However, the four Groups at the fixed positions that are mutual External Groups do not correspond. Therefore, every four pairs at the fixed positions that are mutual External Groups must also correspond.

For example, in the Latin square shown in Grap 31 below:

3	5A	6	2E	1D	4B
4A	3	2A	6A	5A	1C
6	1A	3	5	4	2B
1E	4A	5	3	2F	6B
2D	6A	4	1F	3	5B
5B	2C	1B	4B	6B	3

Figure 57. Graph31.

The External Group of (5:5) is A(4:5), C(2:1), A(5:6), B(4:5), D(2:1), B(5:6).
Take any external group, such as A(5:6). The pairs on the secondary main line are mutual external groups, and the next external group on the secondary main line is the intersection of the two pairs.
The External Group of A(5:6) is (6:6), B(2:1), (5:5), B(4:5), E(2:1), B(4:6).
The intersection yields exactly one pair: B(4:5). If the External Groups and Groups of the matrices do not correspond, the secondary main lines cannot be matched. The correspondence of the secondary main lines is a prerequisite.
The combinations of External Groups must also correspond; that is, the four Groups at the fixed positions of the External Groups must correspond as well.
In 0-1 matrix A,
The External Group of A3(1:1) is A6(1:1), A14(0:0), A7(1:1).
The pair A3(1:1) and the pair A6(1:1) are permuted to the secondary main line. Pairs that are mutual external groups can be permuted to the secondary main line, as shown in Graph 32.

A	1	2	5	6	4	3	7
1	0	12	05	06	04	03	14
2	12	0	08	09	07	13	011
5	05	08	0	17	16	010	016
6	06	09	17	0	014	012	18
4	04	07	16	014	0	15	015
3	03	13	010	012	15	0	013
7	14	011	016	18	015	013	0

Figure 58. Graph32.

At this point, four pairs (which are the Groups of these two mutual External Groups) are fixed at the corresponding positions.
This can be denoted as A3(1:1) A6(1:1): A8(0:0), A7(0:0), A10(0:0), A5(1:1).
It should be noted that if the pairs of the two matrices can correspond at positions A and B of the secondary main line, then the pairs can also correspond at positions C and D of the secondary main line, as has been proved earlier.
Therefore, all pairs that are mutual external groups can be permuted row-wise and column-wise in pairs to the same positions on the secondary main line. Record these mutual external groups and the four pairs fixed at the corresponding positions.
Note that pair rotation is needed here. For instance, rotating the pair A3(1:1) in Graph 33 yields Graph 34.

A	1	2	5	6	4	3	7
1	0	12	05	06	04	03	14
2	12	0	08	09	07	13B	011
5	05	08	0	17	16B	010	016
6	06	09	17	0	014	012	18
4	04	07	16A	014	0	15	015
3	03	13A	010	012	15	0	013
7	14	011	016	18	015	013	0

Figure 59. Graph33.

A	1	3	5	6	4	2	7
1	0	03	05	06	04	12	14
3	03	0	010	012	15	13A	013
5	05	010	0	17	16	08	016
6	06	012	17	0	014	09	18
4	04	15	16	014	0	07	015
2	12	13B	08	09	07	0	011
7	14	013	016	18	015	011	0

Figure 60. Graph34.

This is denoted as A3(1:1) rotated A6(1:1): A10(0:0), A5(1:1), A8(0:0), A7(0:0).
If pair A6(1:1) is rotated, we obtain Graph 35 as follows:

A	1	2	4	6	5	3	7
1	0	12	04	06	05	03	14
2	12	0	07	09	08	13B	011
4	04	07	0	014	16A	15	015
6	06	09	014	0	17	012	18
5	05	08	16B	17	0	010	016
3	03	13A	15	012	010	0	013
7	14	011	015	18	016	013	0

Figure 61. Graph35.

This is denoted as A3(1:1) A6(1:1) rotated: A7(0:0), A8(0:0), A5(1:1), A10(0:0).
There are four such rotations, which are not listed here.

When organizing the records, rotated pairs and non-rotated pairs must be recorded separately, so that the correspondence between each pair can be identified later, for example:

The External Group of A3(1:1) is A6(1:1), A14(0:0), A7(1:1).
A3(1:1) A6(1:1): A8(0:0), A7(0:0), A10(0:0), A5(1:1)
A3(1:1) A6(1:1) rotated: A7(0:0), A8(0:0), A5(1:1), A10(0:0)
A3(1:1), A14(0:0): A9(0:0), A7(0:0), A12(0:0), A5(1:1)
A3(1:1), A14(0:0) rotated: A7(0:0), A9(0:0), A5(1:1), A12(0:0)
A3(1:1), A7(1:1): A9(0:0), A8(0:0), A12(0:0), A10(0:0)
A3(1:1), A7(1:1) rotated: A8(0:0), A9(0:0), A10(0:0), A12(0:0)

After recording these, we record another one.

The external group of A3(1:1) is A6(1:1), A14(0:0), A7(1:1).
A3(1:1) rotated, A6(1:1): A10(0:0), A5(1:1), A8(0:0), A7(0:0)
A3(1:1) rotated, A6(1:1) rotated: A5(1:1), A10(0:0), A7(0:0), A8(0:0)
A3(1:1) rotated, A14(0:0): A12(0:0), A5(1:1), A9(0:0), A7(0:0)
A3(1:1) rotated, A14(0:0) rotated: A5(1:1), A12(0:0), A7(0:0), A9(0:0)
A3(1:1) rotated, A7(1:1): A12(0:0), A10(0:0), A9(0:0), A8(0:0)
A3(1:1) rotated, A7(1:1) rotated: A8(0:0), A9(0:0), A10(0:0), A12(0:0)

All pairs need to be recorded; we will not elaborate further and just record one as an example.

External groups correspond to isomorphic groups, which eliminates some possible pair mappings, and this step further removes other possible pair mappings. The remaining feasible pair mappings are preserved, and the bipartite graph matching algorithm is then applied to determine whether there exists a bijection such that:

- Injective: Each pair in 0-1 matrix A maps to at most one pair in 0-1 matrix B, and each pair in 0-1 matrix B is mapped at most once. - Surjective: Each pair in 0-1 matrix B is mapped exactly once.

The time complexity is $\mathcal{O}(n^4)$.

Satisfying the correspondence between external groups and isomorphic groups, and ensuring the correspondence between secondary main line correspondences and the combined record information of external groups, guarantees that the 0-1 matrices are isomorphic.

The combined record information of the external groups of A3(1:1) can correspond to that of B2(1:1), and the correspondence between external groups and isomorphic groups also holds. For the secondary main line of 0-1 matrix A, each pair of groups of pairs can be placed at certain positions; for the secondary main line of 0-1 matrix B, each pair of groups of pairs can also be placed at the corresponding positions, and the combined record information of external groups corresponds—meaning that the four isomorphic groups at the fixed positions that are mutual external groups also correspond.

As an analogy, the secondary main line is like the trunk of a tree, while the combined record information of external groups is like its branches and leaves. If the secondary main lines correspond, the trunks correspond; if the combined record information of external groups corresponds, the branches and leaves correspond.

Finally, the bipartite graph matching algorithm is applied. Counting the number of bipartite graph matchings is a #P-complete problem, and thus counting the number of possible mappings of the graph is also a #P-complete problem.

7. A Fast and Accurate Algorithm for Filling the Square Grid

Given a Latin grid to be filled, it can be transformed into a line specification type. This approach enables the creation of N distinct group structures corresponding to N different group configurations. The system can efficiently generate group configurations satisfied by a symbol as the main line. However, the number of such group configurations depends on the quantity of given symbols. Given that N symbols form the main line configuration, these group structures should exhibit interconnections within the Latin grid. What are the relationships between external and internal connections among these group structures? I am currently conducting research by unfolding the Latin grid for analysis. These two challenges constitute the primary obstacles in solving the algorithm: 1. Uncertainty about which specific group configuration exists in the Latin grid to be filled; 2. Understanding the intergroup relationships (both external and internal) between groups. Solving this problem requires polynomial-time computation, as detailed in the first category of Latin grid generation algorithms within the precise counting framework. This demonstrates the connection between #P-complete and NP-complete problems, as both represent fundamental barriers in the counting domain. Therefore, I believe the key to resolving NP-complete issues lies precisely here.

While the two connections mentioned above remain unknown, I have developed alternative approaches. Since these constitute the primary barriers, we should focus on addressing them. To efficiently identify permutation sets, we generate all $N \times N$ Latin squares with non-repetitive row-column exchanges. The optimized generation algorithm strategy involves initially placing known permutation sets into the initial phase, then proceeding through similar algorithmic steps. As previously noted, there's no need to fully construct all permutation set structures in the construction area. Identifying the minimal set of permutation structures would significantly accelerate the algorithm. Regarding inter-group and intra-group relationships, we employ the construction area filling techniques from earlier algorithms to speed up computations. Since the solution algorithm and generation algorithm are mutually reinforcing, their mechanisms won't be elaborated here. The time complexity will remain undisclosed as potential optimizations may emerge if these connections are identified.

8. Summary and Description

While some conjectures in this paper remain unresolved, they do not affect the conclusions. Their resolution would be ideal, which will constitute one of my future research priorities. My main focus

will continue to be deriving precise counting formulas for Latin squares and optimizing algorithms for rapid solving of pending Latin square problems - essentially seeking connections between these areas. These challenges persist due to their immense computational demands and limited applicable conclusions, often requiring me to tackle them alone. The text incorporates numerous novel terms and concepts, avoiding standard academic jargon to maintain clarity. To mitigate potential information loss during machine translation, I have included diagrams and detailed algorithmic steps, ensuring both human comprehension and accuracy in machine-translated outputs.

The algorithm proposed in this paper may be submitted for patent protection in the future. To avoid potential adverse impacts, academic use, dissemination, and exchange of this algorithm, as well as its fair use in compliance with relevant norms, are fully permitted. If there are any deficiencies in this paper, they will be further revised and improved in subsequent research. Furthermore, academic breakthroughs require overcoming unimaginable pressures and difficulties, and are also inseparable from the protection and support of all parties. It is earnestly requested that all sectors respect my research work.

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