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# The Number of Crossings in a Regular Drawing of the Complete Bipartite Graph 

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#### Abstract

The regular drawing of the complete bipartite graph $K_{n, n}$ produces a striking pattern comprising simple and multiple crossings. We compute the number $c(n)$ of crossings and give an asymptotic estimate for this sequence.


## 1 Introduction

A regular drawing of the complete bipartite graph $K_{n, n}$ is obtained in the following way. Draw vertically $n$ uniformly spaced nodes on the left, draw vertically $n$ uniformly spaced nodes on the right, and join by straight lines the left and right nodes in all possible manners. A striking pattern appears, as in Figure 1.

This combinatorial pattern is one of many devised by ancient scholars - Ramon Lull (circa 1235-1316), Giordano Bruno (1548-1600) and Wilhem Leibniz (1646-1716) among others - who aimed at explaining phenomena in terms of extensive combinations of primordial entities. Athanasius Kircher (1601-1680) uses the $K_{n, m}$ pattern in several instances in his book Ars Magna Sciendi [1]. His drawing of $K_{18,18}$ is reproduced in the novel Foucault's Pendulum by Umberto Eco [2]. As the protagonists of the novel delve into esoteric matters, the $K_{n, n}$ pattern suggests to them that the Map would be reconstructed, provided that a device could compute all combinations.

Here we look more prosaically for a formula giving the number $c(n)$ of crossings in a regular drawing of $K_{n, n}$. Figure 1 displays the first values of $c(n)$.


Figure 1: Regular drawing of $K_{n, n}$ for $n=2,3,4,5$ and 10 , with the corresponding number $c(n)$ of crossings.

## 2 Simple and multiple crossings

Let us assume that nodes on the left have integer coordinates $(0, i), 1 \leq i \leq n$, and nodes on the right have integer coordinates $(1, j), 1 \leq j \leq n$.

We define an $(a, b)$-crossing as the intersection point of two lines, each joining a left node to a right, where $a$ is the distance between left nodes, $1 \leq a \leq n-1$, and $b$ is the distance between right nodes, $1 \leq b \leq n-1$.

Let $\langle i, a \mid j, b\rangle$ denote the $(a, b)$-crossing whose nodes have ordinates $i, i+a$ on the left, $1 \leq i<i+a \leq n$, and $j-b, j$ on the right, $1 \leq j-b<j \leq n$, as in Figure 2. When $a, b, i$, $j$ are understood from context, we shall abbreviate $\langle i, a \mid j, b\rangle$ as $\mathcal{C}$.

A crossing has multiplicity $m$ if it is the intersection of $m+1$ lines. It is simple if $m=1$ (two lines intersect), multiple if $m \geq 2$.

Proposition 1. For given $a$ and $b$, the $(a, b)$-crossings $\langle i, a \mid j, b\rangle$ have the same abscissa


Figure 2: An (a,b)-crossing.
$x=\frac{a}{a+b}$ when $a \leq b$, and $x=\frac{b}{a+b}$ when $a>b$, and ordinates $y=\frac{a j+b i}{a+b}$ with $1 \leq i \leq n-a$ and $b \leq j \leq n$.

Proof. By the theorem of Thales, $\frac{x}{a}=\frac{1-x}{b}$ gives the abscissa $x$, and $\frac{(i+a)-(j-b)}{1}=\frac{y-(j-b)}{\frac{b}{a+b}}$ gives the ordinate $y$.

Corollary 2. The $(a, b)$-crossing $\mathcal{C}$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$ and the $\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$-crossing $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ have the same abscissa if and only if there exists $d \geq 1$ such that $a^{\prime}=d a$ and $b^{\prime}=d b$.

Proof. If $\frac{a}{a+b}=\frac{a^{\prime}}{a^{\prime}+b^{\prime}}$ then $a b^{\prime}=b a^{\prime}$. As $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, $a$ divides $a^{\prime}$ and $b$ divides $b^{\prime}$, so that there exist $d \geq 1$ and $e \geq 1$ such that $a^{\prime}=d a, b^{\prime}=e b$. As $a b^{\prime}=b a^{\prime}$, we get $d=e$. The converse is obvious.

Corollary 3. When disregarding superimposition, the number of $(a, b)$-crossings is $(n-$ a) $(n-b)$.

Proof. From Proposition 1, $i$ can take $n-a$ values and $j$ can take $n-b$ values.
Proposition 4. Let $\mathcal{C}=\langle i, a \mid j, b\rangle$ be an $(a, b)$-crossing with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, and $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}=$ $\left\langle i^{\prime}, d a \mid j^{\prime}, d b\right\rangle a(d a, d b)$-crossing with $d \geq 1$. Then $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ are superimposed if and only if there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $i^{\prime}=i+k a$ and $j^{\prime}=j-k b$.

Proof. Crossings $\mathcal{C}$ and $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ have the same abscissa by Corollary 2. By Proposition 1, they have the same ordinate if and only if $a j+b i=a j^{\prime}+b i^{\prime}$, or $a\left(j-j^{\prime}\right)=b\left(i^{\prime}-i\right)$. As $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, the latter condition is equivalent to the existence of $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $i^{\prime}-i=k a$ and $j^{\prime}-j=-k b$.

Corollary 5. If an $(a, b)$-crossings is simple then $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Every multiple crossing contains an ( $a, b$ )-crossing such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$.

Proof. Assume that $\mathcal{C}=\langle i, a \mid j, b\rangle$ is simple and that there exist $d \geq 2$ and $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}$ such that $a=d a^{\prime}, b=d b^{\prime}$. Then the $\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$-crossing $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}=\left\langle i^{\prime}, a^{\prime} \mid j^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right\rangle$ with $i^{\prime}=i$ and $j^{\prime}=j$ is superimposed on $\mathcal{C}$ by Proposition 4, contradicting simplicity. Hence $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Let $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}=\left\langle i, a^{\prime} \mid j, b^{\prime}\right\rangle$ be an $\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$-crossing contained in a multiple crossing. We set $d=\operatorname{gcd}\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)$, $a=a^{\prime} / d$, and $b=b^{\prime} / d$. Then the crossing $\mathcal{C}=\langle i, a \mid j, b\rangle$ has the desired properties by Proposition 4.


Figure 3: A multiple crossing.

Proposition 6. Suppose $\mathcal{C}$ is an $(a, b)$-crossing with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, superimposed to a multiple crossing $\mathcal{M}$ of multiplicity $m \geq 2$. Then $1 \leq m a \leq n-1$ and $1 \leq m b \leq n-1$. In particular, $2 a \leq n-1$ and $2 b \leq n-1$. Moreover, $\mathcal{M}$ is the superimposition of $m(a, b)$-crossings, $m-1$ $(2 a, 2 b)$-crossings, $m-2(3 a, 3 b)$-crossings, $\ldots$, and a single ( $m a, m b$ )-crossing.

Figure 3 displays a crossing of multiplicity $m=3$. It is the superimposition of three $(2,3)$-crossings, two ( 4,6 )-crossings and one ( 6,9 )-crossing.

Proof. Among the $(a, b)$-crossings contained in $\mathcal{M}$, we select $\langle i, a \mid j, b\rangle$ with $i+a \leq n$ and $1 \leq j-b$, such that $i$ is minimum and $j$ is maximum. For $k=1, \ldots, m$, the $m(a, b)$-crossings $\langle i+(k-1) a, a \mid j-(k-1) b, b\rangle$ are superimposed to $\mathcal{M}$ by Proposition 4. For $k=m, i+m a \leq n$ gives $m a \leq n-i \leq n-1$, while $1 \leq j-m b$ and $j \leq n$ give $m b \leq n-1$. Moreover, for $k=1, \ldots, m-1$, the $m-1(2 a, 2 b)$-crossings $\langle i+(k-1) a, 2 a \mid j-(k-1) b, 2 b\rangle$ are superimposed to $\mathcal{M}, \ldots$, and the $(m a, m b)$-crossing $\langle i, m a \mid j, m b\rangle$ is superimposed to $\mathcal{M}$.

Corollary 7. The multiplicity of a $(u, v)$-crossing that is not superimposed to another $(u, v)$ crossing, is the greatest common divisor of $u$ and $v$.
Proof. This is a consequence of Corollary 5 and Proposition 6.
Proposition 8. The number of crossings of abscissa $\frac{a}{a+b}$ (or $\frac{b}{a+b}$ ) with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$ is

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
(n-a)(n-b)-(n-2 a)(n-2 b), & \text { if } 2 a \leq n-1 \text { and } 2 b \leq n-1 ; \\
(n-a)(n-b), & \text { otherwise. }
\end{array}
$$

Proof. The crossings of abscissa $\frac{a}{a+b}$ are simple or multiple. If they are all simple, their number is $(n-a)(n-b)$ by Corollary 3 , and this occurs when $2 a>n-1$ or $2 b>n-1$ by Proposition 6. If some crossings are simple and others are multiple, then $2 a \leq n-1$ and $2 b \leq n-1$ by Proposition 6. Each simple crossing is counted one time in the first term, and 0 times in the second term. Indeed, the second term is the number of $(2 a, 2 b)$-crossings (disregarding superimposition), and they are not simple by Corollary 5. By Proposition 6, each multiple crossing of multiplicity $m$ contributes $m$ to the first term and $m-1$ to the second term, hence contributes $m-(m-1)=1$ to the tally.

## 3 Number of crossings

We now state our main result.
Proposition 9. The number $c(n)$ of crossings in a regular drawing of the complete bipartite graph $K_{n, n}$ is

$$
c(n)=\sum_{\substack{1 \leq a, b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}}(n-a)(n-b)-\sum_{\substack{1 \leq 2 a, 2 b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}}(n-2 a)(n-2 b) .
$$

Proof. As each crossing in the drawing contains an $(a, b)$-crossing with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$ by Corollary 5, we count the number of crossings using Proposition 8. Summing over all $(a, b)$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, within the bounds of validity, gives the result.

An alternative expression for $c(n)$ has been proposed by Philippe Paclet [3]:
Proposition 10. Let $f(i, j)$ be the number of irreducible fractions $p / q$ with $1 \leq p \leq i$ and $1 \leq q \leq j$, and $f^{\prime}(i, j)$ the number of rationals admitting at least one reducible form $p / q$ with $1 \leq p \leq i$ and $1 \leq q \leq j$. Then

$$
c(n)=\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq n-1}\left(f(i, j)-f^{\prime}(i, j)\right) .
$$

Proof. We denote

$$
s(n)=\sum_{\substack{1 \leq a, b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}}(n-a)(n-b), s^{\prime}(n)=\sum_{\substack{1 \leq 2 a, 2 b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}}(n-2 a)(n-2 b),
$$

so that $c(n)=s(n)-s^{\prime}(n)$. By the definition of $f$,

$$
\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq n-1} f(i, j)=\sum_{\substack{1 \leq i, j \leq n-1}} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq a \leq i \\ 1 \leq b \leq j \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}} 1=\sum_{\substack{1 \leq a, b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}} \sum_{\substack{a \leq i \leq n-1 \\ b \leq j \leq n-1}} 1=\sum_{\substack{1 \leq a, b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}}(n-a)(n-b)=s(n) .
$$

Similarly,

$$
\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq n-1} f^{\prime}(i, j)=\sum_{\substack{1 \leq c, d \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{scd}(c, d) \neq 1}} \sum_{\substack{c \leq i \leq n-1 \\ d \leq j \leq n-1}} 1 .
$$

The set $\{(c, d) ; 1 \leq c, d \leq n-1, \operatorname{gcd}(c, d) \neq 1\}$ is identical to the set $\{(a, b) ; 1 \leq 2 a, 2 b \leq$ $n-1, \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1\}$. Indeed, $\operatorname{gcd}(c, d) \neq 1$ is equivalent to the existence of $m \geq 2$ such that $c=m a, d=m b$, with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1,2 a \leq m a \leq n-1,2 b \leq m b \leq n-1$. We obtain

$$
\sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq n-1} f^{\prime}(i, j)=\sum_{\substack{1 \leq 2 a, 2 b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}}(n-2 a)(n-2 b)=s^{\prime}(n) .
$$

Sequence $s(n)$ is A115004 in Sloane [4]. Values of $c(n)$ are given in Table 1.

| $n$ | $s(n)$ | $s^{\prime}(n)$ | $c(n)$ | $d(n)$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | - | - | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 3 | 8 | 1 | 7 | 9 |
| 4 | 31 | 4 | 27 | 36 |
| 5 | 80 | 15 | 65 | 100 |
| 6 | 179 | 32 | 147 | 225 |
| 7 | 332 | 71 | 261 | 441 |
| 8 | 585 | 124 | 461 | 784 |
| 9 | 948 | 211 | 737 | 1296 |
| 10 | 1463 | 320 | 1143 | 2025 |
| 11 | 2136 | 499 | 1637 | 3025 |
| 12 | 3065 | 716 | 2349 | 4356 |
| 13 | 4216 | 999 | 3217 | 6084 |
| 14 | 5729 | 1328 | 4401 | 8281 |
| 15 | 7568 | 1799 | 5769 | 11025 |
| 16 | 9797 | 2340 | 7457 | 14400 |
| 17 | 12456 | 3023 | 9433 | 18496 |
| 18 | 15737 | 3792 | 11945 | 23409 |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |
| 50 | 948514 | 235680 | 712835 | 1600625 |
| $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |
| 100 | 15189547 | 3794060 | 11395487 | 24502500 |

Table 1: The number of crossings $c(n)=s(n)-s^{\prime}(n)$ in the regular $K_{n, n}$ pattern. The sequence of triangular numbers squared, $d(n)$, enumerates the crossings when disregarding multiplicity.

## 4 Asymptotics

When disregarding multiplicity, the number of crossings in the $K_{n, n}$ pattern is

$$
d(n)=\binom{n}{2}\binom{n}{2}=\frac{n^{2}(n-1)^{2}}{4},
$$

the square of the $n$th triangular number ( $\underline{\text { A000537 }}$ ).

Proposition 11. For large $n, c(n) \sim \frac{9}{2 \pi^{2}} d(n)$.
Proof. We write

$$
\sum_{1 \leq a, b \leq n-1}(n-a)(n-b)=n^{2} \sum 1-n \sum(a+b)+\sum a b
$$

with no condition of relative primality under the sums. We have

$$
\sum(n-a)(n-b)=\sum a b=\frac{n^{2}(n-1)^{2}}{4}=d(n) .
$$

Hence $n^{2} \sum 1-n \sum(a+b)=0$. We now sum with the condition $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. As the probability that two positive integers are relatively prime is $\frac{6}{\pi^{2}}$, for large $n$ :

$$
\sum_{\substack{1 \leq a, b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}} a b \sim \frac{6}{\pi^{2}} d(n), \text { and } n^{2} \sum_{\substack{1 \leq a, b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}} 1-n \sum_{\substack{1 \leq a, b \leq n-1 \\ \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}}(a+b) \sim 0 .
$$

Hence

$$
s(n) \sim \frac{6}{\pi^{2}} d(n)
$$

Let $m=\left\lfloor\frac{n+1}{2}\right\rfloor$, then

$$
\sum_{1 \leq a, b \leq m-1}(n-2 a)(n-2 b)=n^{2}(m-1)^{2}-2 m n(m-1)^{2}+4 \frac{m^{2}(m-1)^{2}}{4}
$$

We sum with the condition $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. For large $n, m \sim \frac{n}{2}$. As in the previous computation, the first two terms $\sim 0$, and the last term $s^{\prime}(n) \sim \frac{6}{\pi^{2}} 4 d\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) \sim \frac{6}{\pi^{2}} 4 \frac{d(n)}{16}$. We obtain

$$
s^{\prime}(n) \sim \frac{1}{4} s(n)
$$

and $c(n)=s(n)-s^{\prime}(n) \sim \frac{9}{2 \pi^{2}} d(n)$.
The equivalence $c(n) \sim \frac{9}{8 \pi^{2}} n^{4}$, deduced from Proposition 11, appears to give a better estimate of $c(n)$. However, the approximation $\pi \approx \frac{3}{2} \frac{n^{2}}{\sqrt{2 c(n)}}$ is not close; e.g., for $n=100$, the approximation is 3.1420 .

## 5 Concluding remarks

The regular drawing of $K_{n, n}$ can be considered an analogic device to compute the greatest common divisor of two positive integers $a$ and $b$. In the drawing, take $a$ units on the left, and $b$ units on the right. Consider the corresponding $(a, b)$-crossing $(i=0, j=b)$. Then the multiplicity $m$ of this crossing is the greatest common divisor of $a$ and $b$ (Corollary 7).

It can be noted that the abscissas of the $(a, b)$-crossings are Farey fractions. This suggests that number theoretical properties of the complete bipartite graph pattern deserve further exploration.

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