COMP 761: Lecture 39 - Final Class

David Rolnick

December 3, 2020

David Rolnick

Problem

Describe three dice A, B, C with numbers on their sides, such that if we roll them all, A is likely to be higher than B, B is likely to be higher than C, and C is likely to be higher than A.

(Please don't post your ideas in the chat just yet, we'll discuss the problem soon in class.)

Course Announcements

David Rolnick

Course Announcements

• Office hours at normal time (10 am Montreal) Friday.



Unsolved problems

David Rolnick

• Every even integer greater than 2 is the sum of two primes.

- Every even integer greater than 2 is the sum of two primes.
- For example: 100 = 89 + 11.

- Every even integer greater than 2 is the sum of two primes.
- For example: 100 = 89 + 11.
- Conjectured in 1742.

- Every even integer greater than 2 is the sum of two primes.
- For example: 100 = 89 + 11.
- Conjectured in 1742.
- Has been checked up to 10¹⁸.



David Rolnick

• If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9,28,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16, 8,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4, 2,

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1.

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

```
9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1.
```

• Conjecture posed in 1937.

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

```
9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1.
```

- Conjecture posed in 1937.
- Paul Erdős: "Mathematics may not be ready for such problems."

- If you take any positive integer and recursively (i) if odd, multiply by 3 and add 1, (ii) if even, divide by 2, then eventually you reach 1.
- For example, starting at 9:

```
9, 28, 14, 7, 22, 11, 34, 17, 52, 26, 13, 40, 20, 10, 5, 16, 8, 4, 2, 1.
```

- Conjecture posed in 1937.
- Paul Erdős: "Mathematics may not be ready for such problems."
- Has been tested up to 2⁶⁸ (about 300 quintillion).

Matrix multiplication

David Rolnick
We saw in class the multiplying *m* × *n* and *n* × *p* matrices can be done in time Θ(*mnp*).

- We saw in class the multiplying *m* × *n* and *n* × *p* matrices can be done in time Θ(*mnp*).
- If m = n = p, that is $\Theta(n^3)$, but that is not necessarily the fastest.

- We saw in class the multiplying *m* × *n* and *n* × *p* matrices can be done in time ⊖(*mnp*).
- If m = n = p, that is $\Theta(n^3)$, but that is not necessarily the fastest.
- Why does the fastest time for multiplying square matrices have to be $\Omega(n^2)$?

- We saw in class the multiplying *m* × *n* and *n* × *p* matrices can be done in time Θ(*mnp*).
- If m = n = p, that is $\Theta(n^3)$, but that is not necessarily the fastest.
- Why does the fastest time for multiplying square matrices have to be $\Omega(n^2)$?
- We have to look at all n^2 entries, so it's at least n^2 , somewhere between n^2 and n^3 .

- We saw in class the multiplying *m* × *n* and *n* × *p* matrices can be done in time Θ(*mnp*).
- If m = n = p, that is $\Theta(n^3)$, but that is not necessarily the fastest.
- Why does the fastest time for multiplying square matrices have to be $\Omega(n^2)$?
- We have to look at all n^2 entries, so it's at least n^2 , somewhere between n^2 and n^3 .
- Currently, the best known algorithm is $O(n^{2.3728596})$.

- We saw in class the multiplying *m* × *n* and *n* × *p* matrices can be done in time Θ(*mnp*).
- If m = n = p, that is $\Theta(n^3)$, but that is not necessarily the fastest.
- Why does the fastest time for multiplying square matrices have to be $\Omega(n^2)$?
- We have to look at all n^2 entries, so it's at least n^2 , somewhere between n^2 and n^3 .
- Currently, the best known algorithm is $O(n^{2.3728596})$.
- We don't know if this is the best.

David Rolnick

• Two graphs are said to be *isomorphic* if we can reorder the vertices so they line up.



• Two graphs are said to be *isomorphic* if we can reorder the vertices so they line up.



• Let ISOMORPHISM(*G*, *H*) be the problem of working out whether two graphs *G* and *H* are isomorphic.

• Two graphs are said to be *isomorphic* if we can reorder the vertices so they line up.



- Let ISOMORPHISM(*G*, *H*) be the problem of working out whether two graphs *G* and *H* are isomorphic.
- May be in P, may be NP-complete, or neither (not known).

• If we have to divide a flat surface into equal areas, a hexagonal honeycomb is the method with the least total perimeter:



• If we have to divide a flat surface into equal areas, a hexagonal honeycomb is the method with the least total perimeter:



 Was conjectured in 36 BCE, has been used by honeybees long before that :)

• If we have to divide a flat surface into equal areas, a hexagonal honeycomb is the method with the least total perimeter:



- Was conjectured in 36 BCE, has been used by honeybees long before that :)
- This one was actually proven in 1999!

Surprising math / paradoxes

Let's prove that every horse is the same color.

• We'll use induction – showing that any group of *n* horses is the same color.

- We'll use induction showing that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Base case of just 1 horse clearly works.

- We'll use induction showing that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Base case of just 1 horse clearly works.
- Now suppose that any group of *n* horses is the same color.

- We'll use induction showing that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Base case of just 1 horse clearly works.
- Now suppose that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Suppose we have a group *S* with *n* + 1 horses need to show all the same color.

- We'll use induction showing that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Base case of just 1 horse clearly works.
- Now suppose that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Suppose we have a group *S* with *n* + 1 horses need to show all the same color.
- Let's consider the set S_1 where we take out the first horse from S, and the set S_2 where we take out the second horse from S.

- We'll use induction showing that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Base case of just 1 horse clearly works.
- Now suppose that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Suppose we have a group *S* with *n* + 1 horses need to show all the same color.
- Let's consider the set S_1 where we take out the first horse from S, and the set S_2 where we take out the second horse from S.
- Both S_1 and S_2 contain *n* horses, so by induction we know all the horses in each one are the same color.

- We'll use induction showing that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Base case of just 1 horse clearly works.
- Now suppose that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Suppose we have a group *S* with *n* + 1 horses need to show all the same color.
- Let's consider the set S_1 where we take out the first horse from S, and the set S_2 where we take out the second horse from S.
- Both S_1 and S_2 contain *n* horses, so by induction we know all the horses in each one are the same color.
- But since they overlap, the colors must be the same! So all the horses in *S* are the same color. Done with the induction.

- We'll use induction showing that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Base case of just 1 horse clearly works.
- Now suppose that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Suppose we have a group *S* with *n* + 1 horses need to show all the same color.
- Let's consider the set S_1 where we take out the first horse from S, and the set S_2 where we take out the second horse from S.
- Both S_1 and S_2 contain *n* horses, so by induction we know all the horses in each one are the same color.
- But since they overlap, the colors must be the same! So all the horses in *S* are the same color. Done with the induction.
- What is wrong with this argument??

- We'll use induction showing that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Base case of just 1 horse clearly works.
- Now suppose that any group of *n* horses is the same color.
- Suppose we have a group *S* with *n* + 1 horses need to show all the same color.
- Let's consider the set S_1 where we take out the first horse from S, and the set S_2 where we take out the second horse from S.
- Both S_1 and S_2 contain *n* horses, so by induction we know all the horses in each one are the same color.
- But since they overlap, the colors must be the same! So all the horses in *S* are the same color. Done with the induction.
- What is wrong with this argument??
- S_1 and S_2 only overlap if n > 1, so even though the base case of n = 1 works, we can't go from 1 to 2.

David Rolnick

• Two new pet medicines, A and B, are tried on some cats and dogs.

- Two new pet medicines, A and B, are tried on some cats and dogs.
- These are the rates at which the medicines are successful:

$$\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline A & B \\ \hline Cats & \frac{120}{200} = 60\% & \frac{80}{100} = 80\% \\ \hline Dogs & \frac{5}{50} = 10\% & \frac{40}{200} = 20\% \\ \hline \end{tabular}$$

- Two new pet medicines, A and B, are tried on some cats and dogs.
- These are the rates at which the medicines are successful:

• So medicine *B* performs better than *A* in cats and also performs better than *A* in dogs.

- Two new pet medicines, A and B, are tried on some cats and dogs.
- These are the rates at which the medicines are successful:

- So medicine *B* performs better than *A* in cats and also performs better than *A* in dogs.
- Now let's add another row to the table with totals.

- Two new pet medicines, A and B, are tried on some cats and dogs.
- These are the rates at which the medicines are successful:

	A	В
Cats	$\frac{120}{200} = 60\%$	$\frac{80}{100} = 80\%$
Dogs	$\frac{5}{50} = 10\%$	$rac{40}{200} =$ 20%
TOTAL	$\frac{125}{250} = 50\%$	$\frac{120}{300} = 40\%$

- So medicine *B* performs better than *A* in cats and also performs better than *A* in dogs.
- Now let's add another row to the table with totals.
- Wait, now medicine A is performing better? What happened?

- Two new pet medicines, A and B, are tried on some cats and dogs.
- These are the rates at which the medicines are successful:

	A	В
Cats	$\frac{120}{200} = 60\%$	$\frac{80}{100} = 80\%$
Dogs	$\frac{5}{50} = 10\%$	$rac{40}{200} =$ 20%
TOTAL	$\frac{125}{250} = 50\%$	$\frac{120}{300} = 40\%$

- So medicine *B* performs better than *A* in cats and also performs better than *A* in dogs.
- Now let's add another row to the table with totals.
- Wait, now medicine A is performing better? What happened?
- The reason this happened was because for *A*, the tests happened mostly in cats (where both medicines perform well), while for *B*, the tests happened mostly in dogs (where neither medicine performs well).

- Two new pet medicines, A and B, are tried on some cats and dogs.
- These are the rates at which the medicines are successful:

	A	В
Cats	$\frac{120}{200} = 60\%$	$\frac{80}{100} = 80\%$
Dogs	$\frac{5}{50} = 10\%$	$rac{40}{200} =$ 20%
TOTAL	$\frac{125}{250} = 50\%$	$\frac{120}{300} = 40\%$

- So medicine *B* performs better than *A* in cats and also performs better than *A* in dogs.
- Now let's add another row to the table with totals.
- Wait, now medicine A is performing better? What happened?
- The reason this happened was because for *A*, the tests happened mostly in cats (where both medicines perform well), while for *B*, the tests happened mostly in dogs (where neither medicine performs well).
- This is one reason why it is important to break out confounding variables in studies.

Simpson's Paradox – another example

Simpson's Paradox – another example

• This is an (imaginary) plot of amount of sleep vs life expectancy:



Simpson's Paradox – another example

• This is an (imaginary) plot of amount of sleep vs life expectancy:



 If we do a linear fit for all the data (black dashed line), we get that more sleep means lower life expectancy.


- If we do a linear fit for all the data (black dashed line), we get that more sleep means lower life expectancy.
- But we can also break it into two groups, the red group and the blue group.



- If we do a linear fit for all the data (black dashed line), we get that more sleep means lower life expectancy.
- But we can also break it into two groups, the red group and the blue group.
- Turns out the red group is dogs and the blue group is people.



- If we do a linear fit for all the data (black dashed line), we get that more sleep means lower life expectancy.
- But we can also break it into two groups, the red group and the blue group.
- Turns out the red group is dogs and the blue group is people.
- Dogs sleep more than people overall, and have a lower life expectancy.



- If we do a linear fit for all the data (black dashed line), we get that more sleep means lower life expectancy.
- But we can also break it into two groups, the red group and the blue group.
- Turns out the red group is dogs and the blue group is people.
- Dogs sleep more than people overall, and have a lower life expectancy.
- For each group individually, more sleep is good.

David Rolnick

• Suppose we have 3 dice:

- Suppose we have 3 dice:
 - A: sides 2, 2, 4, 4, 9, 9.

- Suppose we have 3 dice:
 - A: sides 2, 2, 4, 4, 9, 9.
 - *B*: sides 1, 1, 6, 6, 8, 8.

- Suppose we have 3 dice:
 - A: sides 2, 2, 4, 4, 9, 9.
 - B: sides 1, 1, 6, 6, 8, 8.
 - C: sides 3, 3, 5, 5, 7, 7.

- Suppose we have 3 dice:
 - A: sides 2, 2, 4, 4, 9, 9.
 - B: sides 1, 1, 6, 6, 8, 8.
 - C: sides 3, 3, 5, 5, 7, 7.

• What is the probability that A rolls a higher number than B?

- Suppose we have 3 dice:
 - A: sides 2, 2, 4, 4, 9, 9.
 - B: sides 1, 1, 6, 6, 8, 8.
 - C: sides 3, 3, 5, 5, 7, 7.
- What is the probability that A rolls a higher number than B?
- A > B if we have (2,1), (4,1), (9,1), (9,6), or (9,8) − so 5/9 probability.

- Suppose we have 3 dice:
 - A: sides 2, 2, 4, 4, 9, 9.
 - *B*: sides 1, 1, 6, 6, 8, 8.
 - C: sides 3, 3, 5, 5, 7, 7.
- What is the probability that A rolls a higher number than B?
- *A* > *B* if we have (2,1), (4,1), (9,1), (9,6), or (9,8) so 5/9 probability.
- Similarly, *B* > *C* if we have (6,3), (6,5), (8,3), (8,5), or (8,7) again 5/9.

- Suppose we have 3 dice:
 - A: sides 2, 2, 4, 4, 9, 9.
 - B: sides 1, 1, 6, 6, 8, 8.
 - C: sides 3, 3, 5, 5, 7, 7.
- What is the probability that A rolls a higher number than B?
- A > B if we have (2,1), (4,1), (9,1), (9,6), or (9,8) − so 5/9 probability.
- Similarly, B > C if we have (6,3), (6,5), (8,3), (8,5), or (8,7) again 5/9.
- And likewise 5/9 probability for C > A. Player 1 chooses die A Player 1 chooses

Player 2 chooses die C 2 4 9 С 3 С Α Α 5 С С Α 7 С С А

Player 1 chooses die B Player 2 chooses die A

	,					
Ĩ	AB	1	6	8		
	2	А	в	В		
	4	А	в	В		
	9	А	А	А		

Player 1 chooses die **C** Player 2 chooses die **B**

вС	3	5	7
1	С	С	С
6	в	в	С
8	в	в	в

- Suppose we have 3 dice:
 - A: sides 2, 2, 4, 4, 9, 9.
 - B: sides 1, 1, 6, 6, 8, 8.
 - C: sides 3, 3, 5, 5, 7, 7.
- What is the probability that A rolls a higher number than B?
- A > B if we have (2,1), (4,1), (9,1), (9,6), or (9,8) − so 5/9 probability.
- Similarly, B > C if we have (6,3), (6,5), (8,3), (8,5), or (8,7) again 5/9.
- And likewise 5/9 probability for C > A.



So each of the dice is likely to beat the next one in the list!

- Suppose we have 3 dice:
 - A: sides 2, 2, 4, 4, 9, 9.
 - B: sides 1, 1, 6, 6, 8, 8.
 - C: sides 3, 3, 5, 5, 7, 7.
- What is the probability that A rolls a higher number than B?
- A > B if we have (2,1), (4,1), (9,1), (9,6), or (9,8) − so 5/9 probability.
- Similarly, B > C if we have (6,3), (6,5), (8,3), (8,5), or (8,7) again 5/9.
- And likewise 5/9 probability for *C* > *A*.



- So each of the dice is likely to beat the next one in the list!
- Not impossible, just counter-intuitive.

Mathematical art

Based on dodecahedron



Cardioid



<ロ> <同> <同> < 同> < 同>

One-sheet hyperboloid



Tessellations



Penrose tiling



(日)