

The 20th Century:
Chaos, codes and colouring

Robin Wilson
The Open University

Painting Swiss alpenhorns

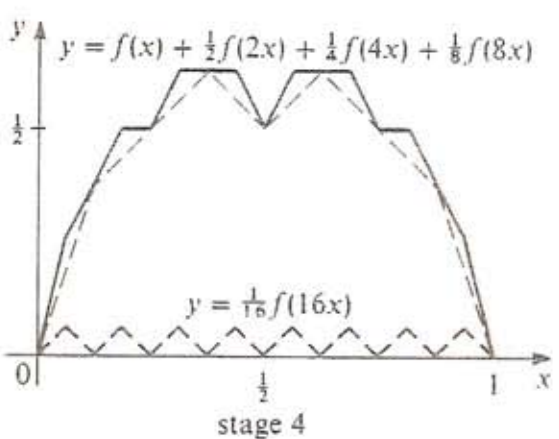
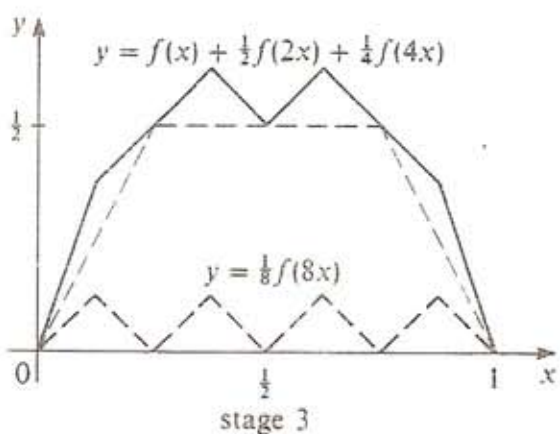
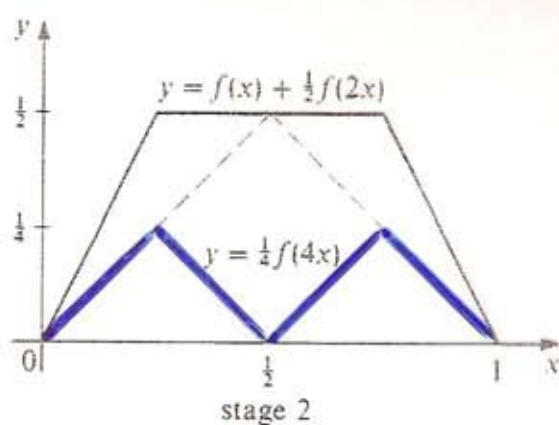
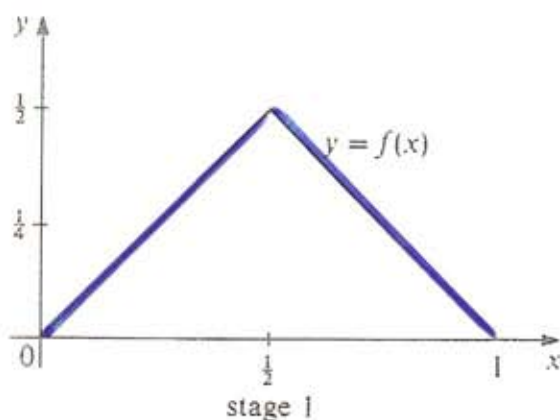


$$y = 1/x \text{ for } x \geq 1 :$$

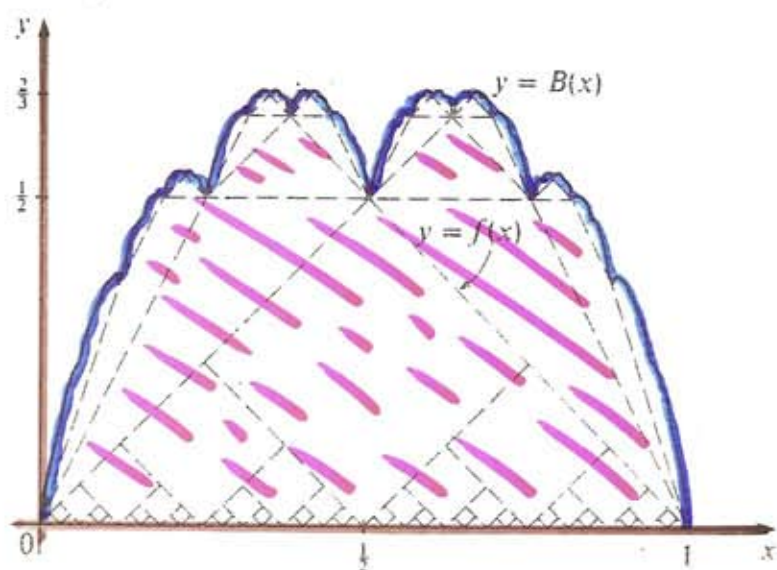


surface area infinite : volume finite

The blancmange function

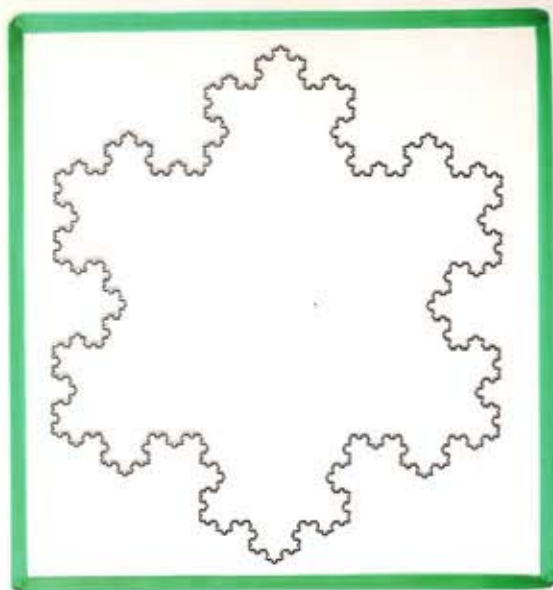


Eventually we obtain the following graph of B :



Von Koch's Snowflake Curve

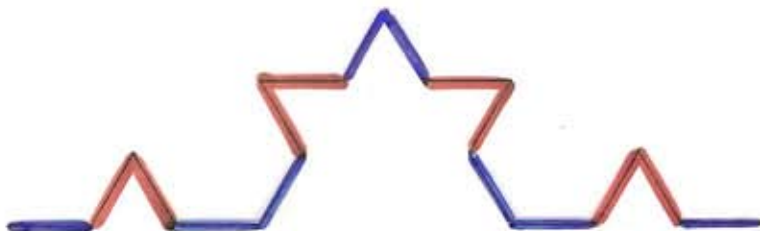
finite area
—
infinite
length



step 1



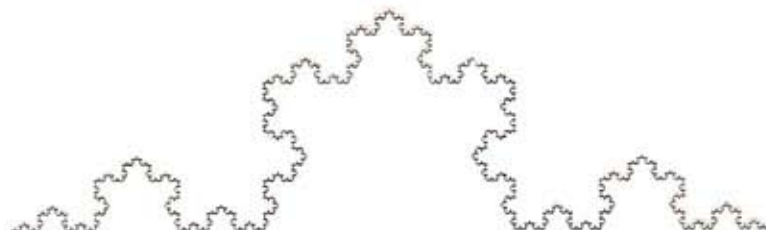
step 2



step 3

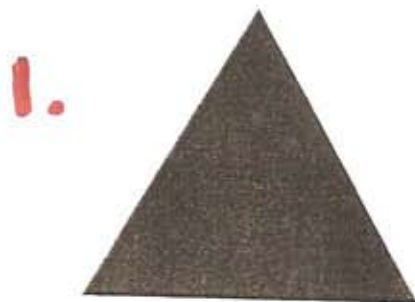


step 4



⋮

Sierpinski gasket

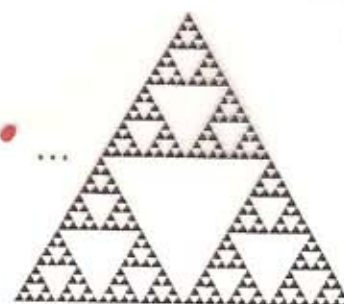


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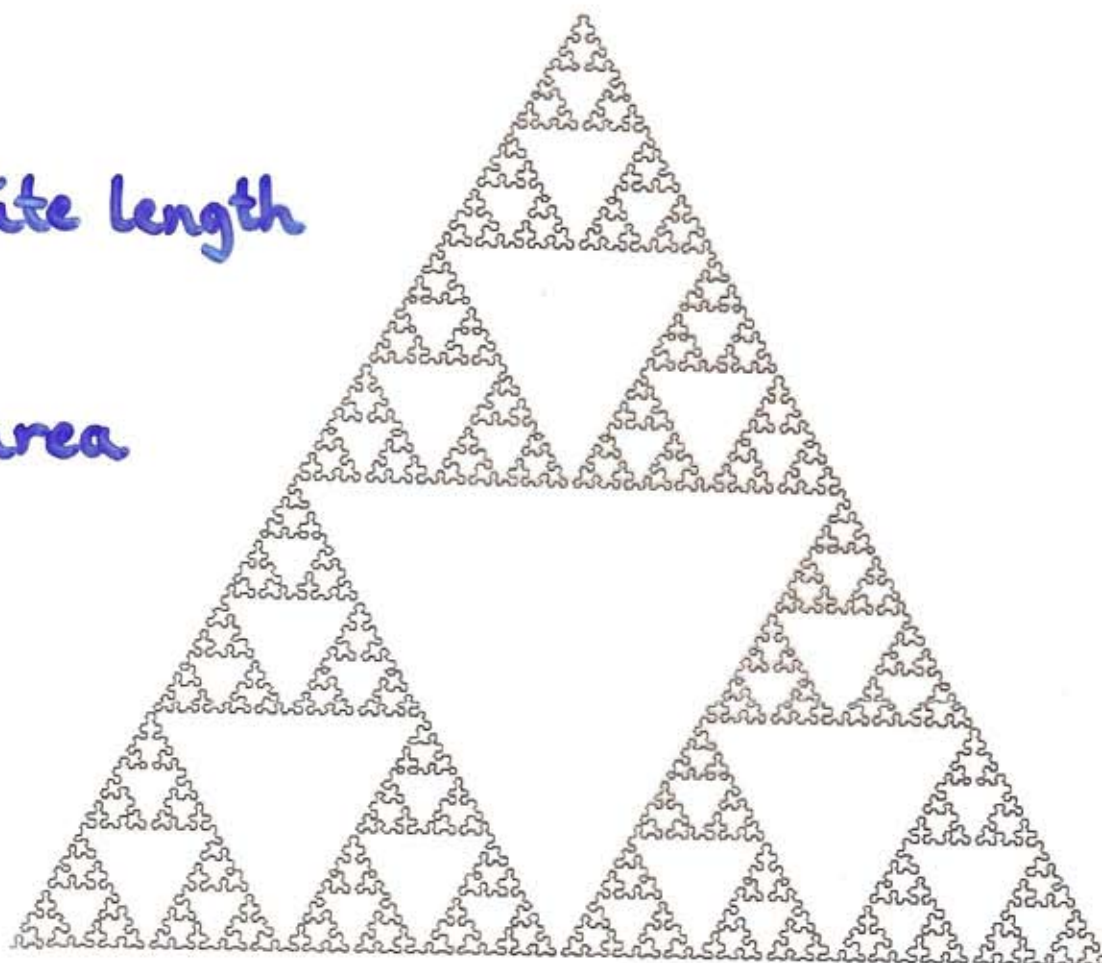
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...



infinite length

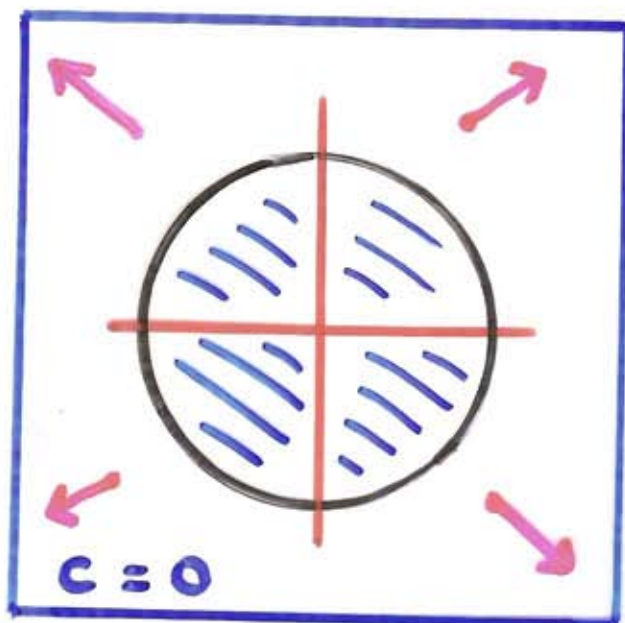
zero area





The map $z \rightarrow z^2 + c$

Do this over and over again:
which points go off to infinity?

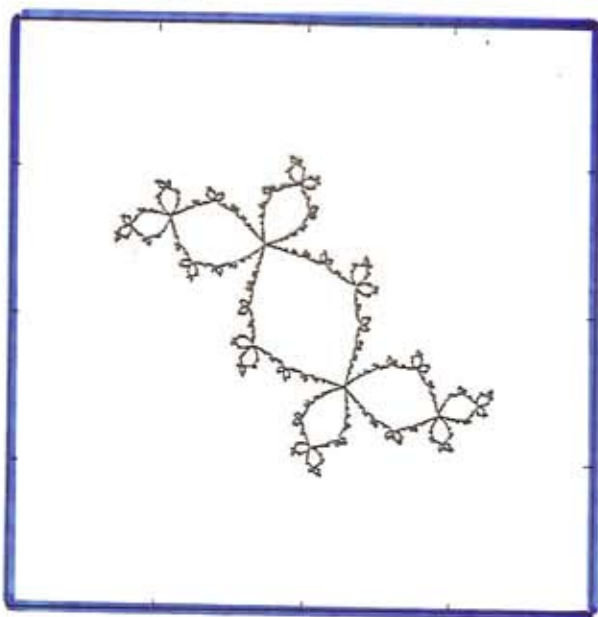


$c = 0$

boundary = 'Julia set'



$J_c : c = 0.25$ (cauliflower)

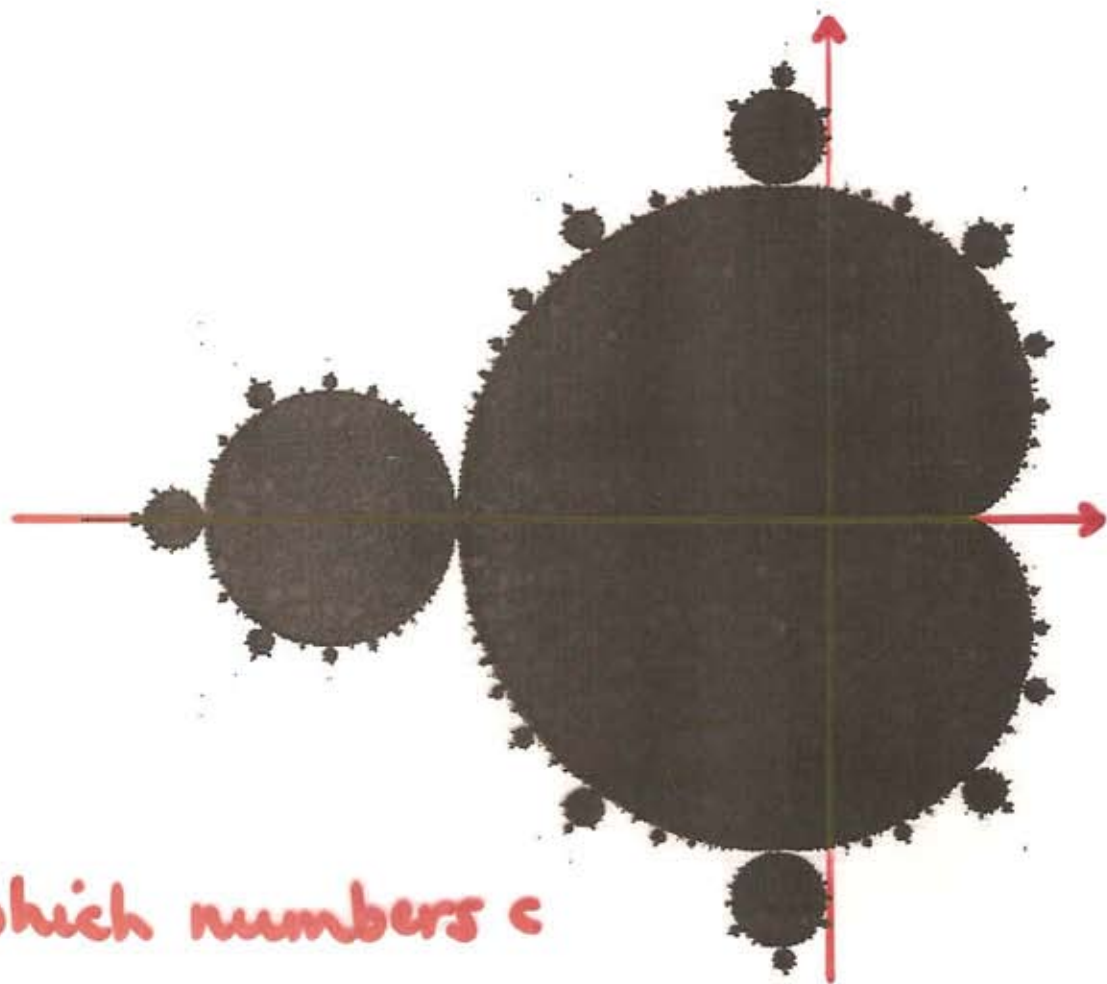


$J_c : c = -0.123 + 0.745i$ (rabbit)



$J_c : c = -0.75 + 0.25i$ (sea-horse)

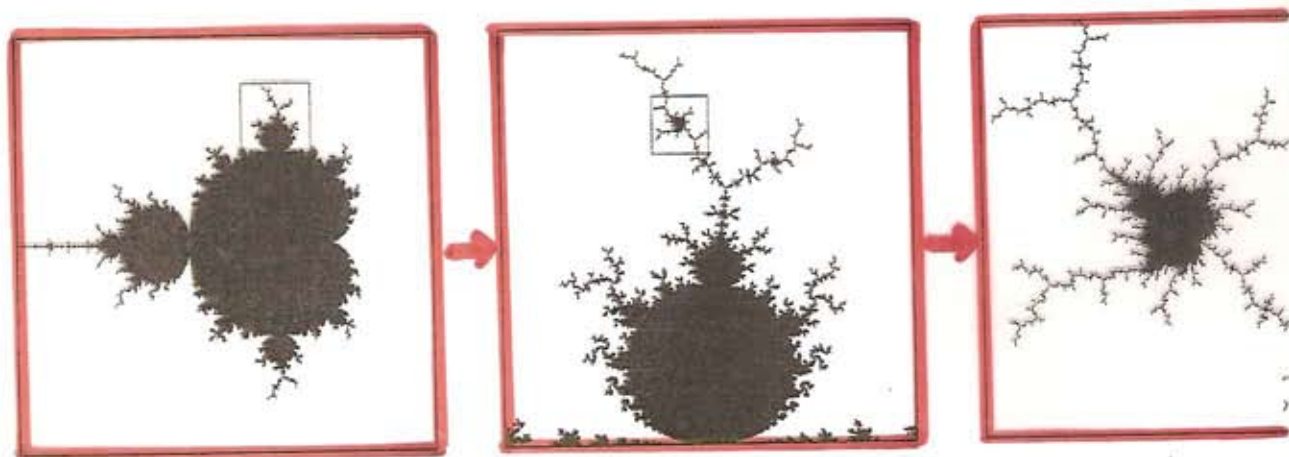
The Mandelbrot set



For which numbers c

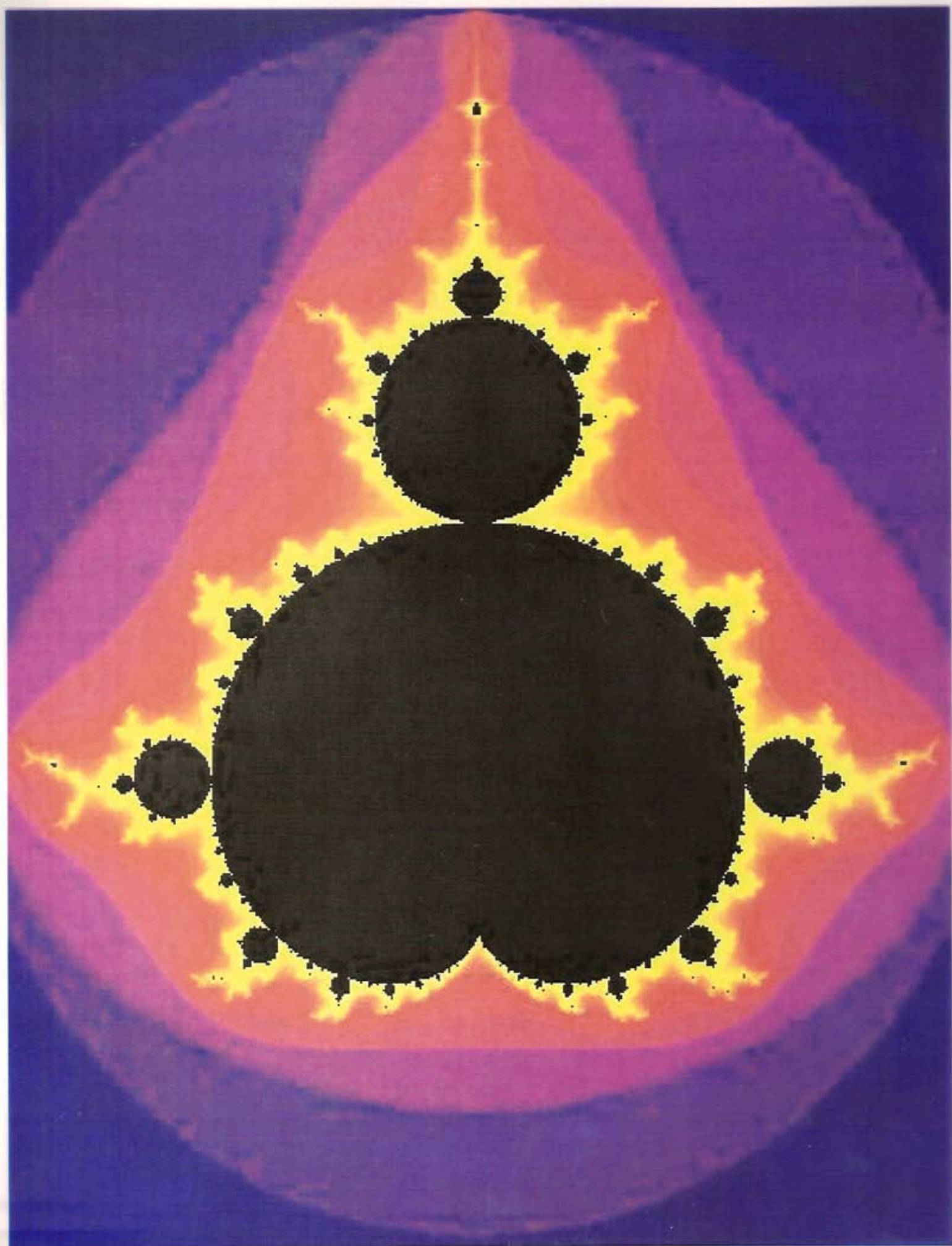
is the 'keep set' in one piece?

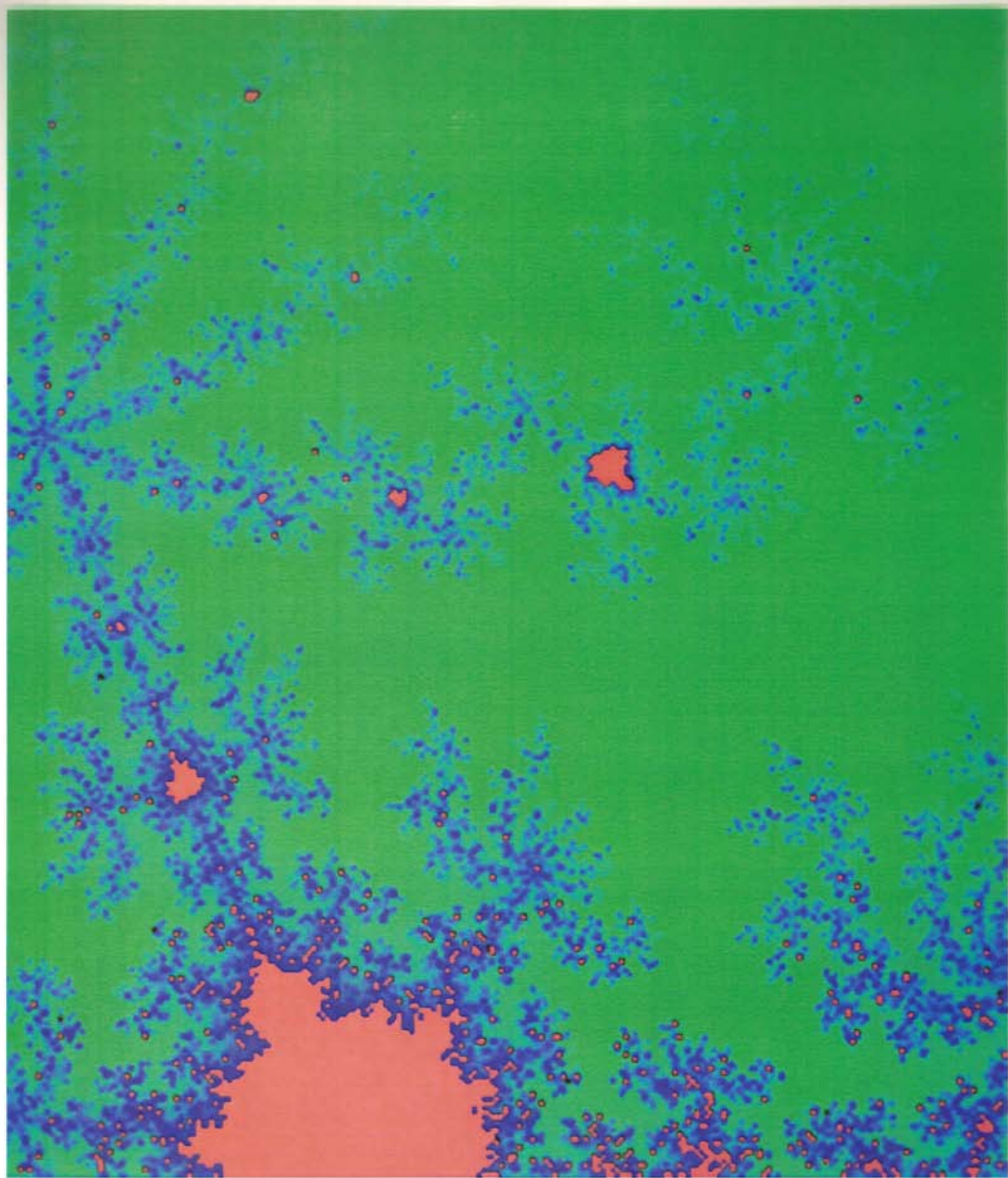
For which c is 0 in the keep set?

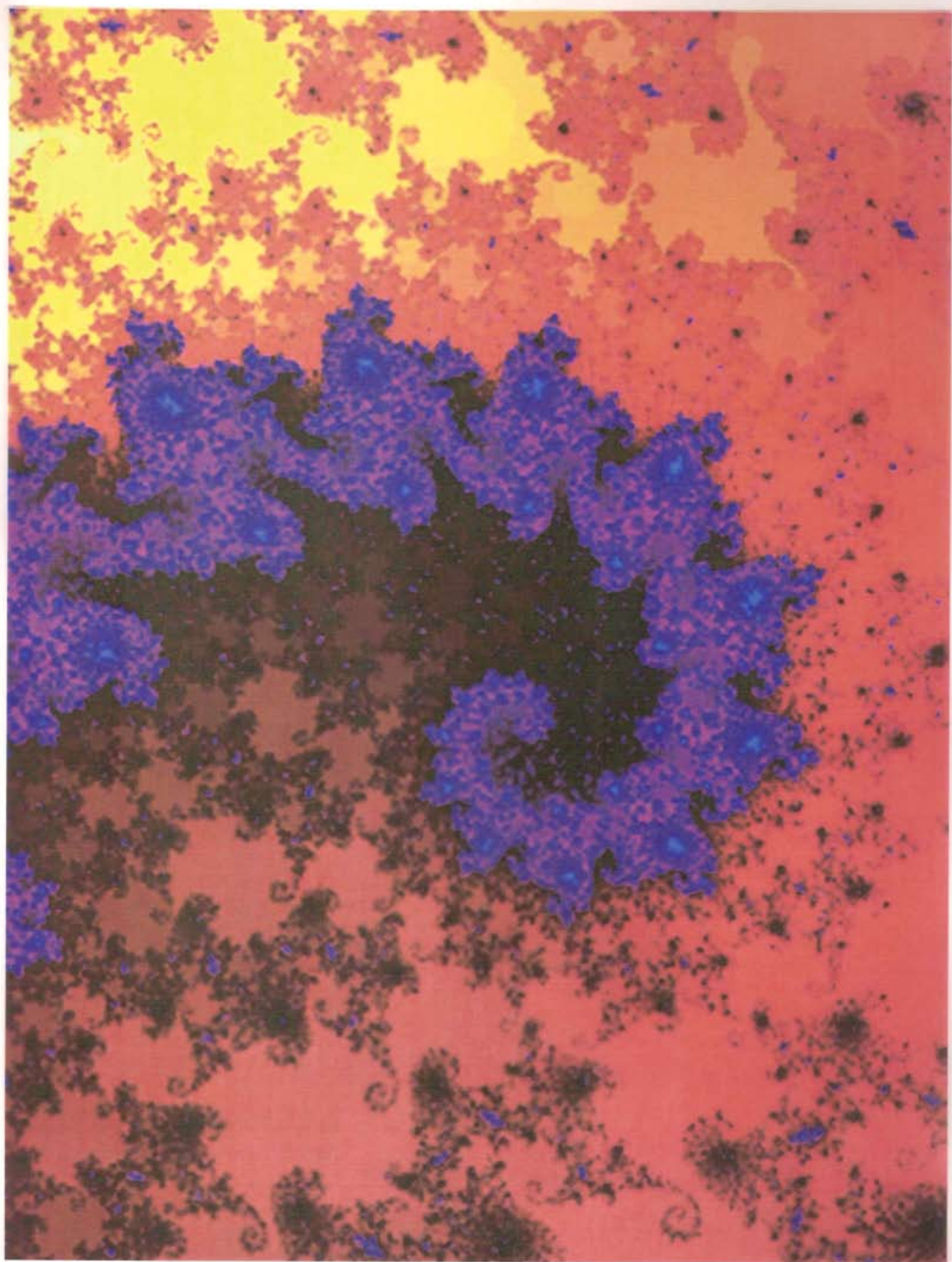


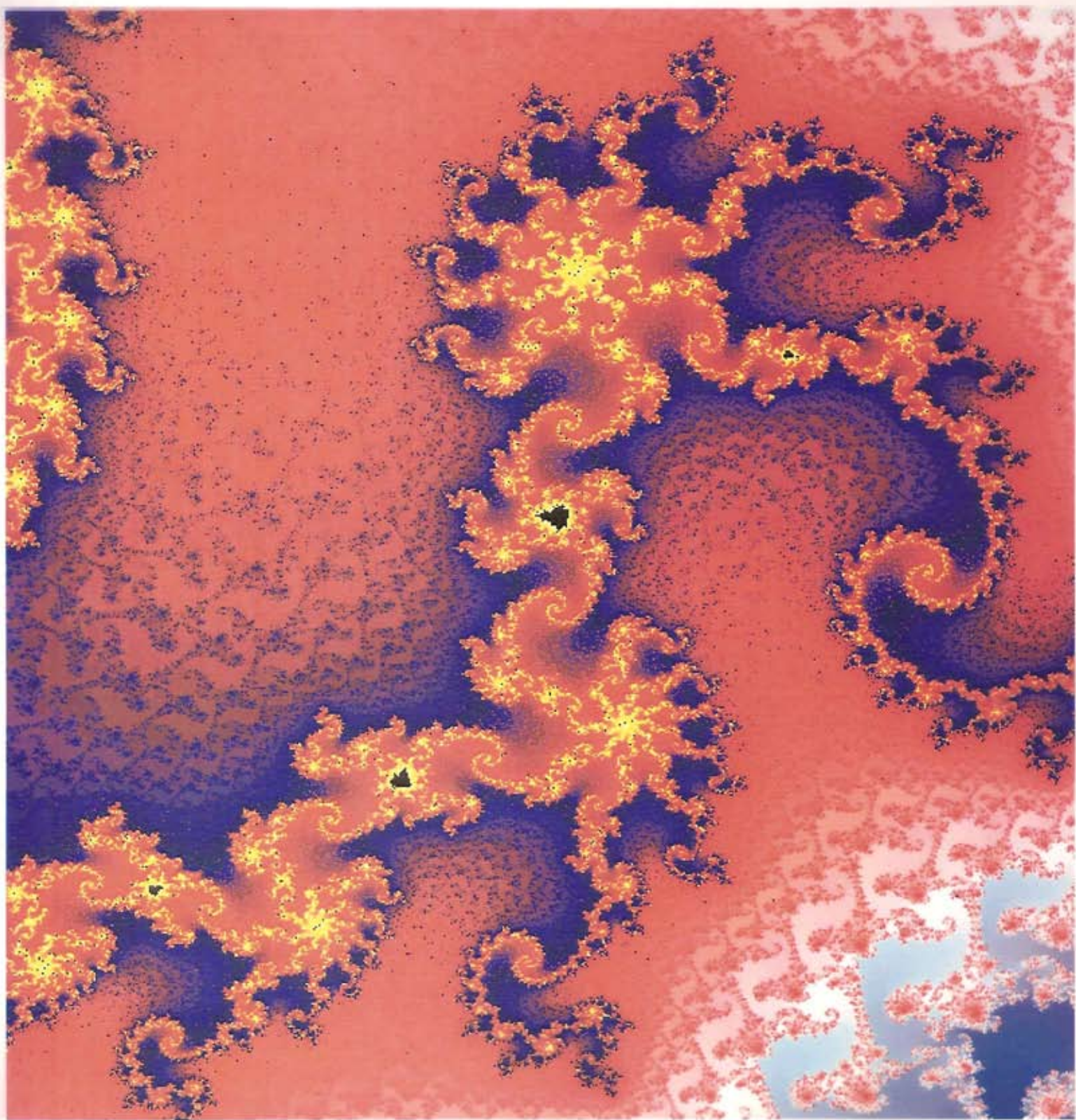
The Mandelbrot set

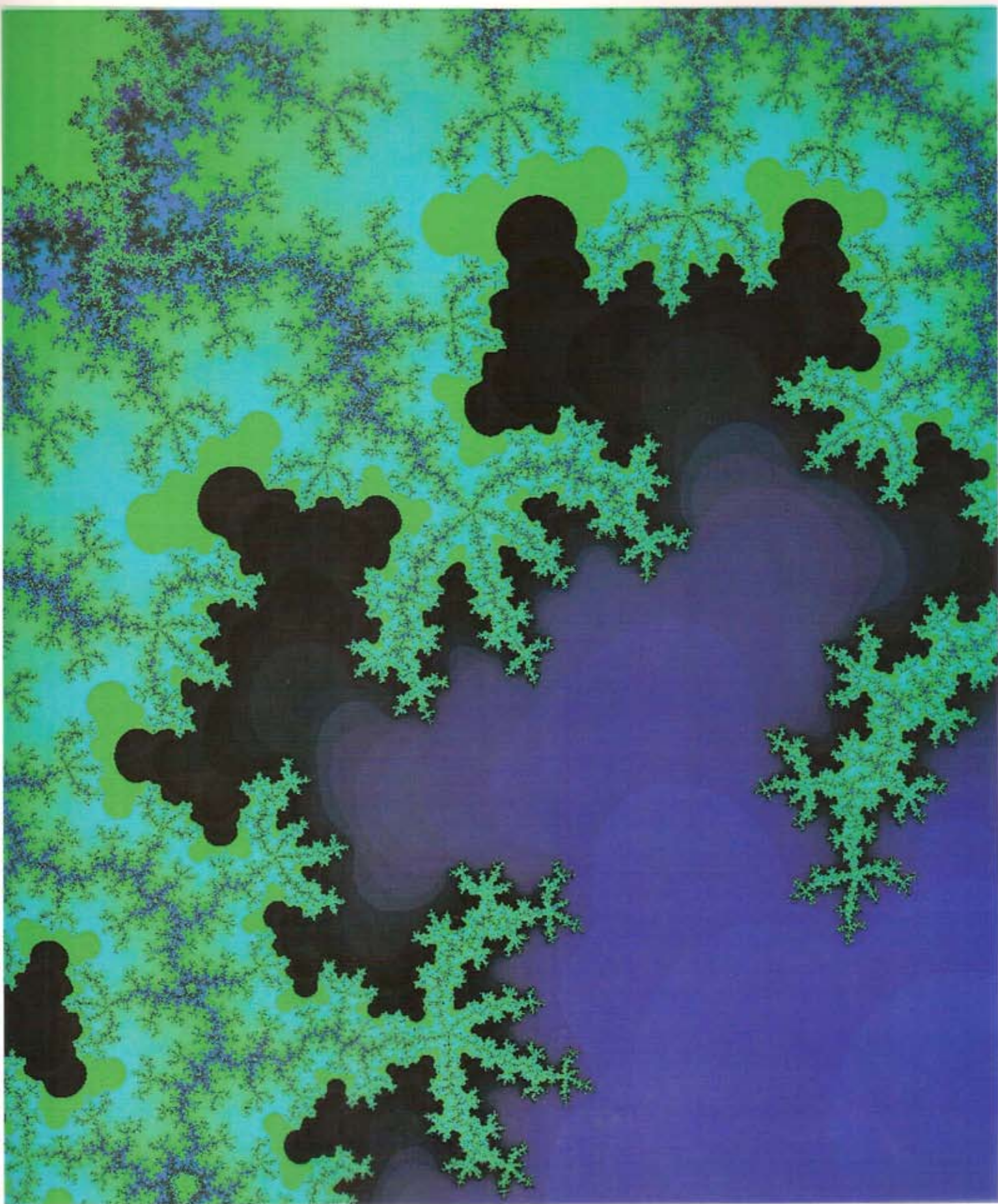
What's the relevance of this? To answer this I'll ask the question: how long is the coastline of Britain? If you try to measure it with a ruler, or if you look at the coast from far away, you can estimate the length of the coastline. But if you measure more accurately, or go closer, you become aware of more and more inlets and the length increases accordingly. In fact, the longer the coastline seems to become – imagine walking around it with a pedometer – and the more you get, the longer it is. In fact, the coastline of Britain has infinite length, even though it encloses a finite area. It's rather like the inside of a room, which has infinite surface area but encloses a finite volume. A similar situation occurred with the planckmange curve. It's a fractal curve – the curve I described as being a 'trifle unorthodox'. This curve is continuous, it's all joined up – but every point is a 'corner' – you can't measure its slope. It also has other interesting properties: it has infinite length, yet encloses a finite area (like the coastline of Britain), and it's also self-similar – parts of it appear the same shape (though smaller) as you look at it in close detail.











Four bells: Plain Bob Minimus

1	2	3	4
<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>
2	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	3
<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>
4	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	1
<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>
3	<u>1</u>	<u>4</u>	2
<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>
1	3	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>
<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>
3	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	4
<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>
2	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>	1
<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>
4	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	3
<u>1</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>
1	4	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>
4	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	2
<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>
3	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>	1
<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>4</u>
2	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	4
<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>
1	2	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>

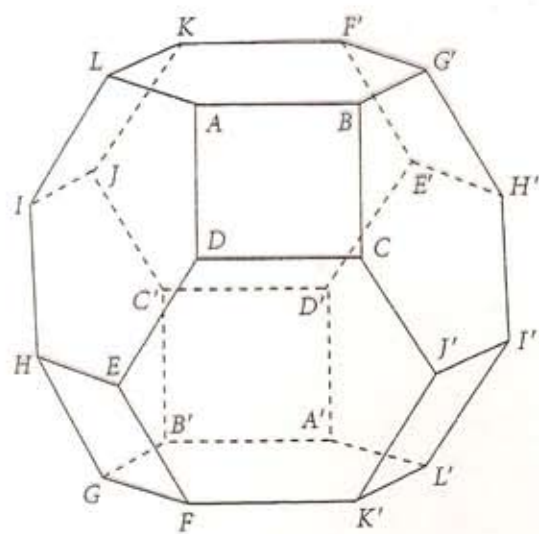
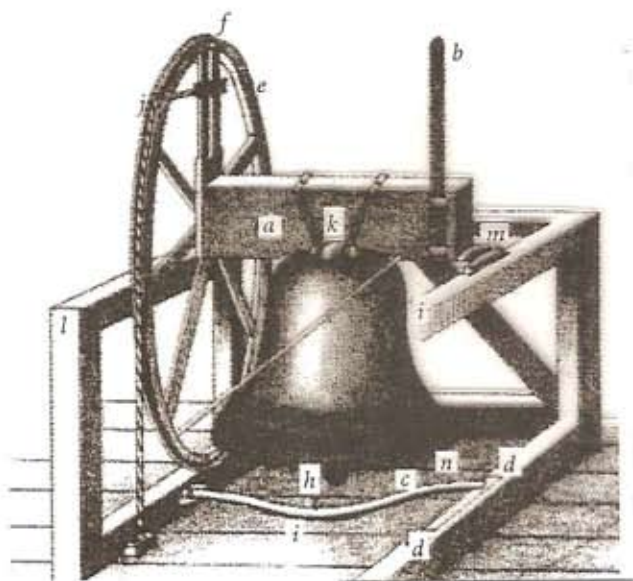
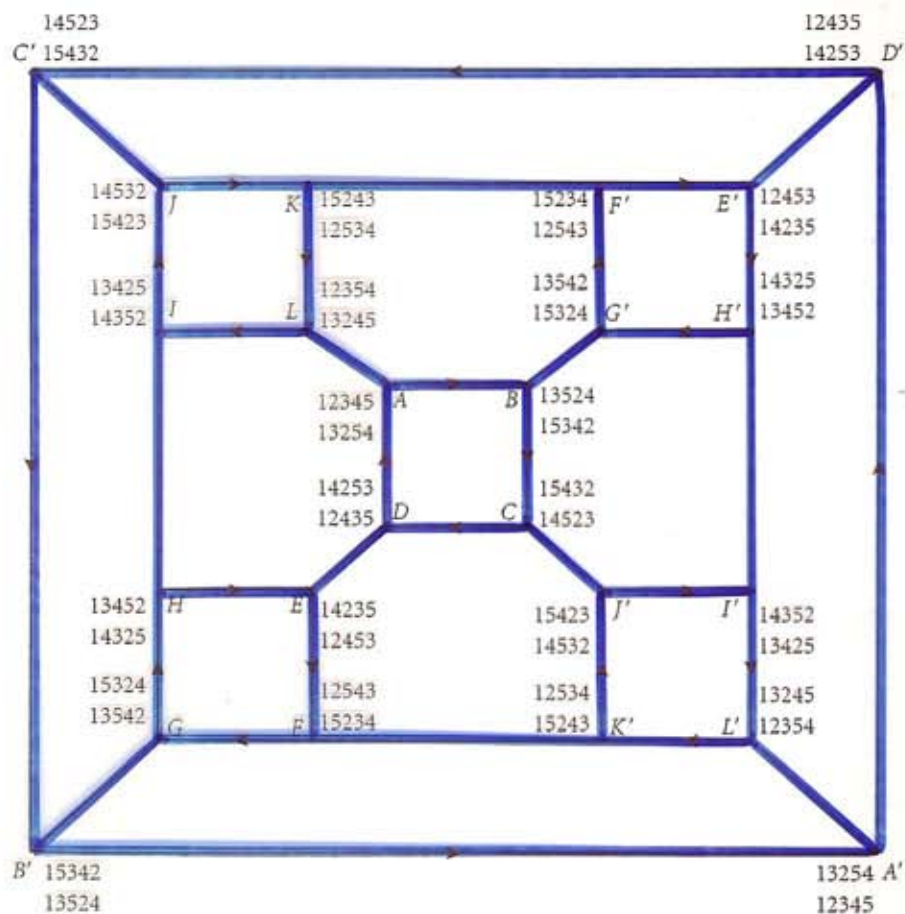
Interchange
consecutive bells :

1	2	3	4
×		×	
2	1	4	3
	×		
2	4	1	3
...			

(even)

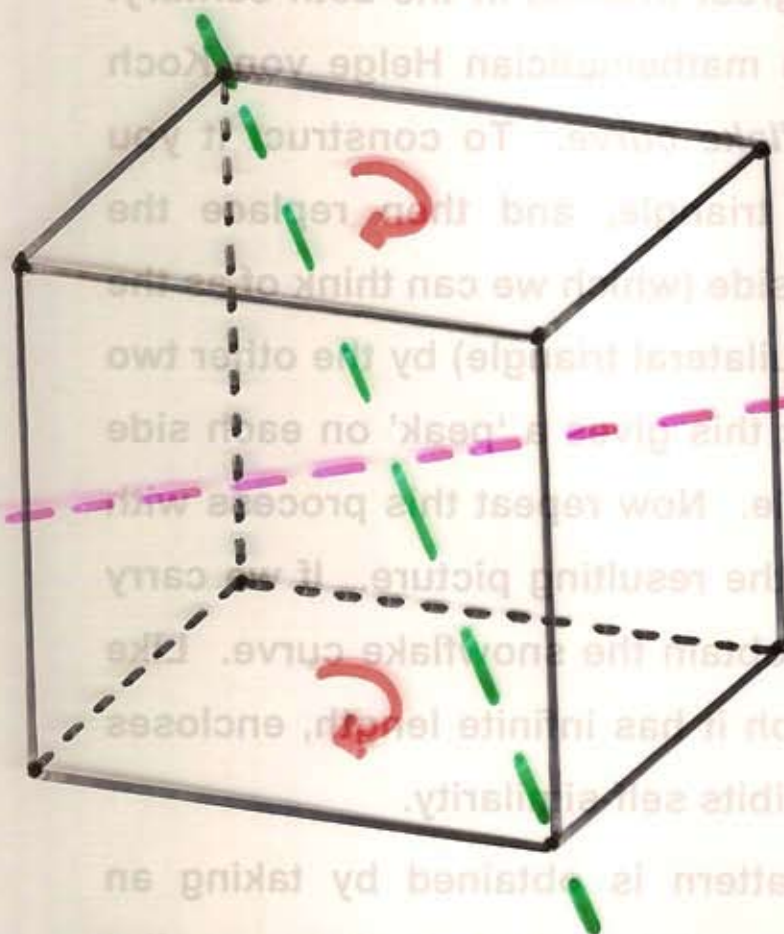
(odd)

Five bells : Plain Bob Doubles



truncated
octahedron

Symmetries of a Cube



Rotations

1 identity

9 face rotations

8 vertex rotations

6 edge rotations

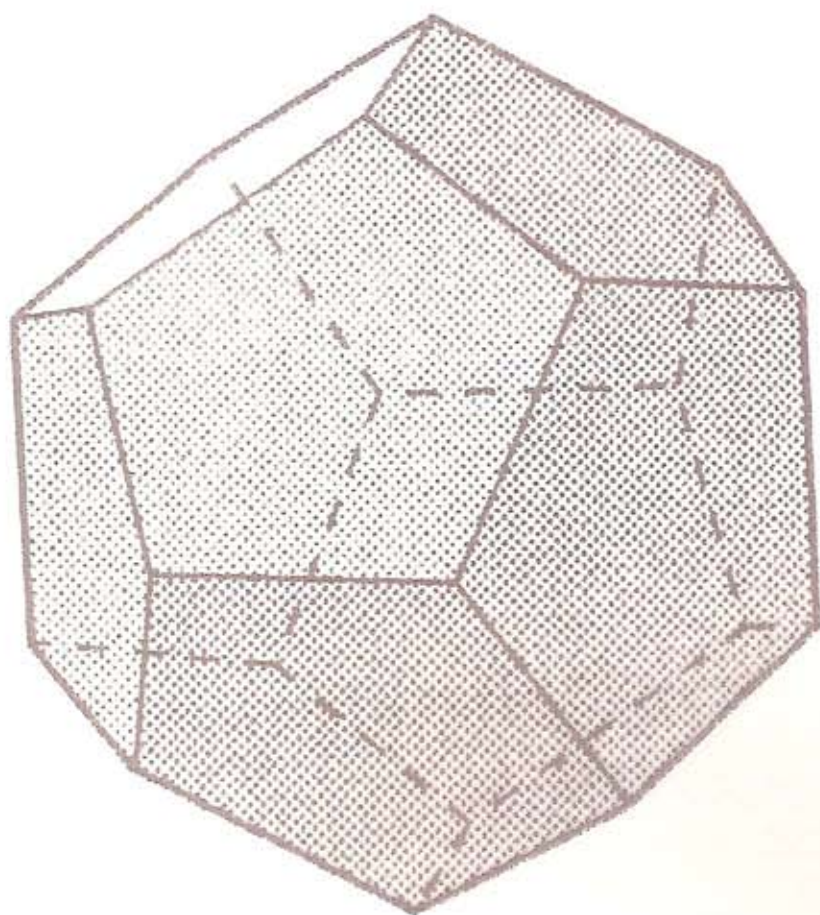
Total: 24

24 rotations

24 'indirect' symmetries

(reflection + rotation)

Rotations of a Dodecahedron



60 rotations

Abstract Groups

Take a set G of elements,
and a rule for combining them $(*)$.

For a group, we have :

- (1) Closure : if a and b are in G ,
then so is $a * b$.
- (2) Associativity : if a, b, c are in G ,
then $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$
- (3) Identity : there is an element e
such that $a * e = e * a = a$ for all a .
- (4) Inverses : for each a in G , there is
an inverse a^{-1} such that $a * a^{-1} = e$.
- [(5) Abelian : if a and b are in G ,
then $a * b = b * a$.]

Remembering the group axioms

Closure

Associative

Inverses

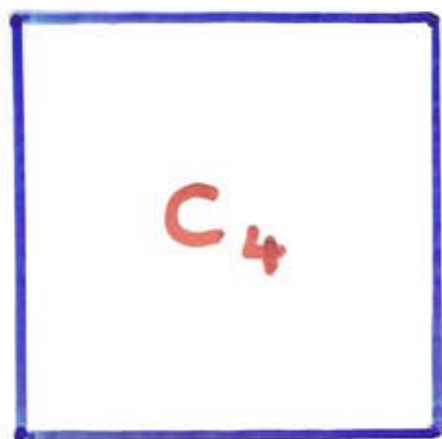
Neutral element

not necessarily **ABEL**ian

Examples :

- permutations of 4 bells
- symmetries of a cube
- rotations of a dodecahedron
- addition of integers
- multiplying positive real numbers

Cyclic Groups

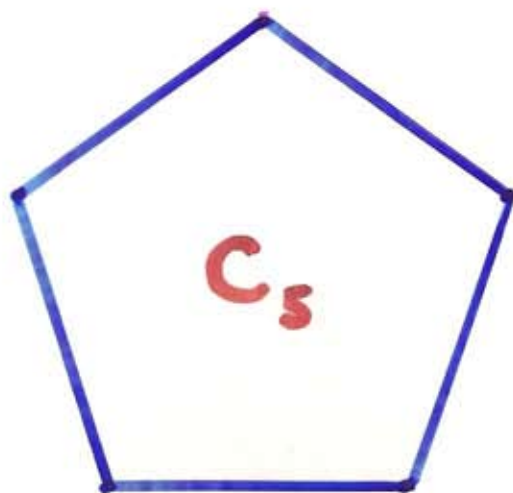


rotations of a
square through
0, 1, 2, 3 right angles:

$1 + 3 = 0$, $3 + 2 = 1$, ...
(arithmetic 'mod 4')

rotations of a
pentagon through
0, 1, 2, 3, 4 turns:

$2 + 3 = 0$, $3 + 4 = 2$, ...



Classification theorem: Every abelian
group is obtained by combining
cyclic groups.

Simple groups

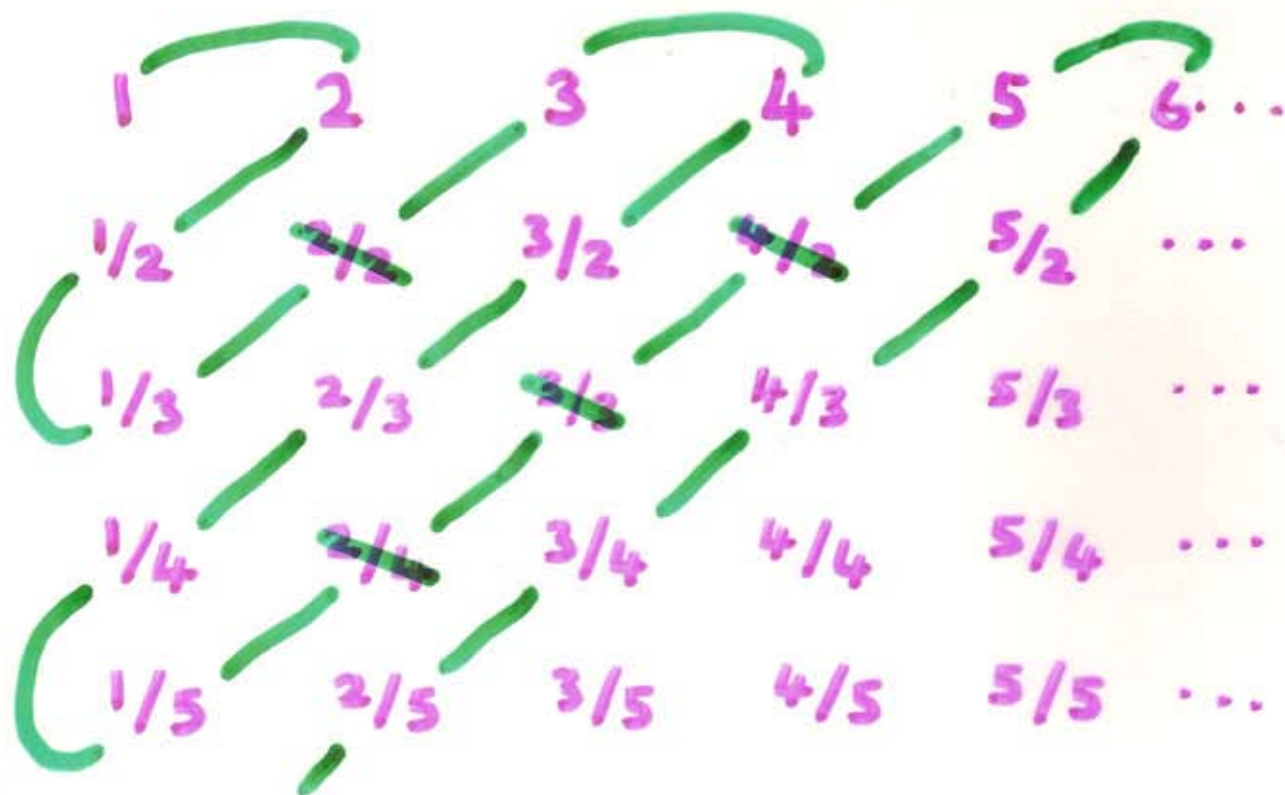
- 'building blocks' for groups in general
- groups that 'contain no other groups inside them' – they have no proper normal subgroups
- Cyclic groups with a prime number of elements: $C_3, C_7, C_{101}, \dots$
- rotations of a dodecahedron (A_5)
- A_n ($n \geq 5$): even permutations of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$
- groups of 'Lie type' (related to matrices)
- 26 'sporadic groups'

[Monster group: rotations in 196883-dimensional space]

How big is a set?

- $\{100, 101\}$ $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
- $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots\}$
 $\{1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, \dots\}$
- $\{\frac{1}{2}, 1, 1\frac{1}{2}, 2, 2\frac{1}{2}, 3, \dots\}$
- $\{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, \dots\}$

A set is countable if we can list them all - for example, the rationals:



The real numbers are not countable

Suppose that the real numbers between

0 and 1 are countable: let's list them all—

0. $a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 a_5 \dots$

0. $b_1 b_2 b_3 b_4 b_5 \dots$

0. $c_1 c_2 c_3 c_4 c_5 \dots$

0. $d_1 d_2 d_3 d_4 d_5 \dots$

...

Now choose numbers $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$ so that

$x_1 \neq a_1, x_2 \neq b_2, x_3 \neq c_3, x_4 \neq d_4, \dots$

Then the number $0.x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4 \dots$ is not

in the above list — **contradiction**

So they are NOT countable.

The Continuum Problem

Let $\aleph_0$ be the (infinite) number of integers
(or rationals):

$$\aleph_0 + 1 = \aleph_0, \aleph_0 + \aleph_0 = \aleph_0, \dots$$

Let $\aleph_1$ be the number of reals:

$$\text{so } \aleph_1 > \aleph_0, \aleph_1 + \aleph_0 = \aleph_1, \dots$$

Is there a number between
 $\aleph_0$ and $\aleph_1$?

P. Cohen (1963): Using the 'usual'
axioms of set theory, this problem is
undecidable.

Cryptography

Old method :

Alice and Bob both have the key. Alice encodes a message and sends it to Bob who decodes it.

Public-key cryptography

Uses prime numbers:

- we can test whether a large number (≤ 300 digits) is prime
- but we cannot find a prime factor
(e.g. $2047 = 23 \times 89$)

An example

Alice chooses two large primes p and q , and makes $n = pq$ public.

Alice chooses v (public) and calculates s (private) so that
 $sv \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$

Alice takes her message b , calculates $h = b^s \pmod{n}$, and sends h and b to Bob.

Bob receives h and b , looks up n and v , and calculates $h^v \pmod{n}$, obtaining the message b .

[Reason: $b^{sv} \equiv b \pmod{n}$
if b is not divisible by p or q]

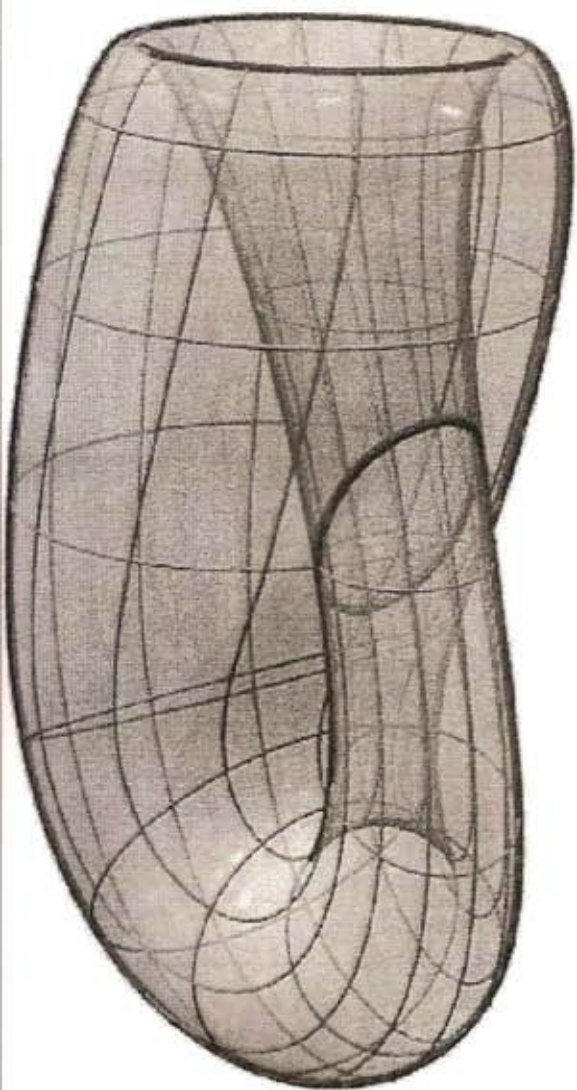
Alice chooses $p = 5$, $q = 11$, and announces $n = 55$.

Alice announces $v = 3$ and calculates $s = 27$:
 $(81 \equiv 1 \pmod{40})$

If $b = 49$, then
 $h \equiv 49^{27} \pmod{55} = 14$.
Alice sends 49 and 14.

Bob calculates $14^3 \pmod{55}$ and obtains 49.

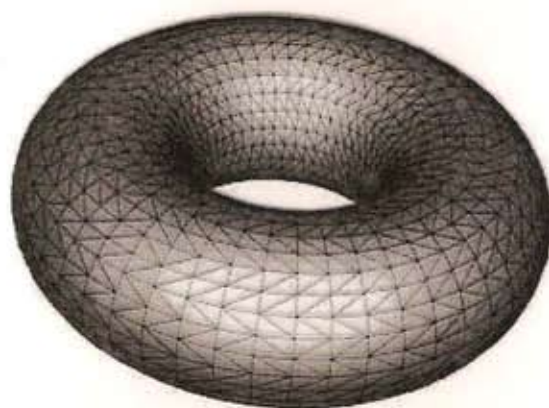
Classification of surfaces



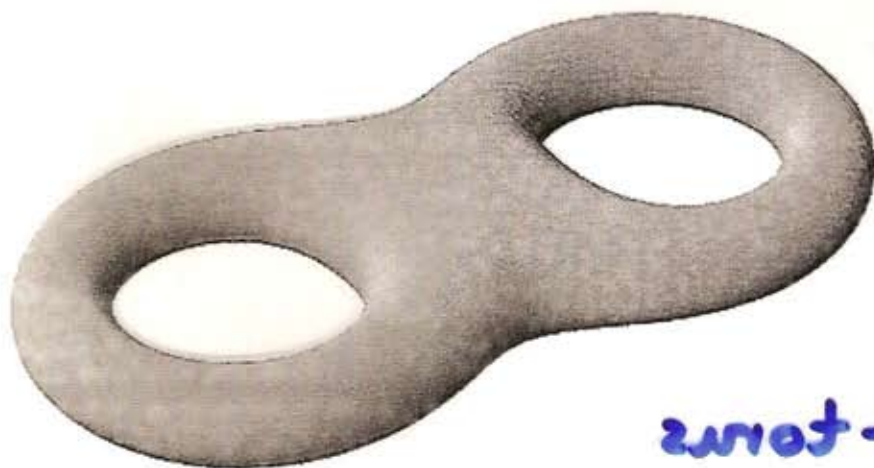
Klein bottle



2 sphere

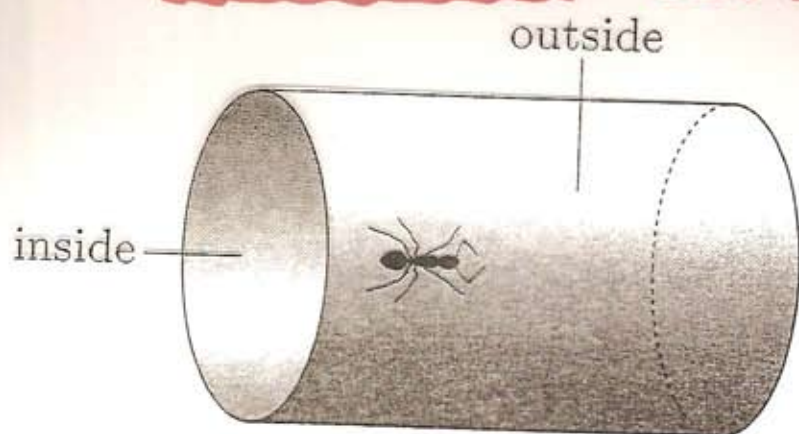


torus



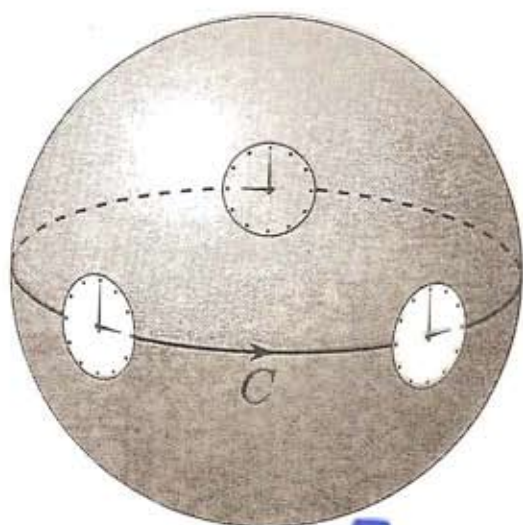
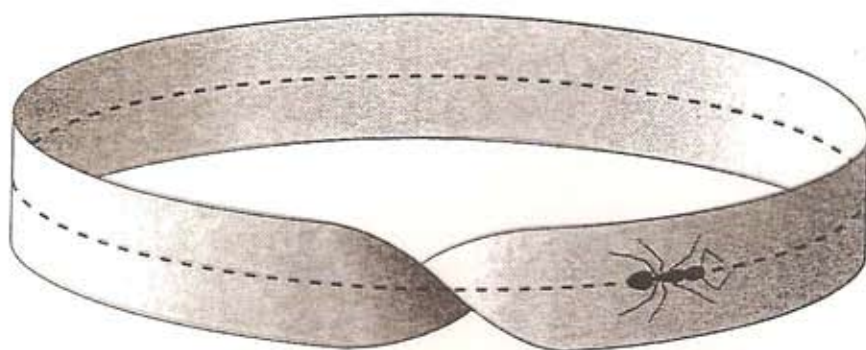
double-torus
(sphere with two handles)

Orientable surfaces

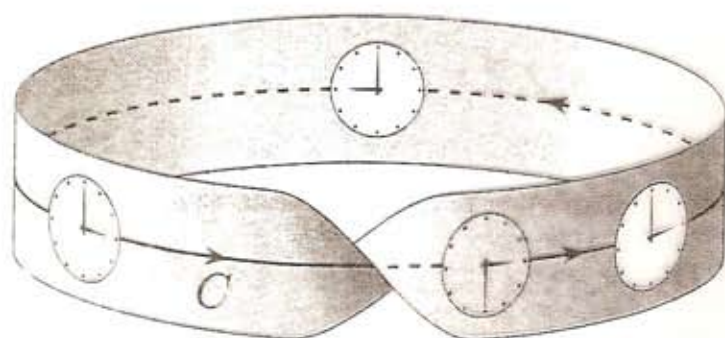
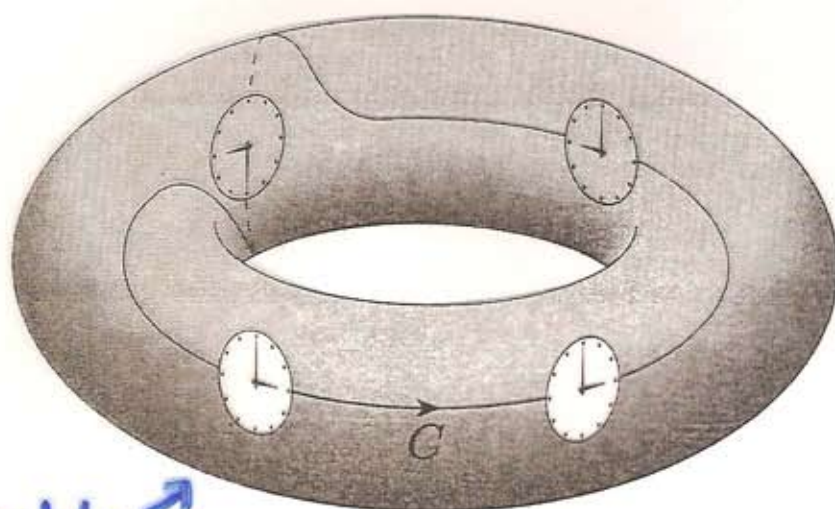


cylinder
(orientable)

Möbius strip
(non-orientable)



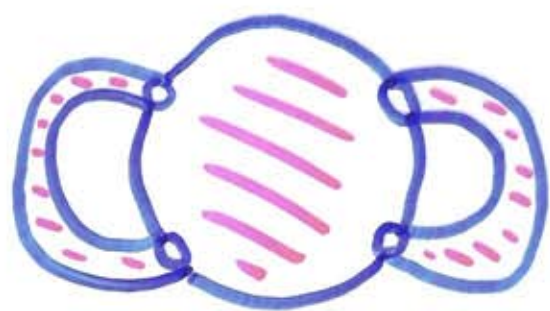
↖ orientable ↗



non-orientable
←

Classifying Surfaces

Every orientable surface is either equivalent to a sphere, or can be obtained by adding handles to a sphere.



adding a handle



insert a Möbius strip

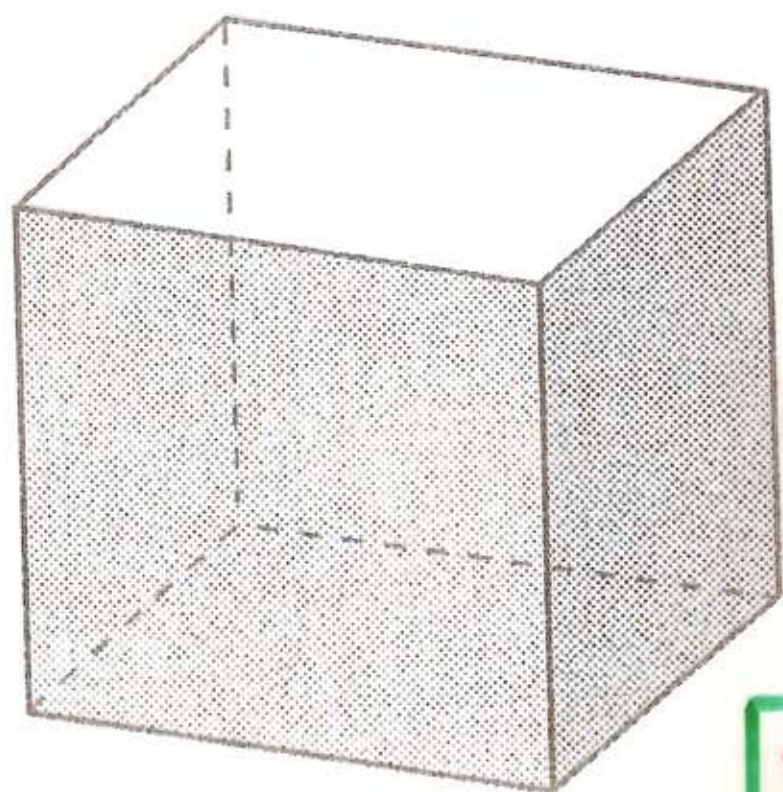
adding a cross-cap

Every non-orientable surface can be obtained by adding cross-caps to a sphere.

2 handles : double-torus

2 cross-caps : Klein bottle

Euler's Polyhedron Formula



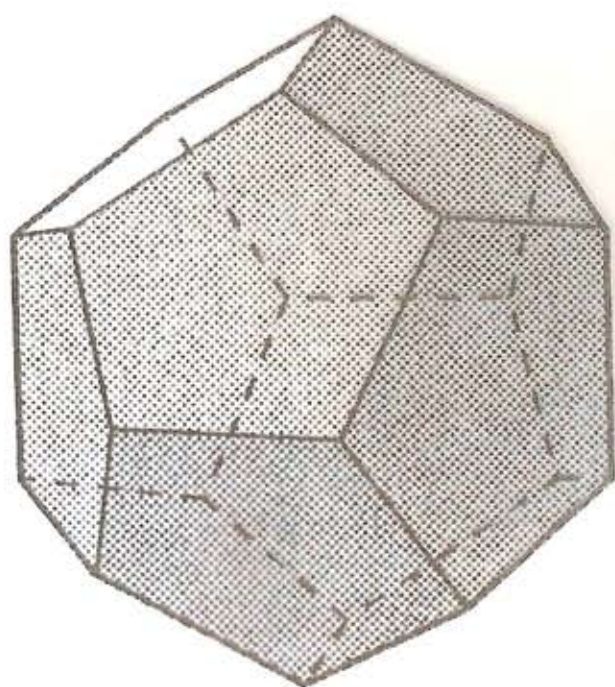
8 vertices

6 faces

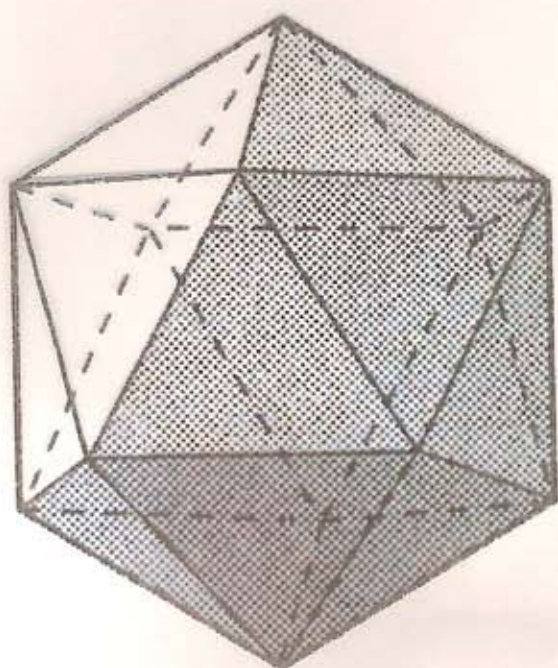
12 edges

$$8 + 6 = 12 + 2$$

$$V + F = E + 2$$



$$20 + 14 = 30 + 2$$



$$12 + 20 = 30 + 2$$

Euler's formula for surfaces

Sphere : $V - E + F = 2$

Torus : $V - E + F = 0$

Double-torus : $V - E + F = -2$

Sphere with h handles : $2 - 2h$

Projective plane : $V - E + F = 1$

Klein bottle : $V - E + F = 0$

Sphere with k cross-caps : $2 - k$

Classification : knowing the following
Theorem classifies a surface uniquely:

- the value of $V - E + F$
- how many pieces of boundary there are
- whether it is orientable

The Heawood Conjecture

For a surface with h holes ($h \geq 1$)

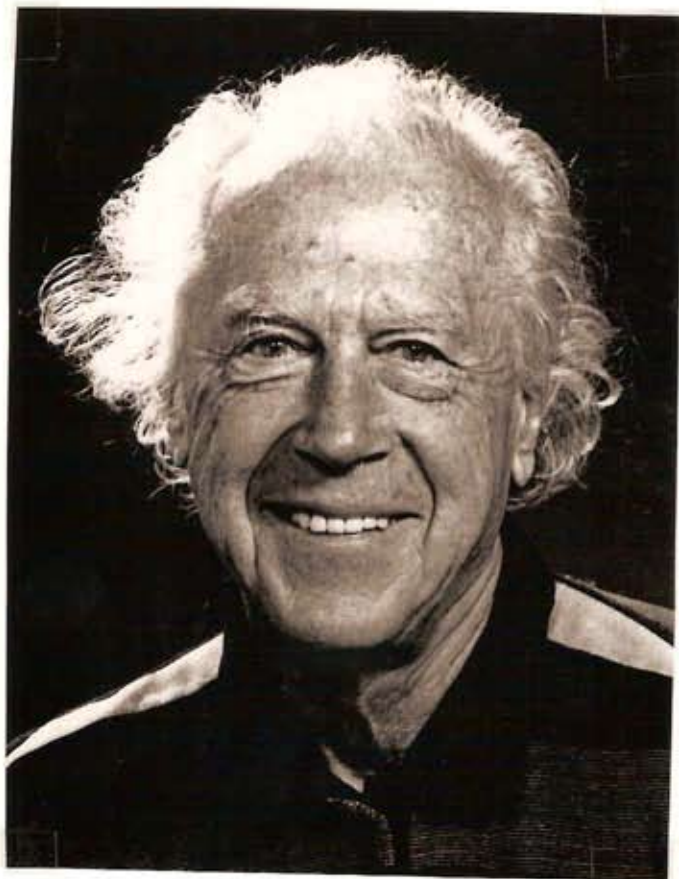
$\lceil \frac{1}{2}(7 + \sqrt{1 + 48h}) \rceil$ colours suffice.

$$h = 1 : \lceil \frac{1}{2}(7 + \sqrt{49}) \rceil = \lceil \frac{1}{2}(7 + 7) \rceil = 7$$

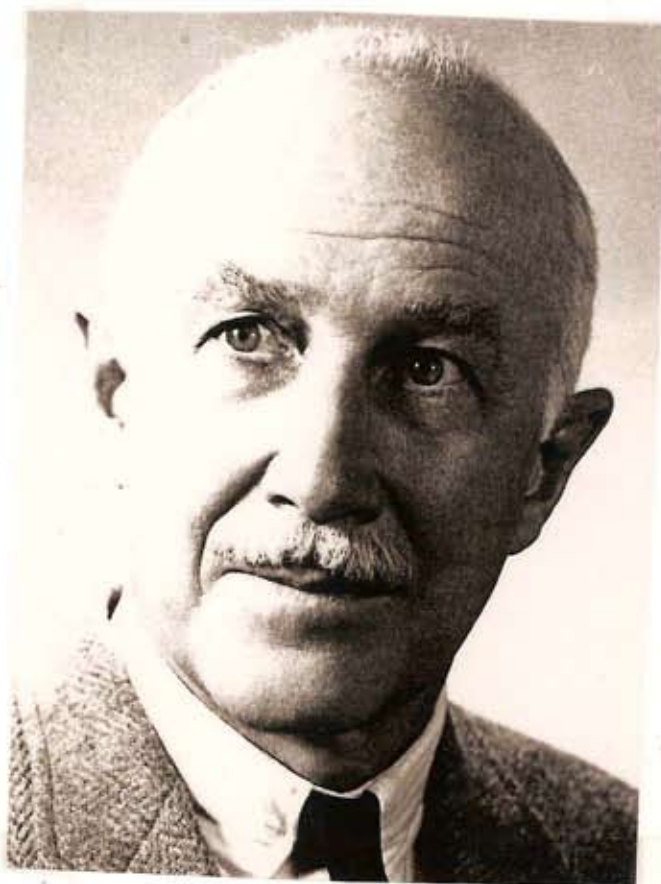
$$h = 2 : \lceil \frac{1}{2}(7 + \sqrt{97}) \rceil = \lceil 8.42 \dots \rceil = 8 \dots$$

Is this best possible?

Yes : G. Ringel & J.W.T. Youngs (1967-8)

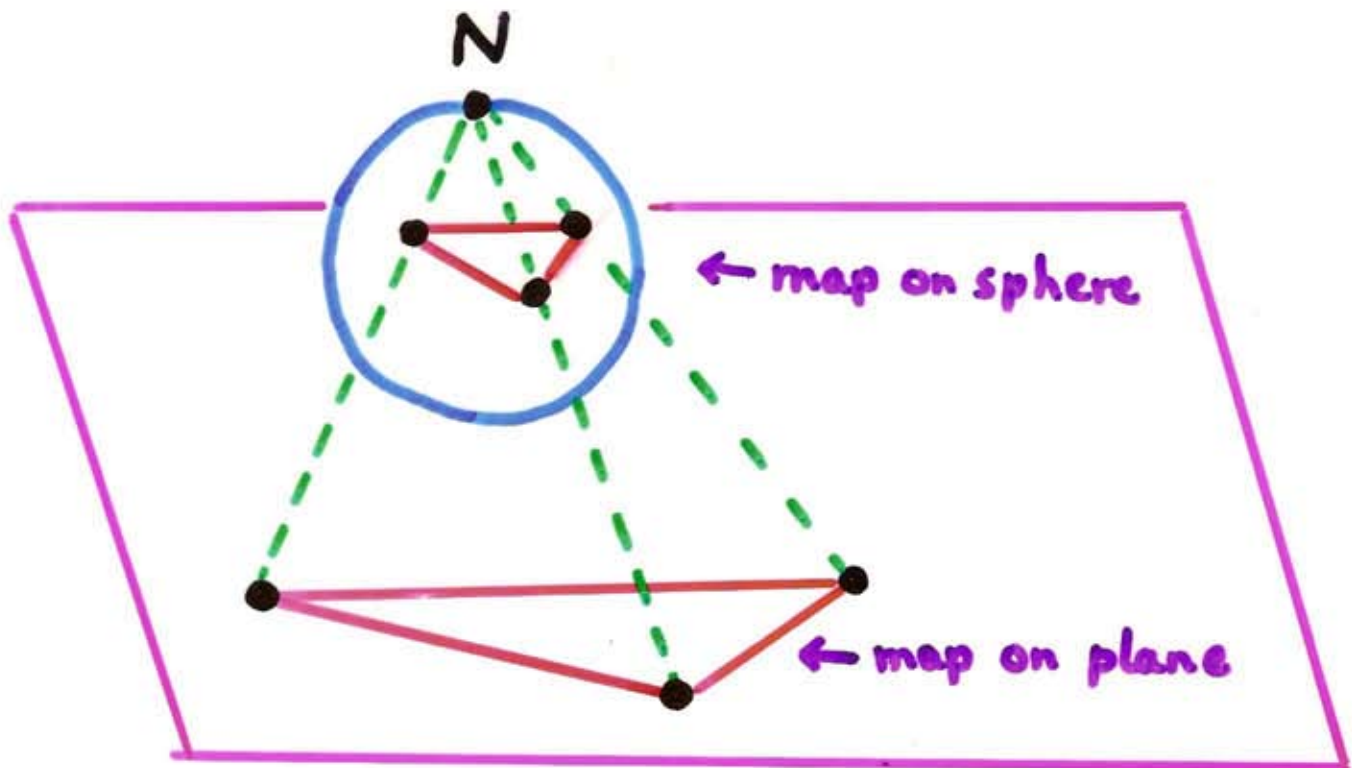


Gerhard Ringel



Ted Youngs

Maps on other surfaces

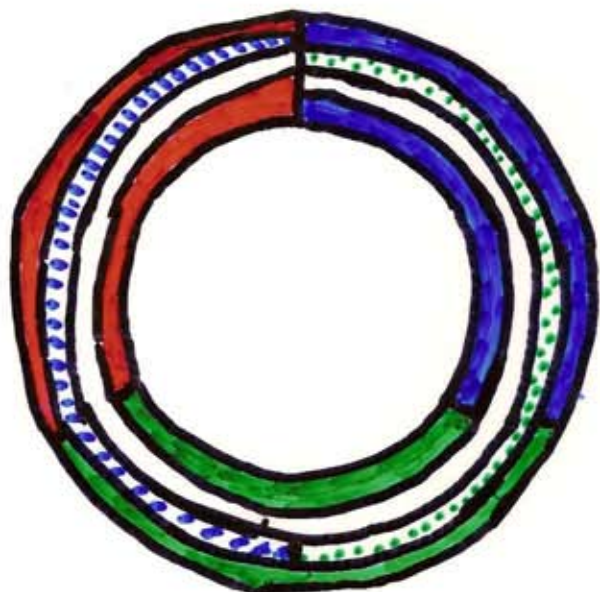


So the four-colour problem concerns maps on a sphere ...

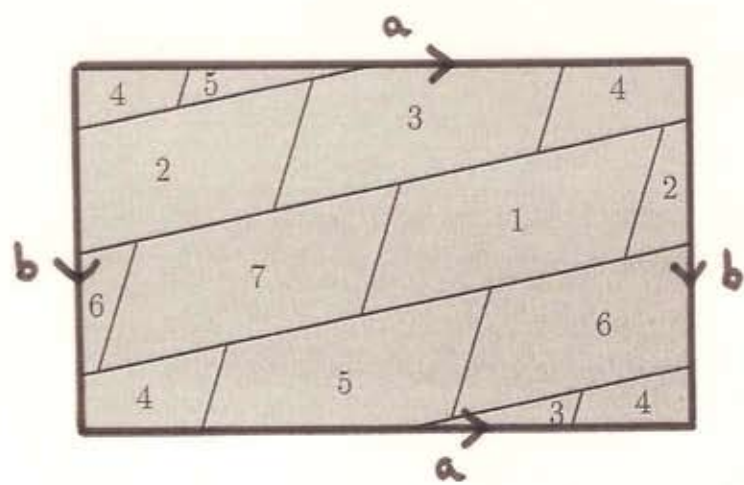
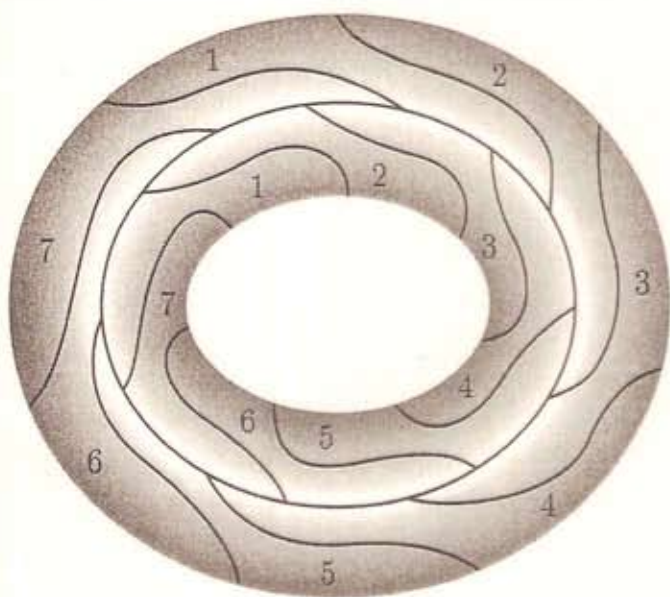
What about other surfaces?

TORUS

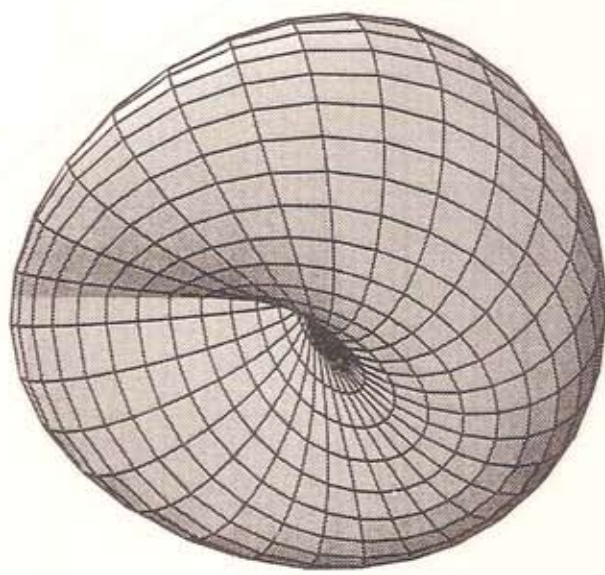
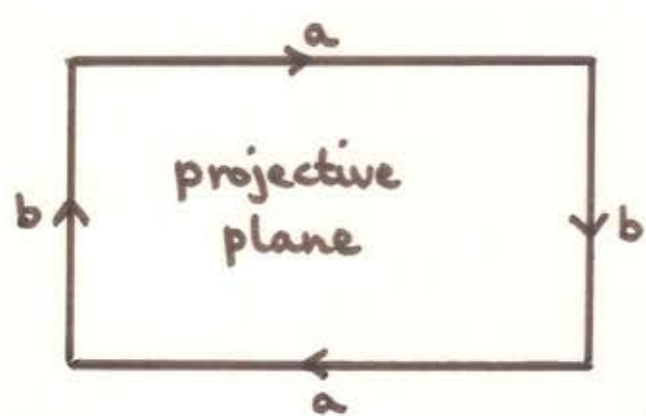
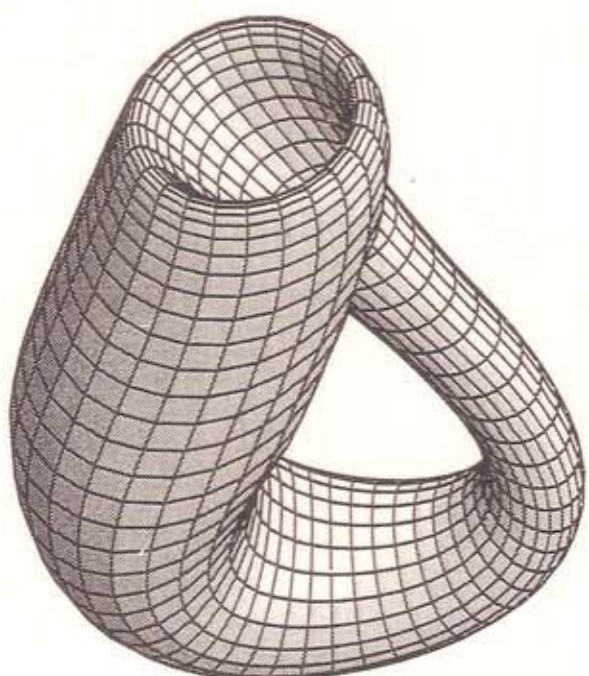
7 colours sufficient
— and sometimes
necessary



Maps on Surfaces



torus



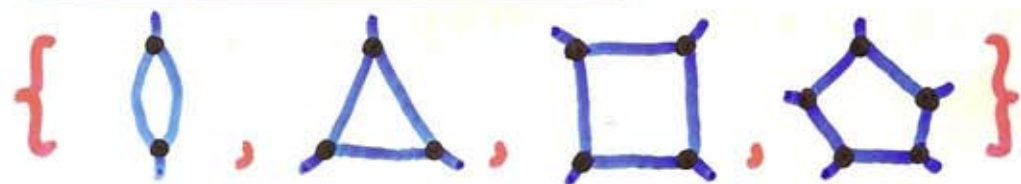


Kenneth Appel and Wolfgang Haken

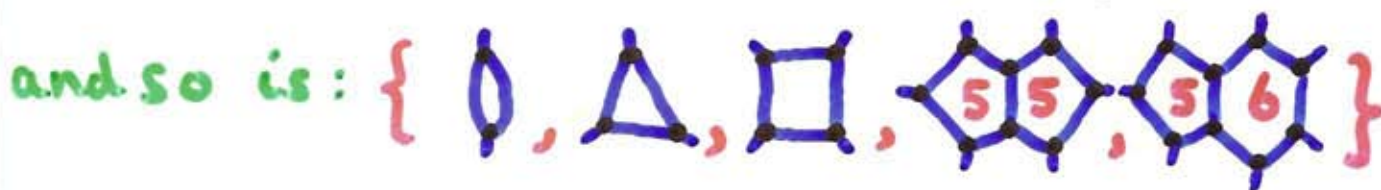
solved the four-colour problem by finding
an unavoidable set of 1936 (later 1482)
reducible configurations.

Proving the Four-Colour Theorem

Unavoidable sets



is an unavoidable set — every map contains at least one of them...



Reducible configurations



are reducible

so is



'Birkhoff
diamond'
(1913)

Aim (Heinrich Heesch): solve the problem
by finding an unavoidable set of reducible
configurations.

FOUR COLOURS SUFFICE

