

Math 241 Lec 5 9/13/17

Consider the following pattern

Pascal's Triangle

$$\begin{matrix} & 1 & & 0 \\ \binom{1}{0} & = & 1 & \binom{1}{1} = 1 \\ \binom{2}{0} & = & 1 & \binom{2}{1} = 2 & \binom{2}{2} = 1 \end{matrix}$$

Outsides are 1's, inside are sums of two #'s above

$$\begin{matrix} & 1 & & 3 & & 3 & & 1 \\ & \binom{3}{0} & = & 1 & \binom{3}{1} = 3 & \binom{3}{2} = 3 & \binom{3}{3} = 1 \\ 1 & & 3 & & 3 & & 1 \\ \binom{4}{0} & \binom{4}{1} & \binom{4}{2} & \binom{4}{3} & \binom{4}{4} \end{matrix}$$

we've seen this pattern before when we proving the binomial theorem

so  $\binom{4}{2} = \binom{3}{1} + \binom{3}{2}$ . This motivates the following recurrence relation

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$

Is this commonly true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0, k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ ?

switch

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} & \stackrel{?}{=} \left( \frac{(n-1)!}{((n-1)-(k-1))! (k-1)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{(n-k-1)! (k)!} \right) \cdot \frac{n}{n} \\ & = \frac{n!}{n} \left( \frac{1}{(n-k)! (k-1)!} \cdot \frac{k}{k} + \frac{1}{(n-k-1)! k!} \cdot \frac{n-k}{n-k} \right) \\ & = \frac{n!}{n} \left( \frac{k}{(n-k)! k!} + \frac{n-k}{(n-k)! k!} \right) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)! k!} \end{aligned}$$

Consider the set of playing cards,  $\mathcal{D}$ .

$$\text{Suit: } S = \{ \spadesuit, \heartsuit, \clubsuit, \diamondsuit \}$$

$$\text{Rank } R = \{2, 3, \dots, 10, J, Q, K, A\}$$

cards are called "cards"

$$|S| = 4, |R| = 13, \mathcal{D} = S \times R, |\mathcal{D}| = 52$$

Consider the situation where you are dealt 5 cards randomly where order doesn't matter. How many hands are there? (a "hand") [2]  
Each card is equally likely

$$\binom{52}{5} = 2,598,960$$

What is the prob. you are dealt a "royal flush" 10 J Q K A same suit.

$$P(\text{Royal Flush}) = \frac{|\text{Royal Flush}|}{|S|} = \frac{4}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

$$P(\text{Str Flush}) = \frac{\binom{4}{1} \binom{9}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

$\swarrow$  suit       $\swarrow$  starting rank

A 2 3 4 5  
 2 3 4 5 6  
 3 4 5 6 7  
 .  
 9 10 J Q K  
 10 J Q K A  
 royal flush.

$$P(4 \text{ of a kind}) = \frac{\binom{13}{1} \binom{48}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}} = \frac{\binom{12}{1} \binom{4}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

$\swarrow$  rank       $\swarrow$  any other card

7 7 7 7 J

$$P(\text{Full house}) = \frac{\binom{13}{1} \binom{4}{3} \binom{12}{1} \binom{4}{2}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

$\swarrow$  choose rank in 3-of-a-kind       $\swarrow$  choose 3 of the 4 suits of that rank  
 $\swarrow$  choose 2 of the 4 suits of other rank

7 7 7 J J

$\uparrow$        $\uparrow$   
 3-of-a-kind    2-of-a-kind

pick out  $\rightarrow$

$$P(\text{flush}) = \frac{\binom{4}{1} \binom{12}{5} - \binom{4}{1} \binom{9}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}} \leq \frac{\# \text{ of str. flushes (from above)}}{\# \text{ of royal flushes}}$$

5 ranks  
without replacement

all same  
suit but  
NOT  
a str. flush or royal flush

$$P(\text{Straight}) = \frac{\binom{9}{1} \binom{4}{1}^5}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

in order  
but not

a  
str. flush

pick a rank  
pick 3 suits

$$P(3 \text{ of a kind}) = \frac{\binom{13}{1} \binom{4}{3} \binom{12}{2} \binom{4}{1}^2}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

why not  $\binom{48}{2}$ ? Too many! You may get a pair!

$$P(2 \text{ of a kind}) = \frac{\binom{13}{2} \binom{4}{1}^2 \binom{11}{1} \binom{4}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}} \neq \frac{\binom{13}{1} \binom{4}{2} \binom{12}{1} \binom{4}{2} \binom{11}{1} \binom{4}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

Since  $\binom{13}{2} \neq \binom{13}{1} \binom{12}{1} = 13 \cdot 12 = 13 P_2$

order does not matter      order matters

$$AA\ 55\ Q = 55\ AA\ Q$$

Contrast to

$$P(\text{Full house}) = \frac{\binom{13}{1} \binom{4}{3} \binom{12}{1} \binom{4}{2}}{\binom{52}{5}} \neq \frac{\binom{13}{1} \binom{4}{3} \binom{12}{1} \binom{4}{2}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

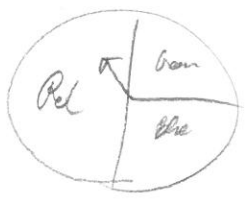
Since  $AAA\ 77 \neq AA\ 777$  says dice roll  $\Rightarrow$  off by factor of 2.

"working"

Return to a def of prob. Indeed this is called the "classical def" and it was in use through the 1800's

$$P(A) = \frac{|A|}{|\Omega|}$$

Consider the following random experiment



$$P(\{\text{Red}\}) = \frac{|\{\text{Red}\}|}{|\Omega|} = \frac{1}{3} \quad \text{No...}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Omega = \{\text{R, G, B}\}$$

What hidden assumption did we employ this time?

However,  $P(\{\text{out}\}) = \frac{1}{|\Omega|}$  i.e. each outcome equally likely

e.g. flipping coins, rolling die, selecting people at random, drawing cards randomly from the spinner above... not so.

Imagine using the above  $\Omega = \{\text{yes}, \text{no}\}$   $P(\text{yes}) = \frac{1}{2}$  no..

Most non-~~toy~~ problems do not have this property.

Even  $\Omega = \{\text{H, T}\} \Rightarrow P(\text{H}) = P(\text{T}) = \frac{1}{2}$  Are you sure? Prob not each coin is weighted differently. At some decimal  $P(\text{H}) = 0.500001$

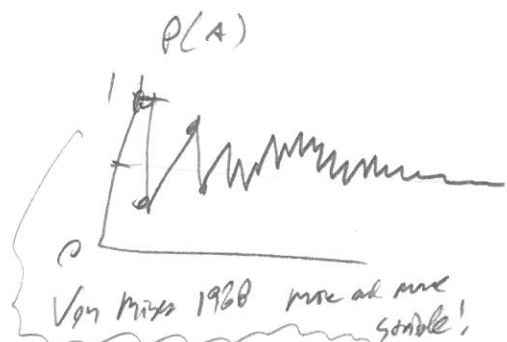
"Equally likely" is frequently an approximation to reality.

How do we define prob?

① Limiting Frequency Def.

Defn  $\mathbb{I}_{\omega \in A} := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \notin A \end{cases}$

$$P(A) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{I}_{\omega_i \in A}}{n} = \frac{\#(\omega \in A)}{n}$$



John Kerrich was a statistician. Caught by the Nazis thrown in jail. In jail, he flipped a coin 10,000 times and got 5067 heads (published in 1946).  
 $\Rightarrow 5067 \approx .5$

## Problems

①  $n \neq \infty$  then we can only approx. prob's by using large  $n$  and actually running experiments. This is bad!

(i) we never know "true" prob's values.

(ii) our experiment can fail! we can have incorrect prob. values.

② Some random experiments are one-off.

$P(\text{OS signum guilty})$

$P(\text{Irma hits Brian})$

$P(\text{NK make beam})$

Impossible to assess acc's to this def.

Interesting story. 1654 a guy named Chevalier de Mere wrote in a letter to Pascal & Fermat that he believed

$$P(\{\geq 1 \text{ double 6 in } 24 \text{ rolls of two dice}\}) < \frac{1}{2}.$$

Turns out  $\approx .4914$  we will see this next class. He used the i.r.f. def!