The Mathematics of Game Shows

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1 Introduction

We will begin by watching a few game show clips and seeing a little bit of the math behind them.

1.1 Example: The Price Is Right, Contestants' Row

We begin with the following clip from The Price Is Right:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TmKP1a03E2g

Game Description (Contestants' Row - The Price Is Right): Four contestants are shown an item up for bid. In order, each guesses its price (in whole dollars). You can't use a guess that a previous contestant used. The winner is the contestant who bids the closest to the actual price without going over.

In this clip, the contestants are shown some scuba equipment, and they bid 750, 875, 500, and 900 in that order. The actual price is \$994, and the fourth contestant wins. What can we say about the contestants' strategy?

• As a first step, it is useful to precisely describe the results of the bidding: the first contestant wins if the price is in $[750, 874]^1$; the second, if the price is in [875, 899]; the third, in [500, 749]; the fourth, in $[900, \infty)$. If the price is less than \$500, then all the bids are cleared and the contestants start over.

We can see who did well before we learn how much the scuba gear costs. Clearly, the fourth contestant did well. If the gear is worth anything more than \$900 (which is plausible), then she wins. The third contestant also did well: he is left with a large range of winning prices – 250 of them to be precise. The second contestant didn't fare well at all: although his bid was close to the actual price, he is left with a very small winning range. This is not his fault: it is a big disadvantage to go early.

¹Recall that [a, b] is mathematical notation for all the numbers between a and b.

• The next question to ask is: could any of the contestants have done better?

We begin with the fourth contestant. Here the answer is yes, and her strategy is **dominated** by a bid of \$876, which would win in the price range [876, ∞). In other words: a bid of \$876 would win every time a bid of \$900 would, but not vice versa. Therefore it is better to instead bid \$876 if she believes the scuba gear is more than \$900.

Taking this analysis further, we see that there are exactly four bids that make sense: 876, 751, 501, or 1. Note that each of these bids, except for the one-dollar bid, screws over one of her competitors, and this is not an accident: Contestant's Row is a **zero-sum game** – if someone else wins, you lose. If you win, everyone else loses.

• The analysis gets much more subtle if we look at the *third* contestant's options. **Assume that the fourth contestant will play optimally.** (Of course this assumption is very often not true in practice.

Suppose, for example, that the third contestant believes that the scuba gear costs around \$1000. The previous bids were \$750 and \$875. Should be follow the same reasoning and bid \$876? Maybe, but this exposes him to a devastating bid of \$877.

There is much more to say here, but we go on to a different example.

1.2 Deal or No Deal

Here is a clip of the game show **Deal or No Deal**:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I3BzYiCSTo8

The action starts around 4:00.

Game Description (Deal or No Deal): There are 26 briefcases, each of which contains a variable amount of money from \$0.01 to \$1,000,000, totalling \$3,418,416.01, and averaging \$131477.53. The highest prizes are \$500,000, \$750,000, and \$1,000,000.

The contestant chooses one briefcase and keeps it. Then, one at a time, the contestant chooses other briefcases to open, and sees how much money is in each (and therefore establishes that these are not the prizes in his/her own briefcase). Periodically, the 'bank' offers to buy the contestant out, and give him/her a fixed amount of money to quit playing. The contestant either accepts or says 'no deal' and continues playing.

The **expected value** of the game is the average amount of money you expect to win. (We'll have much more to say about this.) So, at the beginning, the expected value of the game is \$131477.53, presuming the contestant rejects all the deals. In theory, that means that the contestant should be equally happy to play the game or to receive \$131477.53. (Of course, this might not be true in practice.)

Now let's look at the game after he chooses six briefcases. The twenty remaining contain a total of \$2936366, or an average of \$146818. The expected value has gone up, because the contestant eliminated mostly small prizes and none of the three biggest. If he wants to

maximize his expected value (and I repeat that this won't necessarily be the case), then all he has to know is that

and so he keeps playing.

The show keeps going like this. After five more cases are eliminated, he again gets lucky and is left with fifteen cases containing a total of \$2808416, so an average of \$187227. The bank's offer is \$125,000 which he refuses. And it keeps going.

1.3 Jeopardy – Final Jeopardy

Here we see the Final Jeopardy round of the popular show Jeopardy:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DAsWPOuF4Fk

Game Description (Jeopardy, Final Round): Three contestants start with a variable amoung of money (which they earned in the previous two rounds). They are shown a category, and are asked how much they wish to wager on the final round. The contestants make their wagers privately and independently.

After they make their wagers, the contestants are asked a trivia question. Anyone answering correctly gains the amount of their wager; anyone answering incorrectly loses it.

Perhaps here an English class would be more useful than a math class! This game is difficult to analyze; unlike our two previous examples, the players play *simultaneously* rather than *sequentially*.

In this clip, the contestants start off with \$9,400, \$23,000, and \$11,200 respectively. It transpires that nobody knew who said that the funeral baked meats did coldly furnish forth the marriage tables. (Richard II? Really? When in doubt, guess Hamlet.) The contestants big respectively \$1801, \$215, and \$7601.

We will save a thorough analysis for later, but we will make one note now: the second contestant can obviously win. If his bid is less than \$600, he will end up with more than \$22,400.

2 Probability

2.1 Sample Spaces and Events

At the foundation of any discussion of game show strategies is a discussion of *probability*. You have already seen this informally, and we will work with this notion somewhat more formally.

Definition 2.1 1. A sample space is the set of all possible outcomes of a some process.

2. An event is any subset of the sample space.

Example 2.2 You roll a die. The sample space consists of all numbers between one and six. Using formal mathematical notation, we can write

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}.$$

We can use the notation $\{...\}$ to describe a set and we simply list the elements in it. Let E be the event that you roll an even number. Then we can write

$$E = \{2, 4, 6\}.$$

Alternatively, we can write

$$E = \{ x \in S : x \text{ is even} \}.$$

Both of these are correct.

Example 2.3 You choose at random a card from a poker deck. The sample space is the set of all 52 cards in the deck. We could write it

$$S = \{A\clubsuit, K\clubsuit, Q\clubsuit, J\clubsuit, 10\clubsuit, 9\clubsuit, 8\clubsuit, 7\clubsuit, 6\clubsuit, 5\clubsuit, 4\clubsuit, 3\clubsuit, 2\clubsuit, \\ A\diamondsuit, K\diamondsuit, Q\diamondsuit, J\diamondsuit, 10\diamondsuit, 9\diamondsuit, 8\diamondsuit, 7\diamondsuit, 6\diamondsuit, 5\diamondsuit, 4\diamondsuit, 3\diamondsuit, 2\diamondsuit, \\ A\heartsuit, K\heartsuit, Q\heartsuit, J\heartsuit, 10\heartsuit, 9\heartsuit, 8\heartsuit, 7\heartsuit, 6\heartsuit, 5\heartsuit, 4\heartsuit, 3\heartsuit, 2\heartsuit, \\ A\spadesuit, K\spadesuit, Q\spadesuit, J\spadesuit, 10\spadesuit, 9\spadesuit, 8\spadesuit, 7\spadesuit, 6\spadesuit, 5\spadesuit, 4\spadesuit, 3\spadesuit, 2\spadesuit\}$$

but writing all of that out is annoying. An English description is probably better.

Example 2.4 You choose two cards at random from a poker deck. Then the sample space is the set of all pairs of cards in the deck. For example, $A \spadesuit A \heartsuit$ and $7 \clubsuit 2 \diamondsuit$ are elements of this sample space,

This is definitely too long to write out every element, so here an English description is probably better. (There are exactly 1,326 elements in this sample space.) Some events are easier to describe – for example, the event that you get a pair of aces can be written

$$E = \{A \spadesuit A \heartsuit, A \spadesuit A \diamondsuit, A \spadesuit A \clubsuit, A \heartsuit A \diamondsuit, A \heartsuit A \clubsuit, A \clubsuit A \diamondsuit\}$$

and has six elements. If you are playing Texas Hold'em, your odds of being dealt a pair of aces is exactly $\frac{6}{1326} = \frac{1}{221}$, or a little under half a percent.

Our next example is taken from the following TPIR clip:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=TR7Smevj1AQ

Game Description (Squeeze Play (The Price Is Right)): You are shown a prize, and a five- or six-digit number. The price of the prize is this number with one of the digits removed, other than the first or the last.

The contestant is asked to remove one digit. If the remaining number is the price, the contestant wins the prize.

In this clip the contestant is shown the number 114032. Can we describe the game in terms of a sample space?

It is important to recognize that **this question is not precisely defined. Your answer will depend on your interpretation of the question!** This is probably very much *not* what you are used to from a math class.

Here's one possible interpretation. Either the contestant wins or loses, so we can describe the sample space as

$$S = \{ you win, you lose \}.$$

Logically there is nothing wrong with this. But it doesn't tell us very much about the structure of the game, does it?

Here is an answer I like better. We write

$$S = \{14032, 11032, 11432, 11402\},\$$

where we've written 14032 as shorthand for 'the prize of the prize is 14032'.

Another correct answer is

$$S = \{2, 3, 4, 5\},\$$

where here 2 is shorthand for 'the price of the prize has the second digit removed.'

Still another correct answer is

$$S = \{1, 4, 0, 3\},\$$

where here 1 is shorthand for 'the price of the prize has the 1 removed.'

All of these answers make sense, and all of them require an accompanying explanation to understand what they mean.

The contestant chooses to have the 0 removed. So the event that the contestant wins can be described as $E = \{11432\}$, $E = \{4\}$, or $E = \{0\}$, depending on which way you wrote the sample space. (Don't mix and match! Once you choose how to write your sample space, you need to describe your events in the same way.) If all the possibilities are equally likely, the contestant has a one in four chance of winning.

The contest guesses correctly and is on his way to Patagonia!

Notation 2.5 If S is any set (for example a sample space or an event), write N(S) for the number of elements in it. In this course we will always assume this number is finite.

Probability Rule: All Outcomes are Equally Likely. Suppose S is a sample space in which all outcomes are equally likely, and E is an event in S. Then the **probability of** E, **denoted** P(E), is

$$P(E) = \frac{N(E)}{N(S)}.$$

Example 2.6 You roll a die, so $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

- 1. Let E be the event that you roll a 4, i.e., $E = \{4\}$. Then $P(E) = \frac{1}{6}$.
- 2. Let E be the event that you roll an odd number, i.e., $E = \{1, 3, 5\}$. Then $P(E) = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$.

Example 2.7 You draw one card from a deck, with S as before.

- 1. Let E be the event that you draw a spade. Then N(E) = 13 and $P(E) = \frac{13}{52} = \frac{1}{4}$.
- 2. Let E be the event that you draw an ace. Then N(E)=4 and $P(E)=\frac{4}{52}=\frac{1}{13}$.
- 3. Let E be the event that you draw an ace or a spade. What is N(E)? There are thirteen spades in the deck, and there are three aces which are not spades. Don't double count the ace of spades!

So
$$N(E) = 16$$
 and $P(E) = \frac{16}{52} = \frac{4}{13}$.

Example 2.8 In a game of Texas Hold'em, you are dealt two cards at random in first position. You decide to raise with a pair of sixes or higher, ace-king, or ace-queen, and to fold otherwise.

The sample space has 1326 elements in it. The event of two-card hands which you are willing to raise has 86 elements in it. (If you like, write them all out. Later we will discuss how this number can be computed more efficiently!)

Since all two card hands are equally likely, the probability that you raise is $\frac{86}{1326}$, or around one in fifteen.

Now, here is an important example: You roll two dice and sum the totals. What is the probability that you roll a 7?

The result can be anywhere from 2 to 12, so we have

$$S = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}$$

and
$$E = \{7\}$$
. **2.2 2.**: Therefore, $P(E) = \frac{N(E)}{N(S)} = \frac{1}{11}$.

Here is another solution. We can roll anything from 1 to 6 on the first die, and the same for the second die, so we have

$$S = \{11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66\}.$$

We list all the possibilities that add to 7:

$$E = \{16, 25, 34, 43, 52, 61\}$$

And so
$$P(E) = \frac{6}{36} = \frac{1}{6}$$
.

We solved this problem two different ways and got two different answers. The point is that not every outcome in a sample space will be equally likely. We know that a die (if it is equally weighted) is equally likely to come up 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6. So we can see that, according to our second interpretation, all the possibilities are still equally likely because all combinations are explicitly listed. But there is no reason why all the sums should be equally likely.

Note that it is often true that all outcomes are approximately equally likely, and we model this scenario by assuming that they are. If our assumptions are close to the truth, so is our answer.

For example, consider the trip to Patagonia. If we assume that all outcomes are equally likely, the contestant's guess has a 1 in 4 chance of winning. But the contestant correctly guessed that over \$14,000 was implausibly expensive, and around \$11,000 was more reasonable.

Another example comes from the TPIR game **Rat Race**:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Kp8rhV5PUMw

Game Description (Rat Race (The Price Is Right)): The game is played for three prizes: a small prize, a medium prize, and a car.

There is a track with five wind-up rats (pink, yellow, blue, orange, and green). The contestant attempts to price three small items, and chooses one rat for each successful attempt. The rats then race. If he picked the third place rat, she wins the small prize; if she picked the second place rat, she wins the medium prize; if he picked the first place rat, she wins the car.

(Note that it is possible to win two or even all three prizes.)

Note that except for knowing the prices of the small items, there is no strategy. The rats are (we presume) equally likely to finish in any order.

In this example, the contestant correctly prices two of the items and picks the pink and orange rats.

Problem 1. Compute the probability that she wins the car.

Here's the painful solution: describe all possible orderings in which the rats could finish. We can describe the sample space as

$$S = \{POB, POR, POG, PBR, PBG, PRG, \dots, \dots\}$$

where the letters indicate the ordering of the first three rats to finish. Any such ordering is equally likely. The sample space has sixty elements, and twenty-four of them start with P or G. So the probability is $\frac{24}{60} = \frac{2}{5}$.

Do you see the easier solution? To answer the problem we were asked, we only care about the **first** rat. So let's ignore the second and third finishers, and write the sample space as

$$S = \{P, O, B, R, G\}.$$

The event that she wins is

$$E = \{P, G\},\$$

and so
$$P(E) = \frac{N(E)}{N(S)} = \frac{2}{5}$$
.

Here's a possible solution that was suggested in class. It doesn't work, and it's very instructive to think about why it doesn't work. As the sample space, take all combinations of one rat and which order it finishes in:

S = {Pink rat finishes first, Pink rat finishes second, Pink rat finishes third, Pink rat finishes fourth, Pink rat finishes fifth, Yellow rat finishes first, etc.}

This sample space indeed lists a lot of different things that could happen. But how would you describe the event that the contestant wins? If the pink or orange rat finishes first, certainly she wins. But what if the yellow rat finishes third? Then maybe she wins, maybe she loses. There are several problems with this sample space:

- The events are not mutually exclusive. It can happen that **both** the pink rat finishes second, **and** the yellow rat finishes first. A sample space should be described so that **exactly one of the outcomes will occur**.
 - Of course, a meteor could strike the television studio, and Drew, the contestant, the audience, and all five rats could explode in a giant fireball. But we're building *mathematical models* here, and so we can afford to ignore remote possibilities like this.
- In addition, you can't describe the event 'the contestant wins' as a subset of the sample space. What if the pink rat finishes fifth? The contestant also has the orange rat. It is ambigious whether this possibility should be part of the event or not.

Altogether, (from the learner's perspective) a very good wrong answer! Once you are very experienced, you will be able to skip straight to the correct answer. When you are just learning the material, your first idea will often be incorrect. Your willingness to critically examine your ideas, and to revise or reject them when needed, will lead you to the truth.

Problem 2. Compute the probability that she wins both the car and the meal delivery. Here we care about the first two rats. We write

$$S = \{PO, PB, PR, PG, OP, OB, OR, OG, BP, BO, BR, BG, RP, RO, RB, RG, GP, GO, GB, GR\}.$$

The sample space has twenty elements in it. $(20 = 5 \times 4)$: there are 5 possibilities for the first place finisher, and (once we know who wins) 4 for the second. More on this later.) The event that she wins is

$$\{PO, OP\}$$

and
$$P(E) = \frac{N(E)}{N(S)} = \frac{2}{20} = \frac{1}{10}$$
.

Problem 3. Compute the probability that she wins all three prizes.

Zero. Duh. She only won two rats! Sorry.

2.2 The Addition and Multiplication Rules

The Addition Rule (1). Suppose E and F are two disjoint events – i.e., they don't overlap. Then

$$P(E \text{ or } F) = P(E) + P(F).$$

Example 2.9 You roll a die. Compute the probability that you roll either a 1, or a four or higher.

Let $E = \{1\}$ be the event that you roll a 1, and $E = \{4, 5, 6\}$ be the event that you roll a 4 or higher. Then

$$P(E \text{ or } F) = P(E) + P(F) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{3}{6} = \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Example 2.10 You draw a poker card at random. What is the probability you draw either a heart, or a black card which is a ten or higher?

Let E be the event that you draw a heart. As before, $P(E) = \frac{13}{52}$.

Let F be the event that you draw a black card ten or higher, i.e.,

$$F = \{A\clubsuit, K\clubsuit, Q\clubsuit, J\clubsuit, 10\clubsuit, A\spadesuit, K\spadesuit, Q\spadesuit, J\spadesuit, 10\spadesuit\}.$$

Then $P(F) = \frac{10}{52}$.

So we have

$$P(E \text{ or } F) = \frac{13}{52} + \frac{10}{52} = \frac{23}{52}.$$

Example 2.11 You draw a poker card at random. What is the probability you draw either a heart, or a red card which is a ten or higher?

This doesn't have the same answer, because hearts are red. If we want to apply the addition rule, we have to do so carefully.

Let E be again the event that you draw a heart, with $P(E) = \frac{13}{52}$

Now let F be the event that you draw a diamond which is ten or higher:

$$F = \{A\diamondsuit, K\diamondsuit, Q\diamondsuit, J\diamondsuit, 10\diamondsuit\}.$$

Now together E and F cover all the hearts and all the red cards at least ten, and there is no overlap. So we can use the addition rule.

$$P(E \text{ or } F) = P(E) + P(F) = \frac{13}{52} + \frac{5}{52} = \frac{18}{52}.$$

We can also use the addition rule with more than two events, as long as they don't overlap.

Example 2.12 Consider the Rat Race contestant from earlier. What is the probability that she wins any two of the prizes?

Solution 1. We will give a solution using the addition rule. (Later, we will give another solution using the Multiplication Rule.)

Recall that her chances of winning the car and the meal delivery were $\frac{1}{10}$. Let us call this event CM instead of E.

Now what are her chances of winning the car and the guitar? (Call this event CG.) Again $\frac{1}{10}$. If you like, you can work this question out in the same way. But it is best to observe that there is a natural symmetry in the problem. The rats are all alike and any ordering is equally likely. They don't know which prizes are in which lanes. So the probability has to be the same.

Finally, what is P(MG), the probability that she wins the meal service and the guitar? Again $\frac{1}{10}$ for the same reason.

Finally, observe these events are all disjoint, because she can't possibly win more than two. So the probability is three times $\frac{1}{10}$, or $\frac{3}{10}$.

Here is a contrasting situation. Suppose the contestant had picked all three small prices correctly, and got to choose three of the rats. In this case, the probability she wins both the car and the meal service is $\frac{3}{10}$, rather than $\frac{1}{10}$. (You can either work out the details yourself, or else take my word for it.)

But this time the probability that she wins two prizes is $not \frac{3}{10} + \frac{3}{10} + \frac{3}{10}$, because now the events CM, CG, and MG are not disjoint: it is possible for her to win all three prizes, and if she does, then all of CM, CG, and MG occur!

It turns out that in this case the probability that she wins at least two is $\frac{7}{10}$, and the probability that she wins exactly two is $\frac{3}{5}$.

The Multiplication Rule. The multiplication rule computes the probability that both E and F occur. The formula is the following:

$$P(E \text{ and } F) = P(E) \times P(F).$$

It is not always valid, but it is valid in any of the following three circumstances:

- The events E and F are independent.
- ullet The probability given for F assumes that the event E occurs.
- ullet The probability given for E assumes that the event F occurs.

Example 2.13 You flip a coin twice. What is the probability that you flip heads both times?

We can use the multiplication rule for this. The probability that you flip heads if you flip a coin once is $\frac{1}{2}$. Since coin flips are independent (flipping heads the first time doesn't make

it more or less likely that you will flip heads the second time) we multiply the probabilities to get $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$.

Alternatively, we can give a direct solution. Let

$$S = \{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$$

and

$$E = \{HH\}.$$

Since all outcomes are equally likely,

$$P(E) = \frac{N(E)}{N(S)} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

We can also use the multiplication rule for more than two events.

Example 2.14 You flip a coin twenty times. What is the probability that you flip heads every time?

If we use the multiplication rule, we see at once that the probability is

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} \times \dots \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2^{20}} = \frac{1}{1048576}.$$

This example will illustrate the second use of the Multiplication Rule.

Example 2.15 Consider the Rat Race example again (as it happened in the video). What is the probability that the contestant wins both the car and the meal service?

The probability that she wins the car is $\frac{2}{5}$, as it was before. So we need to now compute the probability that she wins the meal service, given that she won the car.

This time the sample space consists of four rats: we leave out whichever one won the car. The event is that her remaining one rat wins the meal service, and so the probability of this event is $\frac{1}{4}$.

By the multiplication rule, the total probability is

$$\frac{2}{5} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{10}$$
.

Michael Larson. Here is a bit of game show history. The following clip comes from the game show Press Your Luck on May 19, 1984.

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UzggoA41Lwk

Here Michael Larsen smashed the all-time record by winning \$110,237. The truly fascinating clip starts at around 17:00, where Larson continues to press his luck, to the host's increasing disbelief. On 28 consecutive spins, Larson avoided all the whammies and each time hit a space that afforded him an extra spin. There are eighteen squares on the board, and on average there are approximately five spaces worth money and an extra spin.

Example 2.16 Assume for simplicity that each time there are exactly five spaces (out of eighteen) that Larson wants to hit, and that the outcome is random and that each square is equally likely to occur.

If Larson spins twenty-eight times, compute the probability that he hits a good spot every time.

Solution. This is a straightforward application of the multiplication rule. The answer is $\left(\frac{5}{18}\right)^{28}$, or approximately one in

Either Larson got very, very, very, VERY lucky...... or else the pattern is not random and he figured it out.

Card Sharks. Here is another game show from the eighties that leads to interesting probability computations.

In brief, the rules of the show are as follows. The contestants each get a line-up of five cards and their objective is to make it to the end. They take turns (based on their answers to some trivia questions).

When a contestant gets to go, their marker is placed on the first card. The first card is revealed and the contestant may replace it with another random card if so desired. Then h/she must guess higher or lower. In any case the next card is revealed and if correct the contestant may either 'freeze' or keep going.

Wherever the contestant freezes, his/her marker is placed on that card and h/she starts from there on their next turn.

Here is a typical clip:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bUv0CRU6t5o

Here is our objective: Assuming that the trivia questions are a 50-50 tossup, determine the optimal strategy in all situations. This problem is somewhat difficult (and our mental heuristics for it are fairly spot on). But at least in principle, it is possible to give a complete solution to this problem.

We won't try to achieve this all at once. Instead, we'll ask a number of probability questions to get started:

Example 2.17 Consider Cynthia's first turn, where she guesses 'lower'. Compute the probability that she is correct.

Answer. The sample space consists of the 51 cards other than the king of clubs. Of these, only seven are not lower: the four aces, and the three remaining kings. So 51-7=44 cards are lower, and her chances are $\frac{44}{51}$.

We also compute the probabilities at the next two rounds. She guesses the third card will be higher than a 2. There are 50 cards remaining, and 47 of them are higher than a 2, so her odds are $\frac{47}{50}$.

The next card was a 9. Of the 49 remaining cards, 27 are lower than a 9 and 19 are higher. (And the three remaining nines are neither higher nor lower – so she would lose no matter what she picked). If she chose to play, her odds of winning the next card would be $\frac{27}{49}$, or slightly better than 50-50. She quite reasonably chooses to freeze and lock in her position.

Now we skip ahead to Royce's second round (when both Royce and Cynthia have frozen on the third of five cards).

Here are several questions we can ask:

- Given that Royce has replaced his nine with a three, compute the probability that he can win the round (assuming he doesn't freeze).
- Before Royce sees the three, compute the probability that he can win the round.
- Given that Royce's card is a five, compute the probability that he wins if he doesn't choose to freeze.
- If Royce chooses to freeze, answers the next trivia question correctly, and gets to go again, compute the probability that he wins on his next attempt.
 - (Note that this is not the total probability he wins: he could lose on his next attempt, but then answer another trivia question correctly and get yet another try.)
- If Royce chooses to freeze and Cynthia answers the next trivia question correctly, what is the probability that she wins the next round (if she doesn't freeze)?

These questions get us closer to the question we're *really* interested in: should Royce freeze on the five or not?

2.3 Exercises

Most of these should be relatively straightforward, but there are a couple of quite difficult exercises mixed in here for good measure.

- 1. Card questions. In each question, you choose at random a card from an ordinary deck. What is the probability you -
 - (a) Draw a spade?
 - (b) Draw an ace?
 - (c) Draw a face card? (a jack, queen, king, or an ace)
 - (d) Draw a spade or a card below five?

2. Dice questions:

(a) You roll two dice and sum the total. What is the probability you roll exactly a five? At least a ten?

- (b) You roll three dice and sum the total. What is the probability you roll at least a 14? (This question is kind of annoying if you do it by brute force. Can you be systematic?)
- (c) The dice game of *craps* is (in its most basic form) played as follows.
 - You roll two dice. If you roll a 7 or 11 on your first roll, you win immediately, and if you roll a 2, 3, or 12 immediately, you lose immediately. Otherwise, your total is called "the point" and you continue to roll again until you roll either the point (again) or a seven. If you roll the point, you win; if you roll a seven, you lose.
 - In a game of craps, compute the probability that you win on your first roll and the probability that you lose on your second roll.
- (d) In a game of craps, compute the probability that the game goes to a second round and you win on the second round.
- (e) In a game of craps, compute the probability that the game goes to a second round and you lose on the second round.
- (f) In a game of craps, compute the probability that you win.
- 3. Consider the game Press Your Luck described above. Assume (despite rather convincing evidence to the contrary) that the show is random, and that you are equally likely to stop on any square on the board.
 - (a) On each spin, estimate the probability that you hit a Whammy. Justify your answer.
 - (Note: This is mostly not a math question. You have to watch the video clip for awhile to answer it.)
 - (b) On each spin, estimate the probability that you do not hit a Whammy.
 - (c) If you spin three times in a row, what is the probability you don't hit a whammy? Five? Ten? Twenty-eight? (If your answer is a power of a fraction, please also use a calculator or a computer to give a decimal approximation.)
- 4. Consider the game Rat Race described above.
 - (a) Suppose that the contestant only prices one item correctly, and so gets to pick one rat. What is the probability that she wins the car? That she wins something? That she wins nothing?
 - (b) What if the customer prices all three items correctly? What is the probability that she wins the car? Something? Nothing? All three items?
 - (c) Consider now the first part of the game, where the contestant is pricing each item. Assume that she has a 50-50 chance of pricing each item correctly. What is the probability she prices no items correctly? Exactly one? Exactly two? All three? Comment on whether you think this assumption is realistic.

(d) Suppose now that she has a 50-50 chance of pricing each item correctly, and plays the game to the end. What is the probability she wins the car?	she