

# Stat 100a, Introduction to Probability.

## Outline for the day:

1. Hansen and Negreanu.
2. Flop 3 of a kind or eventually get 4 of a kind.
3. Bayes's rule.
4. Random variables.
5. cdf, pmf, and density.

HW1 is due Tue Oct15 in the first 5 min of class.

Exam1 is Tue Oct29.

No lecture or OH Thu Oct24!

Read through chapter 5.



# 1. High Stakes Poker, Daniel vs. Gus.

Which is more likely, given no info about your cards:

- \* flopping 3 of a kind,

or

- \* eventually making 4 of a kind?

## 2. P(flop 3-of-a-kind)?

[including case where all 3 are on board, and *not including full houses*]

Key idea: forget order! Consider all combinations of your 2 cards and the flop.

Sets of 5 cards. Any such combo is equally likely!  $\text{choose}(52,5)$  different ones.

$$P(\text{flop 3 of a kind}) = \# \text{ of different 3 of a kinds} / \text{choose}(52,5)$$

How many different 3 of a kind combinations are possible?

$13 * \text{choose}(4,3)$  different choices for the triple.

For each such choice, there are  $\text{choose}(12,2)$  choices left for the numbers on the other 2 cards, and for each of these numbers, there are 4 possibilities for its suit.

$$\text{So, } P(\text{flop 3 of a kind}) = 13 * \text{choose}(4,3) * \text{choose}(12,2) * 4 * 4 / \text{choose}(52,5)$$

$$\sim 2.11\%, \text{ or } 1 \text{ in } 47.3.$$

$$P(\text{flop 3 of a kind or a full house}) = 13 * \text{choose}(4,3) * \text{choose}(48,2) / \text{choose}(52,5)$$

$$\sim 2.26\%, \text{ or } 1 \text{ in } 44.3.$$

P(eventually make 4-of-a-kind)? [including case where all 4 are on board]

Again, just forget card order, and consider all collections of 7 cards.

Out of  $\text{choose}(52,7)$  different combinations, each equally likely, how many of them involve 4-of-a-kind?

13 choices for the 4-of-a-kind.

For each such choice, there are  $\text{choose}(48,3)$  possibilities for the other 3 cards.

So,  $P(4\text{-of-a-kind}) = 13 * \text{choose}(48,3) / \text{choose}(52,7) \sim 0.168\%$ , or 1 in 595.

### 3. Bayes's rule.

Suppose that  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$  are disjoint events and that exactly one of them must occur.

Suppose you want  $P(B_1 | A)$ , but you only know  $P(A | B_1), P(A | B_2), \dots$ , and you also know  $P(B_1), P(B_2), \dots, P(B_n)$ .

Bayes' Rule: If  $B_1, \dots, B_n$  are disjoint events with  $P(B_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } B_n) = 1$ , then

$$P(B_i | A) = P(A | B_i) * P(B_i) \div [\sum P(A | B_j)P(B_j)].$$

Why? Recall:  $P(X | Y) = P(X \& Y) \div P(Y)$ . So  $P(X \& Y) = P(X | Y) * P(Y)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} P(B_1 | A) &= P(A \& B_1) \div P(A) \\ &= P(A \& B_1) \div [P(A \& B_1) + P(A \& B_2) + \dots + P(A \& B_n)] \\ &= P(A | B_1) * P(B_1) \div [P(A | B_1)P(B_1) + P(A | B_2)P(B_2) + \dots + P(A | B_n)P(B_n)]. \end{aligned}$$

## Bayes's rule, continued.

Bayes's rule: If  $B_1, \dots, B_n$  are disjoint events with  $P(B_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } B_n) = 1$ , then

$$P(B_i | A) = P(A | B_i) * P(B_i) \div [\sum P(A | B_j)P(B_j)].$$

See example 3.4.1, p50. If a test is 95% accurate and 1% of the pop. has a condition, then given a random person from the population,

$P(\text{she has the condition} | \text{she tests positive})$

$$= P(\text{cond} | +)$$

$$= P(+ | \text{cond}) P(\text{cond}) \div [P(+ | \text{cond}) P(\text{cond}) + P(+ | \text{no cond}) P(\text{no cond})]$$

$$= 95\% \times 1\% \div [95\% \times 1\% + 5\% \times 99\%]$$

$$\sim 16.1\%.$$

Tests for rare conditions must be extremely accurate.

## Bayes' rule example.

Suppose  $P(\text{your opponent has the nuts}) = 1\%$ , and  $P(\text{opponent has a weak hand}) = 10\%$ .

Your opponent makes a huge bet. Suppose she'd only do that with the nuts or a weak hand, and that  $P(\text{huge bet} \mid \text{nuts}) = 100\%$ , and  $P(\text{huge bet} \mid \text{weak hand}) = 30\%$ .

What is  $P(\text{nuts} \mid \text{huge bet})$ ?

$P(\text{nuts} \mid \text{huge bet}) =$

$$P(\text{huge bet} \mid \text{nuts}) * P(\text{nuts})$$

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$$P(\text{huge bet} \mid \text{nuts}) P(\text{nuts}) + P(\text{huge bet} \mid \text{horrible hand}) P(\text{horrible hand})$$

$$= \frac{100\% * 1\%}{100\% * 1\% + 30\% * 10\%}$$

$$= \mathbf{25\%}.$$

## 4. Random variables.

A *variable* is something that can take different numeric values.

A *random variable* (X) can take different numeric values with different probabilities.

X is *discrete* if all its possible values can be listed. If X can take any value in an interval like say  $[0,1]$ , then X is *continuous*.

Ex. Two cards are dealt to you. Let X be 1 if you get a pair, and X is 0 otherwise.

$$P(X \text{ is } 1) = 3/51 \sim 5.9\%.$$

$$P(X \text{ is } 0) \sim 94.1\%.$$

Ex. A coin is flipped, and  $X=20$  if heads,  $X=10$  if tails.

The *distribution* of X means all the information about all the possible values X can take, along with their probabilities.



## 5. cdf, pmf, and density (pdf).

Any random variable has a *cumulative distribution function* (cdf):

$$F(b) = P(X \leq b).$$

If  $X$  is discrete, then it has a *probability mass function* (pmf):

$$f(b) = P(X = b).$$

Continuous random variables are often characterized by their *probability density functions* (pdf, or *density*):

a function  $f(x)$  such that  $P(X \text{ is in } B) = \int_B f(x) \, dx$ .