

The Problem of Coincidences



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The Gambling Scholar



- Gerolamo Cardano, Italian Renaissance physician and mathematician, on gambling:

“...In times of great anxiety and grief, it is considered to be not only allowable, but even beneficial.”

- Written in his *Liber de ludo aleae*—“Book on Games of Chance”—an early systematic treatment of probability.

A Simple Game of Cards



- Take a French deck of 52 cards:
 - 4 suits (spades, hearts, diamonds, clubs)
 - 13 ranks, $\{A=1, 2, \dots, 10, J=11, Q=12, K=13\}$
- One card at a time:
 - Player picks number x in $\{1, \dots, 13\}$
 - Turn over card
- If the card matches the player's card, loses.
- If the player survives *all* (13) rounds, wins.
- What is the probability of winning?

The Game of Thirteen



- This is called the “Game of Thirteen”
 - Proposed by Pierre Montmort in 1708.
- Lots of famous people involved:
 - Solved by Montmort in 1710—in the non-general case—in a letter to Johann Bernoulli.
 - Nikolaus Bernoulli solved the general case in 1711.
 - Leonard Euler provides an alternate proof in 1751.
 - Eugène Catalan prove results for a similar game in 1837.
 - ...
 - Mathematical Games-2010 has elegant, open discussion!

1. Simplest Model



- All cards the same suit.
- Cards $\{1, \dots, n\}$ in deck.
- Cards drawn without replacement.
- A **coincidence** occurs when the i^{th} card has value i .
- $P(n, k)$ – probability that n drawings yields at least k coincidences.

Examples: $P(n,k)$



- $D(n)$ – number of permutations with at least 1 coincidence
- $Q(n)$ – number of permutations with 0 coincidences
- $P(n,1) = D(n) / n!$
 - “Probability that n drawings yields at least 1 coincidence.”
- $1 - P(n,1) = Q(n) / n!$
 - “Probability that n drawings yields no coincidences.”

Calculating $Q(n)$



- Let A_i be the event of a coincidence on the i^{th} drawing
- ξ_n is total number of coincidences
 - $\xi_0 = 0$
- $P(\xi_n = k) = \binom{n}{k} Q(n-k) / n!$
 - Define $Q(0) = 1$.
 - Find the distribution of ξ_n – just find all the $Q(i)$ s
- We'll create a recurrence relation to do this.

Calculating $Q(n)$



- We know: $\sum_{k=0}^n P(\xi_n = k) = 1$
- Expanding the equation from last slide:
 - $\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} Q(n-k) / n! = 1$
 - $\sum_{k=0}^n Q(n-k) / k!(n-k)! = 1$
 - $\frac{Q(n)}{n!} = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{Q(n-k)}{k!(n-k)!}$
- **Recurrence form**, but not so easy to compute
 - Especially by hand in the 1700s ...

Calculating $Q(n)$



- Recall geometric & Taylor series:
 - $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$ and $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ for $|x| < 1$
- From last slide, have $\frac{Q(n)}{n!} = 1 - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{Q(n-k)}{k!(n-k)!}$
 - $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{Q(n)}{n!} x^n = e^{-x} / 1-x$
 - $e^{-x} / 1-x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\left[1 - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{Q(n-k)}{k!(n-k)!} \right] x^n \right)$
- Remove the geometric series, get **explicit form**:
 - $\frac{Q(n)}{n!} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}$ the first n terms of e^{-1}
 - Still, not so easy to compute . . .

Calculating $P(\xi_n = k)$ from $Q(n)$



- [Jordan 1867]: A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n random events then
 - $P(\xi_n = k) = \sum_{r=k}^n \binom{r}{k} (-1)^{r-k} B_r$ for $0 \leq k \leq n$
 - $P(\xi_n \geq k) = \sum_{r=k}^n \binom{r-1}{k-1} (-1)^{r-k} B_r$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$
- $B_r = \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < \dots < i_r \leq n} P(A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \dots, A_{i_r})$
 - So, e.g., B_2 is the sum of the probabilities of 2 events firing
 - Generally, this is the binomial moment of ξ_n :
 - ✦ $B_r = E \left\{ \binom{\xi_n}{r} \right\}$
- We can use this to get a better **explicit form**.

Calculating $P(\xi_n = k)$ from $Q(n)$



- For our game:

- $P(A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \dots, A_{i_r}) = \frac{(n-r)!}{n!}$

- For example, when $r=1$, there's a $\frac{1}{n}$ chance that I choose value i when the banker shows value i

- Summing, yields $B_r = \frac{1}{r!}$

- Plug in, simplify from last slide:

- $$P(\xi_n = k) = \frac{1}{(k-1)!} \sum_{r=k}^n \frac{(-1)^{r-k}}{r(r-k)!} \quad (1)$$

Calculating $P(\xi_n = k)$ from $Q(n)$



- But remember!

- $P(n, k) = P(\xi_n \geq k) = \binom{n}{k} \frac{Q(n-k)}{n!}$ (2)

- $1 - P(n, 1) = \frac{Q(n)}{n!}$

- We derived:

- $\frac{Q(n)}{n!} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}$ (3)

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{Q(n)}{n!} = e^{-1}$ by expanding to full Taylor series

- Combine (1), (2), and (3) to get:

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\xi_n = k) = \frac{e^{-1}}{k!}$

Summary of Simple Model Results



- We can now quickly (kind of) compute the probability of winning in the **general case**:
 - $1 - P(n,1) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k!}$
- We also came up with a neat result:
 - The probability of exactly k coincidences converges to $\frac{e^{-1}}{k!}$
- In short, **don't play**: you'll win $\sim 36.79\%$ of the time.

2. Slightly Less Simple Model



- The last model did not take **suits** into account
- Let the deck contain s sets of cards
 - Each set has cards with values $\{1, \dots, n\}$.
 - **Only** n cards drawn without replacement.
- Total number of possible outcomes:
 - $ns(ns - 1)(ns - 2) \cdots (ns - n + 1)$
- $P(n, s, k)$ – probability that at least k coincidences occur
- Montmort's game: solve $P(13, 4, 1)$
- Simplified model from before: solve $P(13, 1, 1) = P(13, 1)$

Calculating $P(\xi_n(s) = k)$



- Let A_i be the event of a coincidence on the i^{th} drawing
- $\xi_n(s)$ is total number of coincidences for s -suit game
 - $\xi_0(s) = 0$

- Note for this model:

- $$P(A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \dots, A_{i_r}) = \frac{s^r}{ns(ns-1)(ns-2)\dots(ns-r+1)}$$

- Can use similar techniques (using [Jordan 1867]) to determine:

- $$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\xi_n(s) = k) = \frac{e^{-1}}{k!} \quad \text{for any } s = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Don't Play this Game, Either



- Intuitively, including suits doesn't really matter.
- Again, **don't play**—even if you have an arbitrarily large deck of cards:
 - You'll still win at most $\sim 36.79\%$ of the time!

How Did They Do It?



- We used techniques from 1867+ to solve these games!
 - Bernoulli, Montmort, Euler, and Catalan did not have these techniques.
- Read Lajos Tákacs' *The Problem of Coincidences* for the story of how this problem was solved . . .
 - . . . and how studying it advanced probability theory!
 - Both N. Bernoulli and De Moivre showed specialized versions of the general results of [Jordan 1867] nearly 150 years earlier.

Skip to the 21st Century . . .



- Game Theory exists now, for better or for worse
- The earlier results tell us, given **optimal play**, the limit of the probability of winning:
 - But **how** do we play optimally in more general games?
- First known treatment in [Litwack *et al.* 2008].
 - Analyzes the game “Dundee”

3. A More General Model



- Cards in the deck assume values in $\{1, 2, \dots, v\}$.
- Let s_i be the number of cards with value i .
 - E.g., if $s = (4, 4, \dots, 4)$, with thirteen 4s, we have a standard deck.
- Let m be the number of rounds.
 - Must have: $m \leq s_1 + \dots + s_v$
- Same win/loss model:
 - If any coincidence occurs across m rounds, player loses.
 - If no coincidences occur, player wins.

Two Types of Strategies



- **Adaptive strategy:**
 - The player's bid at round i **can** depend on values that appeared in previous rounds.
- **Advance strategy:**
 - The player's bid at round i **cannot** depend on values that appeared in previous rounds; it is chosen in advance.
 - This is the strategy used in the Montmort's game.

Greedy Adaptive Strategy



- **Adaptive**—the player knows what cards have been dealt, and can **adjust his strategy** in real-time:
 - Thus, knows what cards are left, too.
- We call an adaptive strategy **greedy** if, for each bid, the player names a value that appears the least number of times in the remaining deck.
- We can actually call this *the* greedy strategy.

Greedy Strategy is Unique



- **Nondeterminism** in selection: if values i and j remain in the same amount, greedy could choose either.
 - This does not matter.
- Assume k cards have been dealt, out of $\Sigma(s)$ total:
 - The remaining $\Sigma(s) - k$ are still uniformly distributed.
 - Choosing either leads to the same* game tree . . .
 - . . . at least the same branching probabilities + symmetry.
- In short, any “two” greedy strategies have the same chance of winning any m -round game.

Greedy Strategy is Optimal (?)



- The greedy strategy has the highest chance of surviving the **next step** in a game:
 - It's the greedy strategy.
- Still, there could be some strategy that starts out performing poorly, but finds (significantly) better positions later.

Greedy Strategy Can Tie for Optimality



- In Dundee played with only two values ($v = 2$), the greedy strategy does not strictly dominate.
- **Informal Proposition:**

“The greedy strategy is at least as good as any other strategy when $v = 2$.”

 - To be proved on the board.

Greedy Strategy is Optimal



- In Dundee played with at least three values ($v \geq 3$), the greedy strategy strictly dominates.
- Theorem:

“Let $v \geq 3$ and $s = (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_v)$ be an arbitrary vector whose entries are non-negative integers. Let $m \leq \sum(s)$. Then the greedy strategy is the unique optimal strategy for the m -round s -game.”
- To be proved on the board.

Don't Play Dundee



- The authors computed the probability of winning Dundee with a normal French deck of playing cards:
 - Approximately 27.019%.
 - Not too bad!

“I have tried to do this and have not yet managed to deal right through the pack; it is quite amazing how impossible it is.”

-- R. Harbin, inventor of Dundee

- There's always Solitaire . . .

References



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- Jordan. *De quelques formules de probabilité*. 1867.
- Litwack, Pikhurko, and Pongnumkul. *How to Play Dundee*. 2008.
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- Takács. *The Problem of Coincidences*. 1980.

Solitaire Win Probabilities



- Standard (52, infinite deals, draw 3):
 - Roughly 10% of games **cannot** be won.
 - 0.25% of games cannot even play **one move**!
- 82+% of games have a solution:
 - But you'd have to find it . . .
 - . . . which is still a common problem in AI, solved:
 - ✦ Heuristically
 - ✦ Poorly
 - ✦ Computationally intensively
- <http://web.engr.oregonstate.edu/~afern/papers/solitaire.pdf>