Introducing MATHEMATICA
a system for doing mathematics by computer.

MATHEMATICA may be used as a sophisticated calculator, as here, or as a
programming language. In the latter mode it contains the main elements from several
other programming languages but is specifically designed to perform mathematical tasks
easily. Just a few of its capabilities are illustrated here. Some of the examples involve
topics (complex numbers, partial fractions) that you may not have met before. For now
just type in what is given: you will probably learn about them later.

To execute a MATHEMATICA command you must first type it on a new line and then
press the Enter key (extreme bottom right of the keyboard). Note that this is not the
same as the Return key used to enter a new line: if you use that you will just get a new
line. If you are using a laptop, then you need the Shift+Return keys to execute a
command; this also works on a full keyboard. On the first occasion there will be a pause
while the “Kernel” is loaded but subsequent responses should be very much faster.

Let us begin by adding 2 and 2. Type the following line followed by Enter.

2+2

The lines you have to enter are in boldface.

If you have used a word processor then skip the next paragraph.

If you notice a typing error before pressing Enter or having pressed Enter you get an
error message you can correct it as follows. Either position the cursor after the character
you wish to delete and press the Backspace key (←) (next to the + key) or position the
cursor in front of the character and press the Delete key. Typing a character will insert it
at the position of the cursor. To position the cursor you can either use the arrow keys (to
the left of the numeric pad) or use the mouse (recommended), click the left mouse ear
once to locate the cursor. The corrected line can be entered in the usual way with the
Enter key.

Numerics

The arithmetic operators are the usual + and – together with * for multiplication, / for
division and ^ for power.

Rational Numbers

Try evaluating

\[ \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6} \quad \text{and} \quad 3 \times 2^4 / 7 \]

Notice that division is done before addition and the power is calculated before division.
The answer in each case is output as a rational number.
Round brackets are used to change the order in which operations are performed. Enter

\[ \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{6}} \]

Decimals

Decimal approximations may be obtained by using the N function: try

\[ \text{N}[3 \times 2^4/7] \]

This gives only 6 significant figures (note the square brackets which are always used to enclose the parameters of a function). This may be increased to 50 significant figures by giving a second parameter to the function. The parameters are separated by a comma ,

\[ \text{N}[3 \times 2^4/7, 50] \]

If you have already included a decimal point, say if you enter

\[ 3 \times 2. \times 4/7 \]

then the output will be as a decimal. The accuracy of MATHEMATICA is only limited by the speed and available memory of the computer.

Integers

It is also possible to calculate very large integers, try

\[ 2^{100} \quad \text{and} \quad 50! \]

Irrationals

The word \texttt{Pi} is the MATHEMATICA symbol for \( \pi \). The capital P is important; \textit{all MATHEMATICA names begin with a capital letter}. If you enter \texttt{Pi} it will just be echoed on the next line. To find an approximate numerical value of \( \pi \) enter

\[ \text{N}[\texttt{Pi}] \]

which should give the result \( 3.14159 \), the default result of 6 significant figures. Now find \( \pi \) to 10 decimal places.

The square root of 2 can be entered either as \( 2^{1/2} \) or \texttt{Sqrt[2]} but in both cases no decimal approximation will be made. Note the round brackets which are necessary to enclose the exponent \( \frac{1}{2} \) and what happens if the brackets are omitted. To obtain 6 decimal places enter

\[ \text{N}[\texttt{Sqrt[2]}, 7] \]

An alternative way to obtain a decimal approximation is to follow the 2 with a decimal point, thus \texttt{Sqrt[2.]} which gives simply the default result of 6 significant figures.
Symbols such as $\sqrt{2}$ and $\pi$ may also be typed using the BasicMathInput Palette. (If this Palette is hidden, left click Palettes on the Toolbar and select BasicMathInput.) Left Click to select the required symbol. If necessary, either Click the left mouse ear or use the Tab key to make the required entries within a symbol. Use the Palette to evaluate

$$N[3/19]$$ and $$3\sqrt{8}$$

**Logarithms**

The function $\text{Log}[x]$ calculates the natural logarithm of $x$, usually denoted by $\ln x$. The base of the natural logarithm is denoted in MATHEMATICA by $E$ and is treated as an exact irrational number in the same way as $\pi$. Try entering

$$\text{Log}[E]$$ and $$E^{\text{Log}[1/2]}$$

Also *obtain the square root of $E$ to three decimal places*. To calculate logarithms with a different base, the base must be entered as the first parameter of the Log function. Enter the following and then *obtain a decimal approximation to the second expression* by including a decimal point after the 10.

$$\text{Log}[2,8]$$ and $$\text{Log}[3,10]$$

The base of a number may be changed using BaseForm. For example, 6 in base 2, i.e. the binary representation of 6, is given by

$$\text{BaseForm}[6,2]$$

**Complex Numbers**

The square root of $-1$ is represented by $I$, or the $i$ symbol on the Palette. Confirm this by *entering $I^2$ and $I/I$*. Try the following

(a) $(2 + I)^3$  (b) $(1 + I)(1 - I)$  (c) $1/(1 + I)$

Now use MATHEMATICA to *find the square root of $-1$ and the logarithm of $-1$*.

When you are multiplying two variables, you need either a space or a $*$: $x y$ or $x*y$ will do, but $xy$ will be interpreted as a new variable name. $5x$ and $7y^3$ are fine, though.

**Functions and Graphics**

MATHEMATICA contains all of the functions contained on a standard calculator and many more. The nature of a function may be visualised by plotting its graph. This is done with the MATHEMATICA function Plot. To see the parabola $y=x^2$ for $x$ between $-2$ and $2$ type

$$\text{Plot}[x^2, \{x,-2,2\}]$$
The function is specified first, followed by the domain. To see four cycles of the periodic function $\sin x$ enter

```
Plot[Sin[x], {x,-4Pi,4Pi}]
```

The sine function is written as Sin[x] because Sin is a built-in MATHEMATICA function name.

A periodic function which you may not have met is Mod[x,p] which is a sawtooth function having period p. Mod[x,p] is the remainder when x is divided by p. Try

```
Plot[Mod[x,2],{x,-4,4}]
```

Inverse functions are denoted by Arc; thus to plot the inverse sine function enter

```
Plot[ArcSin[x],{x,-2,2}]
```

Notice that the x-interval has been truncated to {-1,1}. Why is this? Try ArcTan. You can copy and edit the previous line. Ask how to do this if you haven’t done word processing.

The absolute value $|x|$ of a number $x$ is entered as Abs[x]. Use this to plot the function $\frac{|x|}{x}$ between $x = -3$ and $x = 3$.

It is possible to define your own functions. For example, we can define a function called “parabola” by

```
parabola[x_]:=(x-1)^2
```

which has a graph which is a parabola with vertex at {1,0}. To see this graph on the interval [0,2], type

```
Plot[parabola[x], {x,0,2}]
```

Note that it is a good idea always to use small letters in your definitions, so that they don’t get confused with built-in MATHEMATICA function names. Functions may be combined in the usual way (composition). A function of period 2 which is parabolic in each cycle may be graphed by

```
Plot[parabola[Mod[x,2]],{x,-4,4}]
```

The graph of a function of two variables is a surface; enter

```
Plot3D[x^2+y^2,{x,-2,2}, {y,-4,4}]
```

This is a paraboloid of revolution and changing the sign of the $y^2$ term gives a saddle.

```
Plot3D[x^2-y^2,{x,-2,2}, {y,-4,4}]
```
A function which is periodic in both variables is obtained by

\[
\text{Plot3D}[\text{parabola}[\text{Mod}[x,2]]+\text{parabola}[\text{Mod}[y,2]],
\{x,-2,2\},\{y,-4,4\}]
\]

**Algebra**

Factorisation and roots of a polynomial

The function **Factor** will factorise a polynomial; enter

**Factor**[2–3x+x^2]

The function **Expand** has the opposite effect

**Expand**[(x-1) (x-2) (x-3)]

Now try

**Factor**[2. -4x +x^2]

since 2. is interpreted as a real number.

The roots of the quadratic are found exactly using

**Solve**[2 -4x +x^2==0,x]

Note that equations need double equal signs.

You can solve equations numerically using **NSolve**

**NSolve**[2 -4x +x^2==0,x]

Notice how the roots are related to the result of **Factor**. **Plot a graph** of \( 2 - 4x + x^2 \) for \( 0 \leq x \leq 4 \) and notice that it cuts the x-axis where expected.

**NSolve** is not restricted to finding the roots of a quadratic: use it to **find the roots** of \( 7 - 12x + 7y^2 - x^3 \). Notice that two of the roots are complex but have a real part near \( x = 1 \). **Plot the graph of this cubic** for \( x \) in the interval \( \{0,6\} \) to see what is happening. Now **find the roots** when the constant term 7 is replaced by 5 and **plot the graph** (copy and edit the previous lines to save typing)
MATHEMATICA always attempts to find exact solutions. Compare this with the results of

\[
\text{Solve}[7-12x+7x^2-x^3==0,x]
\]

Partial fractions

Partial fractions are formed using the function `Apart`; for example enter

\[
\text{Apart}[(2+x^2)/((1+x^2)(1-x)(1-2x))]
\]

So that we can refer to the result of this calculation again we save it with the name “fraction”

\[
\text{fraction}=\text{Apart}[(2+x^2)/((1+x^2)(1-x)(1-2x))]
\]

and then we can put everything back together over a common denominator by

\[
\text{Together}[\text{fraction}]
\]

Calculus

Derivatives and Integrals

To differentiate \(\tan x\) enter

\[
\text{D}[\text{Tan}[x],x]
\]

Now differentiate \(\log(\sin x)\), remembering when you need capital letters and square brackets.

A more complicated example is

\[
\text{D}[	ext{Log}[x+\text{ArcSin}[x]^2],x]
\]

Indefinite integrals can often be done in terms of simple functions: try

\[
\text{integral} = \text{Integrate}[x*\text{Sin}[x]^2,x]
\]

This saves the result of the integration in the variable “integral” and the result may be checked by differentiation

\[
\text{D}[\text{integral},x]
\]

The result of the differentiation should be the integrand but this is not always explicitly so without further manipulation. If necessary, enter

\[
\text{Simplify}[%]
\]
The function **Simplify** reorganises an expression into a “simpler” form. In this case the expression is the previous line of output which is recaptured by the symbol %.

Now enter

\[
\text{int} = \text{Integrate}[(1+2x+3x^2)/(1+x)^3,x]
\]

and notice where the three terms come from by inspection of the partial fraction above. Check the result using

\[
\text{der} = D[\text{int},x]
\]

and either **simplify** the output or collect the terms **together**.

Most indefinite integrals which can be expressed in terms of standard functions can be done by MATHEMATICA but sometimes the functions may be new to you.

\[
\text{Integrate}[1/Sqrt[1+x^2],x]
\]

[ArcSinh is the inverse hyperbolic sine function, which will become familiar, if it isn’t already.]

Sometimes the integral can be difficult to find by hand: look at

\[
\text{Integrate}[1/(x^4+1),x]
\]

and **check that the derivative** of the integral is the original function (you will need to use **Simplify**).

For definite integrals (integrals with limits), consider this example: \( \int_{-1}^{4} (x+1)^3 \, dx \) is entered as

\[
\text{Integrate}[(x+1)^3,\{x,-1,4\}]
\]

Consider this:

\[
f = a*x^2 + b
\]

\[
\text{Integrate}[f,x]
\]

\[
\text{Integrate}[f,a]
\]

What do you think

\[
\text{Integrate}[f,b]
\]

will be?

A couple more integrals to try: \( \int \frac{x}{\sqrt{16 - x^4}} \, dx \) and \( \int_{1}^{3} \ln \left( \frac{x}{2} \right) \, dx \). In each case think about how you might try them without the use of MATHEMATICA.

A fact to remember is that MATHEMATICA does not include the constant of integration in an indefinite integral: you have to add it yourself. Sometimes MATHEMATICA does
not give you the answer you expect, because of this missing constant. *You should always check that apparently different answers are nothing more than that — apparently different – by doing the necessary calculations.*

**Lists**

A list is a collection of elements separated by commas and enclosed in curly brackets. Let

\[ L_1 = \{1,2,3\} \]

and

\[ L_2 = \{2,3,4\} \]

A list may be multiplied by a constant; try

\[ 2*L_1 \]

If addition is defined for the elements and the lists are of the same length then they can be added together like vectors. Enter

\[ L_2 + 2*L_1 \]

\[ L_1*L_2 \]

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\[ L_2 + 2*L_1 \]

\[ L_1*L_2 \]

The scalar product of two vectors is given by \[ L_1.L_2 \]. To compare the results, enter

\[ \{x_1,y_1,z_1\} . \{x_2,y_2,z_2\} \]

and

\[ \{x_1,y_1,z_1\} * \{x_2,y_2,z_2\} \]

Now enter

\[ L_1*L_2 \] and \[ L_1.L_2 \]

and check the results.

A very useful MATHEMATICA function for making a list of values of a function is Table. Enter the following two examples

\[ L_3 = Table[x^2, \{x, 0, 10\}] \]
\[ L_4 = Table[N[Sin[x]], \{x, 0, Pi, Pi/10\}] \]

The last parameter defines the intervals at which sin x is to be evaluated; without it, the function is evaluated at consecutive integers, as in \[ L_3 \]. It is interesting to run the second command without the \[ N \] function.
Solving Equations

Solving non-polynomial equations

By definition, arcsinh 25 is the value of x such that sinh x = 25. The value of x may be found using the MATHEMATICA function \texttt{FindRoot}; enter

\texttt{FindRoot[Sinh[x]==25, \{x,4\}]}

Note the \texttt{==} sign again. \textit{Check the result by entering}

\texttt{N[ArcSinh[25]]}

\texttt{FindRoot} uses an iterative method which determines a sequence of closer and closer approximations to a solution of the given equation. The parameter 4 sets the first point \(x=4\) for the iteration.

Solving simultaneous equations

Simultaneous equations can be solved by entering a list of equations followed by a list of variables to be solved for as parameters to the \texttt{Solve} function (or \texttt{NSolve}). The following solves a pair of linear equations.

\texttt{Solve[\{x+y==13,2x+7y==5\},\{x,y\}]}

Introducing a third variable \(z\) and no further equations means that \(x\) and \(y\) will now be functions of \(z\):

\texttt{Solve[\{x+y+3z==13,2x+7y-z==5\},\{x,y\}]}

The equations to solve are not necessarily linear

\texttt{Solve[\{x^2+y^2==2,x+y==1\},\{x,y\}]}

Solving differential equations

This is similar in form to solving an algebraic equation, except that we are solving for a function such as \(y\) of the variable \(x\), i.e. \(y[x]\), rather than the usual variable \(x\). For example

\texttt{DSolve[y''[x] + 5y'[x] + 4y[x] == Exp[x], y[x], x]}

[Use a double dash for the second derivative, rather than quotation marks.] The answer will involve arbitrary constants, if no boundary conditions are given. To include boundary conditions, they appear as part of the list of equations to be solved, as in

\texttt{DSolve[\{y''[x]+5y'[x]+4y[x]==Exp[x],y[0]==1,y'[0]==0\},y[x],x]}

9
More Graphics

Another useful plotting function is `ParametricPlot`, which as its name suggests is for plotting parametric curves. Enter

```
ParametricPlot[{t,t^2},{t,-2,2}]
```

which plots the parabola defined by the parametric equations \( x=t, y=t^2 \). Now try

```
ParametricPlot[{Cos[t],Sin[2t]},{t,0,2Pi}]
```

Polar Plots

Sometimes it is useful to define a curve using polar coordinates (r, \( \theta \)) in terms of which \( x = r \cos \theta \) and \( y = r \sin \theta \). Giving r as a function of \( \theta \) then defines x and y as functions of \( \theta \) and hence gives a parametrically defined curve with \( \theta \) as parameter. Thus, for example, \( r = \sin \theta \) gives \( x = \sin \theta \cos \theta \) and \( y = \sin^2 \theta \) which for \( \theta \) in the interval \([0, \pi]\) should give a circle. Replacing \( \theta \) by \( t \) in `ParametricPlot` results in the code

```
ParametricPlot[Sin[t]{Cos[t],Sin[t]},{t,0,Pi}]
```

Notice that \( \sin[t] \) has been factored out of the list of functions.

Try plotting \( r = 1/(1 + 0.5 \cos \theta) \).

Selecting the plotting range

The option `PlotRange` allows you to specify the range of x and y values to be displayed in the graph. The use of this is illustrated by the following example – in the second line below the range of y-values is specified as shown. Compare the two graphs.

```
Plot[Sin[x]/x,{x,0,10Pi}]
Plot[Sin[x]/x,{x,0,10Pi},PlotRange->{-1,1}]
```

Plotting Points

The function `ListPlot` enables a set of points to be plotted and optionally connected by straight lines. Define the list of squares by \( \text{L3} \), from above, and then enter

```
ListPlot[L3, Joined->True, AxesOrigin->{0,0}]
```

the second option insists that the origin of the axes is \( \{0,0\} \). Notice that the first point is plotted at \( x=1 \). The default for the x-co-ordinates when not specified is \( 1,2,3,4,\ldots \). The x-co-ordinates may be specified as in the following example which should draw a hexagon by joining together points on the unit circle.

```
L5 = Table[{Cos[t],Sin[t]},{t,0,2Pi,Pi/3}];
ListPlot[L5, Joined->True]
```

Enter
to see the structure of \( L5 \): it is a list of pairs of \( x \)-\( y \) values.

**Superimposing more than one graph**

Suppose, for example, we want to superimpose a function \( f \) and its derivative. Let the function be defined by

\[
f[x_] := \sin[x]
\]

Then the superposition is achieved by

\[
\text{Plot}\{\{f[x], f'[x]\}, \{x, 0, 2\pi\}\}
\]

The colours in which the curves are drawn can be varied using the `PlotStyle` option.

\[
\text{Plot}\{\{f[x], f'[x]\}, \{x, 0, 2\pi\}, \text{PlotStyle} \rightarrow \{\text{Hue}[0.0], \text{Hue}[0.9]\}\}
\]

Sometimes we need to superimpose graphs which are defined on different intervals. When two intervals are involved, the easiest command to use is the `If` command. Try

\[
f[x_] := \text{If}[x \leq 1, x, x - 2]
\]

\[
\text{Plot}\{f[x], \{x, -1, 3\}\}
\]

The symbol \( \leq \) can be entered by typing `<=`. When more than two intervals are involved, it is easier to use the `Which` command, illustrated in

\[
g[x_] := \text{Which}[x \leq -1, 1, -1 \leq x \leq 1, -x, x > 1, -1]
\]

\[
\text{Plot}\{g[x], \{x, -3, 3\}\}
\]

Alternative ways of handling these so-called piecewise defined functions is to either use the `Plot[Piecewise]` command or to specify separate functions and then combine them using the `Show` command; in the second approach, MATHEMTICA uses the domain of the first-named function so care can be needed in the definition of the functions. Try

\[
\text{Plot[Piecewise[\{\{x, x \leq 1\}, \{x - 2, x > 1\}\}]}], \{x, -1, 3\}\}
\]

which should be the plot of \( f(x) \).

**More Calculus**

**Higher Order Derivatives**

The second derivative of \( \tan x \) is found by using

\[
\text{D}[\tan[x], \{x, 2\}]
\]
Find the third derivative of \( \sin^3 x \).

**Partial Derivatives**

In the case of a function of two variables \( x \) and \( y \) say, the partial derivative with respect to \( x \) is the derivative treating \( y \) as a constant (remember the spaces when multiplying here!).

\[
D[\sin[x \ y]/(x \ y^2), \ x]
\]

Find the partial derivative with respect to \( y \).

The second \( x \)-derivative is given by

\[
D[\sin[x \ y]/(x \ y^2), \ {x,2}]
\]

Finally the cross-derivative is obtained by introducing a third argument

\[
D[\sin[x \ y]/(x \ y^2), \ {x,1},{y,1}]
\]

**If things don’t work**

The most likely problems are

- using the wrong sort of bracket: round brackets for grouping, square brackets in functions, and curly brackets for lists or ranges;
- forgetting to use * or a space when multiplying two variables;
- forgetting the square brackets in a function;
- forgetting that built-in MATHEMATICA functions need a capital letter.

**Further parametric plots**

**Chebyshev Polynomials**

This is a family of polynomials defined in terms of the parameter \( n \) which takes the values 0, 1, 2, … Enter the definition

\[
g[n_]:=ParametricPlot[{\cos[t],\cos[n*t]},{t,0,Pi}]
\]

and then try \( g[2] \)

Can you identify the curve? If not, then eliminate \( t \) between \( x = \cos t \) and \( y = \cos 2t \). Now try \( g[3] \)

What type of curve is this? More generally \( g[n] \) gives the graph of a polynomial of degree \( n \). To understand this we need some more trigonometry. Recall that

\[
\cos(A + B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B.
\]

Applying this with \( A = (m - 1)t \) and \( B = t \) and then \( -t \) gives \( \cos mt = \cos(m-1)t \cos t - \sin(m-1)t \sin t \) and
\[
\cos(m-2)t = \cos(m-1)t \cos t + \sin(m-1)t \sin t, \text{ and elimination of } \sin(m-1)t \sin t \text{ gives }
\]
\[
\cos mt = 2 \cos(m-1)t \cos t - \cos(m-2)t. \text{ So with } m = 2, \cos 2t = 2 \cos^2 t - 1.
\]

To programme this in MATHEMATICA, we let \( x = \cos t \) and define the function \( c[n] \) recursively by

\[
c[0] = 1; \quad c[1] = x; \quad c[n_] := \text{Expand}[2x*c[n-1] - c[n-2]]
\]

and then type \( c[2] \)

to get the above result, and \( c[3] \) will find the corresponding cubic. \texttt{Expand} is necessary to obtain the standard form of the result.

\textit{Lissajou figures}

The family of Lissajou figures has two parameters, \( m \) and \( n \). Enter the definition

\[
\text{Clear}[g]; \quad g[m_,n_] := \text{ParametricPlot}\{\{\cos m*t, \sin n*t\}\},\{t,0,2\pi\}\}
\]

The circle is a special case which can now be displayed with \( g[1,1] \)

Now try \( g[5,4] \) and \( g[14.5,15] \) and a few other values of your choice, time permitting.

\textit{The Sierpinski gasket}

Try entering this:

\[
\text{left} = \{0,0\}; \quad \text{right} = \{1,0\}; \quad \text{top} = \{0.5,0.5\sqrt{3}\};
\]

(check that this gives you the vertices of an equilateral triangle; ignore warnings about similar spellings, but this time it is essential that you use lower case letters where shown)

\[
f[x_] := 0.5*(x+\text{Switch}[\text{Random}[\text{Integer},\{1,3\}],1,\text{left},2,\text{right},3,\text{top}])
\]

(this gives you a point in the triangle halfway between the last point and a vertex chosen at random)

\[
data = \text{NestList}[f,\{0,0\},50000];
\]

(the semicolon at the end is important here if you want to finish today)

\[
a = \text{ListPlot}[data,\text{PlotStyle} -> \text{PointSize}[0.001]]
\]

(and not having the semicolon is important here).
What’s going on here? **left, right** and **top** are the vertices of an equilateral triangle. The next instruction takes one point \(x\) and finds another point \(f[x]\) which is halfway between \(x\) and one of the vertices chosen at random. Then \(f[x]\) replaces \(x\). The last instruction plots 50000 successive values of \(x\). This gives the gasket, a fractal of dimension \(\frac{\ln 3}{\ln 2} = 1.58…\). To get a feel for why, draw an equilateral triangle and join the midpoints of the sides to each other to make four smaller triangles. Now consider any point in the original triangle. The midpoint of that point and a vertex must lie in the smaller triangle nearest the vertex, and will never lie in the central smaller triangle. So that central triangle cannot contain any points after the first point. At the next stage there can be no points in the central triangle of the three smaller ones and so on.

**The National Lottery**

We will now use random numbers to simulate the National Lottery. First make a list of ball numbers by entering

```math
balls = Range[1, 49]
```

Now choose your numbers by assigning a list of six ball numbers to the variable ticket as in the following example, but **please choose your own numbers**.

```math
ticket = \{1, 4, 21, 30, 32, 33\}
```

To play the game enter the following code which selects the winning ball numbers. Be careful to include the colon in `:=` and only enter the code after typing all of the lines. Use the return key to move to the next line. No output is expected.

```math
play := (balls = Range[1, 49];
Do[b = Random[Integer, \{1, Length[balls]\}];
 B[i] = balls[[b]];
 balls = Delete[balls, b], \{i, 1, 6\};
 \{B[1], B[2], B[3], B[4], B[5], B[6]\})
```

Each occurrence of the variable `play` will be replaced by a random list of six different ball numbers. Different numbers are assured since the code deletes the chosen ball before selecting the next one. So try entering `p = play`

The MATHEMATICA instruction `Intersection` forms the intersection of two sets so in order to determine which of your chosen numbers were winners enter

```math
Intersection[p, ticket]
```

Combining these lines gives a function which plays again and returns only the winning numbers which appear on your ticket

```math
winners := Intersection[play, ticket]
```

Try entering the word `winners` several times. To get the results of playing fifty times, enter
t = Table[winners, {50}]

To select the games for which you had two winners enter

\[ \text{Select}[t, \text{Length}[\text{Slot}[1]] == 2 &] \]

The number of games with two winners is

\[ \text{win2} = \text{Length}[\text{Select}[t, \text{Length}[\text{Slot}[1]] == 2 &]] \]

Theory

The Lottery selects 6 balls from 49 and the total number of such selections is the

\[ \binom{49}{6} = 13983816 \]

To check it,

\[ \text{total} = \text{Binomial}[49, 6] \]

So the probability of winning the jackpot is about 1 in 14 million. The number of ways in which exactly \( n \) of the numbers on your ticket will be selected is the number of ways of selecting \( n \) of the 6 numbers on your ticket and \( 6 - n \) of the remaining 43 numbers. The probability that a given ticket will have \( n \) winning numbers is therefore determined by the function

\[ \text{pr}[i_] := N[\text{Binomial}[6, n] \times \text{Binomial}[43, 6 - n] / \text{total}, 3] \]

and a list of these probabilities is obtained by entering

\[ \text{Table}[\text{pr}[n], \{n, 0, 6\}] \]

which should give \{0.436, 0.413, 0.132, 0.0177, 0.000969, 0.0000184, 7.15 \times 10^{-8}\}, which is to be compared with the simulated result above. Notice that 85% of the time you expect to get no more than one winner. A person who buys one ticket a week expects to get three winners about once a year.