2.18 Which of the following pairs of events are mutually exclusive?

(a) A golfer scoring the lowest 18-hole round in a 72-hole tournament and losing the tournament.

(b) A poker player getting a flush (all cards in the same suit) and 3 of a kind on the same 5-card hand.

(c) A mother giving birth to a baby girl and a set of twin daughters on the same day.

(d) A chess player losing the last game and winning the match.

2.19 Suppose that a family is leaving on a summer vacation in their camper and that M is the event that they will experience mechanical problems, T is the event that they will receive a ticket for committing a traffic violation, and V is the event that they will arrive at a campsite with no vacancies. Referring to the Venn diagram of Figure 2.5, state in words the events represented by the following regions:

(a) region 5;

(b) region 3;

(c) regions 1 and 2 together;

(d) regions 4 and 7 together;

(e) regions 3, 6, 7, and 8 together.

2.20 Referring to Exercise 2.19 and the Venn diagram of Figure 2.5, list the numbers of the regions that represent the following events:

(a) The family will experience no mechanical problems and will not receive a ticket for a traffic violation but will arrive at a campsite with no vacancies.

(b) The family will experience both mechanical problems and trouble in locating a campsite with a vacancy but will not receive a ticket for a traffic violation.

(c) The family will either have mechanical trouble or arrive at a campsite with no vacancies but will not receive a ticket for a traffic violation.

(d) The family will not arrive at a campsite with no vacancies.

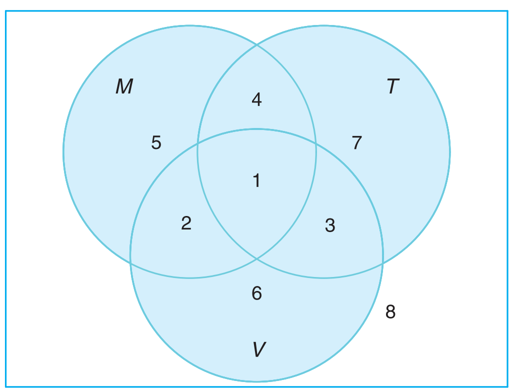

Figure 2.5: Venn diagram for Exercises 2.19 and 2.20.

2.3 Counting Sample Points

One of the problems that the statistician must consider and attempt to evaluate is the element of chance associated with the occurrence of certain events when an experiment is performed. These problems belong in the field of probability, a subject to be introduced in Section 2.4. In many cases, we shall be able to solve a probability problem by counting the number of points in the sample space without actually listing each element. The fundamental principle of counting, often referred to as the **multiplication rule**, is stated in Rule 2.1.

Rule 2.1: If an operation can be performed in n_1 ways, and if for each of these ways a second operation can be performed in n_2 ways, then the two operations can be performed together in $n_1 n_2$ ways.

Example 2.13: How many sample points are there in the sample space when a pair of dice is thrown once?

***Solution*:** The first die can land face-up in any one of $n_1 = 6$ ways. For each of these 6 ways, the second die can also land face-up in $n_2 = 6$ ways. Therefore, the pair of dice can land in $n_1 n_2 = (6)(6) = 36$ possible ways.

Example 2.14: A developer of a new subdivision offers prospective home buyers a choice of Tudor, rustic, colonial, and traditional exterior styling in ranch, two-story, and split-level floor plans. In how many different ways can a buyer order one of these homes?

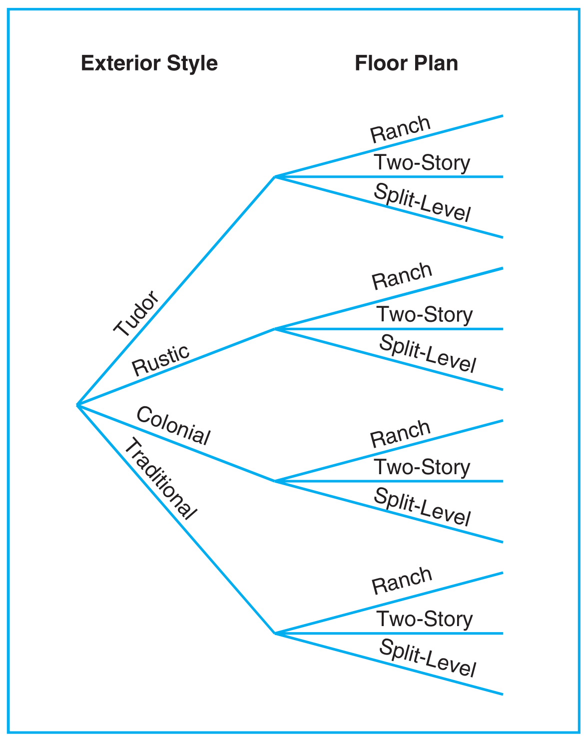

Figure 2.6: Tree diagram for Example 2.14.

***Solution*:** Since $n_1 = 4$ and $n_2 = 3$, a buyer must choose from

$$n_1 n_2 = (4)(3) = 12 \text{ possible homes.}$$

The answers to the two preceding examples can be verified by constructing tree diagrams and counting the various paths along the branches. For instance, in Example 2.14 there will be $n_1 = 4$ branches corresponding to the different exterior styles, and then there will be $n_2 = 3$ branches extending from each of these 4 branches to represent the different floor plans. This tree diagram yields the $n_1 n_2 = 12$ choices of homes given by the paths along the branches, as illustrated in Figure 2.6.

Example 2.15: If a 22-member club needs to elect a chair and a treasurer, how many different ways can these two to be elected?

***Solution*:** For the chair position, there are 22 total possibilities. For each of those 22 possibilities, there are 21 possibilities to elect the treasurer. Using the multiplication rule, we obtain $n_1 \times n_2 = 22 \times 21 = 462$ different ways.

The multiplication rule, Rule 2.1 may be extended to cover any number of operations. Suppose, for instance, that a customer wishes to buy a new cell phone and can choose from $n_1 = 5$ brands, $n_2 = 5$ sets of capability, and $n_3 = 4$ colors. These three classifications result in $n_1 n_2 n_3 = (5)(5)(4) = 100$ different ways for a customer to order one of these phones. The **generalized multiplication rule** covering k operations is stated in the following.

Rule 2.2: If an operation can be performed in n_1 ways, and if for each of these a second operation can be performed in n_2 ways, and for each of the first two a third operation can be performed in n_3 ways, and so forth, then the sequence of k operations can be performed in $n_1 n_2 \cdots n_k$ ways.

Example 2.16: Sam is going to assemble a computer by himself. He has the choice of chips from two brands, a hard drive from four, memory from three, and an accessory bundle from five local stores. How many different ways can Sam order the parts?

***Solution*:** Since $n_1 = 2$, $n_2 = 4$, $n_3 = 3$, and $n_4 = 5$, there are

$$n_l \times n_2 \times n_3 \times n_4 = 2 \times 4 \times 3 \times 5 = 120$$

different ways to order the parts.

Example 2.17: How many even four-digit numbers can be formed from the digits 0, 1, 2, 5, 6, and 9 if each digit can be used only once?

***Solution*:** Since the number must be even, we have only $n_1 = 3$ choices for the units position. However, for a four-digit number the thousands position cannot be 0. Hence, we consider the units position in two parts, 0 or not 0. If the units position is 0 (i.e., $n_1 = 1$), we have $n_2 = 5$ choices for the thousands position, $n_3 = 4$ for the hundreds position, and $n_4 = 3$ for the tens position. Therefore, in this case we have a total of

$$n_1 n_2 n_3 n_4 = (1)(5)(4)(3) = 60$$

even four-digit numbers. On the other hand, if the units position is not 0 (i.e., $n_1 = 2$), we have $n_2 = 4$ choices for the thousands position, $n_3 = 4$ for the hundreds position, and $n_4 = 3$ for the tens position. In this situation, there are a total of

$$n_1 n_2 n_3 n_4 = (2)(4)(4)(3) = 96$$

even four-digit numbers.

Since the above two cases are mutually exclusive, the total number of even four-digit numbers can be calculated as $60 + 96 = 156$.

Frequently, we are interested in a sample space that contains as elements all possible orders or arrangements of a group of objects. For example, we may want to know how many different arrangements are possible for sitting 6 people around a table, or we may ask how many different orders are possible for drawing 2 lottery tickets from a total of 20. The different arrangements are called **permutations**.

Definition 2.7: A **permutation** is an arrangement of all or part of a set of objects.

Consider the three letters a, b, and c. The possible permutations are abc, acb, bac, bca, cab, and cba. Thus, we see that there are 6 distinct arrangements. Using Rule 2.2, we could arrive at the answer 6 without actually listing the different orders by the following arguments: There are $n_1 = 3$ choices for the first position. No matter which letter is chosen, there are always $n_2 = 2$ choices for the second position. No matter which two letters are chosen for the first two positions, there is only $n_3 = 1$ choice for the last position, giving a total of

$$n_1n_2n_3 = (3)(2)(1) = 6 \text{ permutations}$$

by Rule 2.2. In general, n distinct objects can be arranged in

$$n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(3)(2)(1) \text{ ways.}$$

There is a notation for such a number.

Definition 2.8: For any non-negative integer n, $n!$, called "n factorial," is defined as

$$n! = n(n-1)\cdots(2)(1),$$

with special case $0! = 1$.

Using the argument above, we arrive at the following theorem.

Theorem 2.1: The number of permutations of n objects is $n!$.

The number of permutations of the four letters a, b, c, and d will be $4! = 24$. Now consider the number of permutations that are possible by taking two letters at a time from four. These would be ab, ac, ad, ba, bc, bd, ca, cb, cd, da, db, and dc. Using Rule 2.1 again, we have two positions to fill, with $n_1 = 4$ choices for the first and then $n_2 = 3$ choices for the second, for a total of

$$n_1n_2 = (4)(3) = 12$$

permutations. In general, n distinct objects taken r at a time can be arranged in

$$n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-r+1)$$

ways. We represent this product by the symbol

$${}_nP_r = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}.$$

As a result, we have the theorem that follows.

Theorem 2.2: The number of permutations of n distinct objects taken r at a time is

$$_nP_r = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}.$$

Example 2.18: In one year, three awards (research, teaching, and service) will be given to a class of 25 graduate students in a statistics department. If each student can receive at most one award, how many possible selections are there?

Solution: Since the awards are distinguishable, it is a permutation problem. The total number of sample points is

$$_{25}P_3 = \frac{25!}{(25-3)!} = \frac{25!}{22!} = (25)(24)(23) = 13,800.$$

Example 2.19: A president and a treasurer are to be chosen from a student club consisting of 50 people. How many different choices of officers are possible if

(a) there are no restrictions;

(b) A will serve only if he is president;

(c) B and C will serve together or not at all;

(d) D and E will not serve together?

Solution: (a) The total number of choices of officers, without any restrictions, is

$$_{50}P_2 = \frac{50!}{48!} = (50)(49) = 2450.$$

(b) Since A will serve only if he is president, we have two situations here: (i) A is selected as the president, which yields 49 possible outcomes for the treasurer's position, or (ii) officers are selected from the remaining 49 people without A, which has the number of choices $_{49}P_2 = (49)(48) = 2352$. Therefore, the total number of choices is $49 + 2352 = 2401$.

(c) The number of selections when B and C serve together is 2. The number of selections when both B and C are not chosen is $_{48}P_2 = 2256$. Therefore, the total number of choices in this situation is $2 + 2256 = 2258$.

(d) The number of selections when D serves as an officer but not E is $(2)(48) = 96$, where 2 is the number of positions D can take and 48 is the number of selections of the other officer from the remaining people in the club except E. The number of selections when E serves as an officer but not D is also $(2)(48) = 96$. The number of selections when both D and E are not chosen is $_{48}P_2 = 2256$. Therefore, the total number of choices is $(2)(96) + 2256 = 2448$. This problem also has another short solution: Since D and E can only serve together in 2 ways, the answer is $2450 - 2 = 2448$.

Permutations that occur by arranging objects in a circle are called **circular permutations**. Two circular permutations are not considered different unless corresponding objects in the two arrangements are preceded or followed by a different object as we proceed in a clockwise direction. For example, if 4 people are playing bridge, we do not have a new permutation if they all move one position in a clockwise direction. By considering one person in a fixed position and arranging the other three in 3! ways, we find that there are 6 distinct arrangements for the bridge game.

Theorem 2.3: The number of permutations of n objects arranged in a circle is $(n-1)!$.

So far we have considered permutations of distinct objects. That is, all the objects were completely different or distinguishable. Obviously, if the letters b and c are both equal to x, then the 6 permutations of the letters a, b, and c become axx, axx, xax, xax, xxa, and xxa, of which only 3 are distinct. Therefore, with 3 letters, 2 being the same, we have $3!/2! = 3$ distinct permutations. With 4 different letters a, b, c, and d, we have 24 distinct permutations. If we let $a = b = x$ and $c = d = y$, we can list only the following distinct permutations: $xxyy$, $xyxy$, $yxxy$, $yyxx$, $xyyx$, and $yxyx$. Thus, we have $4!/(2!\ 2!) = 6$ distinct permutations.

Theorem 2.4: The number of distinct permutations of n things of which n_1 are of one kind, n_2 of a second kind, ..., n_k of a kth kind is

$$\frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \cdots n_k!}.$$

Example 2.20: In a college football training session, the defensive coordinator needs to have 10 players standing in a row. Among these 10 players, there are 1 freshman, 2 sophomores, 4 juniors, and 3 seniors. How many different ways can they be arranged in a row if only their class level will be distinguished?

***Solution*:** Directly using Theorem 2.4, we find that the total number of arrangements is

$$\frac{10!}{1!\ 2!\ 4!\ 3!} = 12{,}600.$$

Often we are concerned with the number of ways of partitioning a set of n objects into r subsets called **cells**. A partition has been achieved if the intersection of every possible pair of the r subsets is the empty set ϕ and if the union of all subsets gives the original set. The order of the elements within a cell is of no importance. Consider the set $\{a,\ e,\ i,\ o,\ u\}$. The possible partitions into two cells in which the first cell contains 4 elements and the second cell 1 element are

$$\{(a, e, i, o), (u)\}, \{(a, i, o, u), (e)\}, \{(e, i, o, u), (a)\}, \{(a, e, o, u), (i)\}, \{(a, e, i, u), (o)\}.$$

We see that there are 5 ways to partition a set of 4 elements into two subsets, or cells, containing 4 elements in the first cell and 1 element in the second.

The number of partitions for this illustration is denoted by the symbol

$$\binom{5}{4, 1} = \frac{5!}{4!\ 1!} = 5,$$

where the top number represents the total number of elements and the bottom numbers represent the number of elements going into each cell. We state this more generally in Theorem 2.5.

Theorem 2.5: The number of ways of partitioning a set of n objects into r cells with n_1 elements in the first cell, n_2 elements in the second, and so forth, is

$$\binom{n}{n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_r} = \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \cdots n_r!},$$

where $n_1 + n_2 + \cdots + n_r = n$.

Example 2.21: In how many ways can 7 graduate students be assigned to 1 triple and 2 double hotel rooms during a conference?

***Solution*:** The total number of possible partitions would be

$$\binom{7}{3, 2, 2} = \frac{7!}{3!\ 2!\ 2!} = 210.$$

In many problems, we are interested in the number of ways of selecting r objects from n without regard to order. These selections are called **combinations**. A combination is actually a partition with two cells, the one cell containing the r objects selected and the other cell containing the $(n - r)$ objects that are left. The number of such combinations, denoted by

$$\binom{n}{r, n-r}, \text{ is usually shortened to } \binom{n}{r},$$

since the number of elements in the second cell must be $n - r$.

Theorem 2.6: The number of combinations of n distinct objects taken r at a time is

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}.$$

Example 2.22: A young boy asks his mother to get 5 Game-Boy$^{\text{TM}}$ cartridges from his collection of 10 arcade and 5 sports games. How many ways are there that his mother can get 3 arcade and 2 sports games?

***Solution*:** The number of ways of selecting 3 cartridges from 10 is

$$\binom{10}{3} = \frac{10!}{3!\ (10-3)!} = 120.$$

The number of ways of selecting 2 cartridges from 5 is

$$\binom{5}{2} = \frac{5!}{2!\ 3!} = 10.$$

Using the multiplication rule (Rule 2.1) with $n_1 = 120$ and $n_2 = 10$, we have $(120)(10) = 1200$ ways.

Example 2.23: How many different letter arrangements can be made from the letters in the word *STATISTICS*?

***Solution*:** Using the same argument as in the discussion for Theorem 2.6, in this example we can actually apply Theorem 2.5 to obtain

$$\binom{10}{3, 3, 2, 1, 1} = \frac{10!}{3!\,3!\,2!\,1!\,1!} = 50,400.$$

Here we have 10 total letters, with 2 letters (S, T) appearing 3 times each, letter I appearing twice, and letters A and C appearing once each. On the other hand, this result can be directly obtained by using Theorem 2.4.

Exercises

2.21 Registrants at a large convention are offered 6 sightseeing tours on each of 3 days. In how many ways can a person arrange to go on a sightseeing tour planned by this convention?

2.22 In a medical study, patients are classified in 8 ways according to whether they have blood type AB^+, AB^-, A^+, A^-, B^+, B^-, O^+, or O^-, and also according to whether their blood pressure is low, normal, or high. Find the number of ways in which a patient can be classified.

2.23 If an experiment consists of throwing a die and then drawing a letter at random from the English alphabet, how many points are there in the sample space?

2.24 Students at a private liberal arts college are classified as being freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors, and also according to whether they are male or female. Find the total number of possible classifications for the students of that college.

2.25 A certain brand of shoes comes in 5 different styles, with each style available in 4 distinct colors. If the store wishes to display pairs of these shoes showing all of its various styles and colors, how many different pairs will the store have on display?

2.26 A California study concluded that following 7 simple health rules can extend a man's life by 11 years on the average and a woman's life by 7 years. These 7 rules are as follows: no smoking, get regular exercise, use alcohol only in moderation, get 7 to 8 hours of sleep, maintain proper weight, eat breakfast, and do not eat between meals. In how many ways can a person adopt 5 of these rules to follow

(a) if the person presently violates all 7 rules?

(b) if the person never drinks and always eats breakfast?

2.27 A developer of a new subdivision offers a prospective home buyer a choice of 4 designs, 3 different heating systems, a garage or carport, and a patio or screened porch. How many different plans are available to this buyer?

2.28 A drug for the relief of asthma can be purchased from 5 different manufacturers in liquid, tablet, or capsule form, all of which come in regular and extra strength. How many different ways can a doctor prescribe the drug for a patient suffering from asthma?

2.29 In a fuel economy study, each of 3 race cars is tested using 5 different brands of gasoline at 7 test sites located in different regions of the country. If 2 drivers are used in the study, and test runs are made once under each distinct set of conditions, how many test runs are needed?

2.30 In how many different ways can a true-false test consisting of 9 questions be answered?

2.31 A witness to a hit-and-run accident told the police that the license number contained the letters RLH followed by 3 digits, the first of which was a 5. If the witness cannot recall the last 2 digits, but is certain that all 3 digits are different, find the maximum number of automobile registrations that the police may have to check.

2.32 (a) In how many ways can 6 people be lined up to get on a bus?
(b) If 3 specific persons, among 6, insist on following each other, how many ways are possible?
(c) If 2 specific persons, among 6, refuse to follow each other, how many ways are possible?

2.33 If a multiple-choice test consists of 5 questions, each with 4 possible answers of which only 1 is correct,
(a) in how many different ways can a student check off one answer to each question?
(b) in how many ways can a student check off one answer to each question and get all the answers wrong?

2.34 (a) How many distinct permutations can be made from the letters of the word *COLUMNS*?
(b) How many of these permutations start with the letter M?

2.35 A contractor wishes to build 9 houses, each different in design. In how many ways can he place these houses on a street if 6 lots are on one side of the street and 3 lots are on the opposite side?

2.36 (a) How many three-digit numbers can be formed from the digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 if each digit can be used only once?
(b) How many of these are odd numbers?
(c) How many are greater than 330?

2.37 In how many ways can 4 boys and 5 girls sit in a row if the boys and girls must alternate?

2.38 Four married couples have bought 8 seats in the same row for a concert. In how many different ways can they be seated
(a) with no restrictions?
(b) if each couple is to sit together?
(c) if all the men sit together to the right of all the women?

2.39 In a regional spelling bee, the 8 finalists consist of 3 boys and 5 girls. Find the number of sample points in the sample space S for the number of possible orders at the conclusion of the contest for
(a) all 8 finalists;
(b) the first 3 positions.

2.40 In how many ways can 5 starting positions on a basketball team be filled with 8 men who can play any of the positions?

2.41 Find the number of ways that 6 teachers can be assigned to 4 sections of an introductory psychology course if no teacher is assigned to more than one section.

2.42 Three lottery tickets for first, second, and third prizes are drawn from a group of 40 tickets. Find the number of sample points in S for awarding the 3 prizes if each contestant holds only 1 ticket.

2.43 In how many ways can 5 different trees be planted in a circle?

2.44 In how many ways can a caravan of 8 covered wagons from Arizona be arranged in a circle?

2.45 How many distinct permutations can be made from the letters of the word $INFINITY$?

2.46 In how many ways can 3 oaks, 4 pines, and 2 maples be arranged along a property line if one does not distinguish among trees of the same kind?

2.47 How many ways are there to select 3 candidates from 8 equally qualified recent graduates for openings in an accounting firm?

2.48 How many ways are there that no two students will have the same birth date in a class of size 60?

2.4 Probability of an Event

Perhaps it was humankind's unquenchable thirst for gambling that led to the early development of probability theory. In an effort to increase their winnings, gamblers called upon mathematicians to provide optimum strategies for various games of chance. Some of the mathematicians providing these strategies were Pascal, Leibniz, Fermat, and James Bernoulli. As a result of this development of probability theory, statistical inference, with all its predictions and generalizations, has branched out far beyond games of chance to encompass many other fields associated with chance occurrences, such as politics, business, weather forecasting, and scientific research. For these predictions and generalizations to be reasonably accurate, an understanding of basic probability theory is essential.

What do we mean when we make the statement "John will probably win the tennis match," or "I have a fifty-fifty chance of getting an even number when a die is tossed," or "The university is not likely to win the football game tonight," or "Most of our graduating class will likely be married within 3 years"? In each case, we are expressing an outcome of which we are not certain, but owing to past information or from an understanding of the structure of the experiment, we have some degree of confidence in the validity of the statement.

Throughout the remainder of this chapter, we consider only those experiments for which the sample space contains a finite number of elements. The likelihood of the occurrence of an event resulting from such a statistical experiment is evaluated by means of a set of real numbers, called **weights** or **probabilities**, ranging from 0 to 1. To every point in the sample space we assign a probability such that the sum of all probabilities is 1. If we have reason to believe that a certain sample point is quite likely to occur when the experiment is conducted, the probability assigned should be close to 1. On the other hand, a probability closer to 0 is assigned to a sample point that is not likely to occur. In many experiments, such as tossing a coin or a die, all the sample points have the same chance of occurring and are assigned equal probabilities. For points outside the sample space, that is, for simple events that cannot possibly occur, we assign a probability of 0.

To find the probability of an event A, we sum all the probabilities assigned to the sample points in A. This sum is called the **probability** of A and is denoted by $P(A)$.

Definition 2.9: The **probability** of an event A is the sum of the weights of all sample points in A. Therefore,

$$0 \leq P(A) \leq 1, \quad P(\phi) = 0, \quad \text{and} \quad P(S) = 1.$$

Furthermore, if A_1, A_2, A_3, ... is a sequence of mutually exclusive events, then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \cdots) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + P(A_3) + \cdots .$$

Example 2.24: A coin is tossed twice. What is the probability that at least 1 head occurs?

***Solution*:** The sample space for this experiment is

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

If the coin is balanced, each of these outcomes is equally likely to occur. Therefore, we assign a probability of ω to each sample point. Then $4\omega = 1$, or $\omega = 1/4$. If A represents the event of at least 1 head occurring, then

$$A = \{HH, HT, TH\} \text{ and } P(A) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}.$$

Example 2.25: A die is loaded in such a way that an even number is twice as likely to occur as an odd number. If E is the event that a number less than 4 occurs on a single toss of the die, find $P(E)$.

Solution: The sample space is $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. We assign a probability of w to each odd number and a probability of $2w$ to each even number. Since the sum of the probabilities must be 1, we have $9w = 1$ or $w = 1/9$. Hence, probabilities of $1/9$ and $2/9$ are assigned to each odd and even number, respectively. Therefore,

$$E = \{1, 2, 3\} \text{ and } P(E) = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{4}{9}.$$

Example 2.26: In Example 2.25, let A be the event that an even number turns up and let B be the event that a number divisible by 3 occurs. Find $P(A \cup B)$ and $P(A \cap B)$.

Solution: For the events $A = \{2, 4, 6\}$ and $B = \{3, 6\}$, we have

$$A \cup B = \{2, 3, 4, 6\} \text{ and } A \cap B = \{6\}.$$

By assigning a probability of $1/9$ to each odd number and $2/9$ to each even number, we have

$$P(A \cup B) = \frac{2}{9} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{2}{9} = \frac{7}{9} \quad \text{and} \quad P(A \cap B) = \frac{2}{9}.$$

If the sample space for an experiment contains N elements, all of which are equally likely to occur, we assign a probability equal to $1/N$ to each of the N points. The probability of any event A containing n of these N sample points is then the ratio of the number of elements in A to the number of elements in S.

Rule 2.3: If an experiment can result in any one of N different equally likely outcomes, and if exactly n of these outcomes correspond to event A, then the probability of event A is

$$P(A) = \frac{n}{N}.$$

Example 2.27: A statistics class for engineers consists of 25 industrial, 10 mechanical, 10 electrical, and 8 civil engineering students. If a person is randomly selected by the instructor to answer a question, find the probability that the student chosen is (a) an industrial engineering major and (b) a civil engineering or an electrical engineering major.

Solution: Denote by I, M, E, and C the students majoring in industrial, mechanical, electrical, and civil engineering, respectively. The total number of students in the class is 53, all of whom are equally likely to be selected.

(a) Since 25 of the 53 students are majoring in industrial engineering, the probability of event I, selecting an industrial engineering major at random, is

$$P(I) = \frac{25}{53}.$$

(b) Since 18 of the 53 students are civil or electrical engineering majors, it follows that

$$P(C \cup E) = \frac{18}{53}.$$

Example 2.28: In a poker hand consisting of 5 cards, find the probability of holding 2 aces and 3 jacks.

***Solution*:** The number of ways of being dealt 2 aces from 4 cards is

$$\binom{4}{2} = \frac{4!}{2!\ 2!} = 6,$$

and the number of ways of being dealt 3 jacks from 4 cards is

$$\binom{4}{3} = \frac{4!}{3!\ 1!} = 4.$$

By the multiplication rule (Rule 2.1), there are $n = (6)(4) = 24$ hands with 2 aces and 3 jacks. The total number of 5-card poker hands, all of which are equally likely, is

$$N = \binom{52}{5} = \frac{52!}{5!\ 47!} = 2{,}598{,}960.$$

Therefore, the probability of getting 2 aces and 3 jacks in a 5-card poker hand is

$$P(C) = \frac{24}{2,598,960} = 0.9 \times 10^{-5}.$$

If the outcomes of an experiment are not equally likely to occur, the probabilities must be assigned on the basis of prior knowledge or experimental evidence. For example, if a coin is not balanced, we could estimate the probabilities of heads and tails by tossing the coin a large number of times and recording the outcomes. According to the **relative frequency** definition of probability, the true probabilities would be the fractions of heads and tails that occur in the long run. Another intuitive way of understanding probability is the **indifference** approach. For instance, if you have a die that you believe is balanced, then using this indifference approach, you determine that the probability that each of the six sides will show up after a throw is 1/6.

To find a numerical value that represents adequately the probability of winning at tennis, we must depend on our past performance at the game as well as that of the opponent and, to some extent, our belief in our ability to win. Similarly, to find the probability that a horse will win a race, we must arrive at a probability based on the previous records of all the horses entered in the race as well as the records of the jockeys riding the horses. Intuition would undoubtedly also play a part in determining the size of the bet that we might be willing to wager. The use of intuition, personal beliefs, and other indirect information in arriving at probabilities is referred to as the **subjective** definition of probability.

In most of the applications of probability in this book, the relative frequency interpretation of probability is the operative one. Its foundation is the statistical experiment rather than subjectivity, and it is best viewed as the **limiting relative frequency**. As a result, many applications of probability in science and engineering must be based on experiments that can be repeated. Less objective notions of probability are encountered when we assign probabilities based on prior information and opinions, as in "There is a good chance that the Giants will lose the Super

Bowl." When opinions and prior information differ from individual to individual, subjective probability becomes the relevant resource. In Bayesian statistics (see Chapter 18), a more subjective interpretation of probability will be used, based on an elicitation of prior probability information.

2.5 Additive Rules

Often it is easiest to calculate the probability of some event from known probabilities of other events. This may well be true if the event in question can be represented as the union of two other events or as the complement of some event. Several important laws that frequently simplify the computation of probabilities follow. The first, called the **additive rule**, applies to unions of events.

Theorem 2.7: If A and B are two events, then

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B).$$

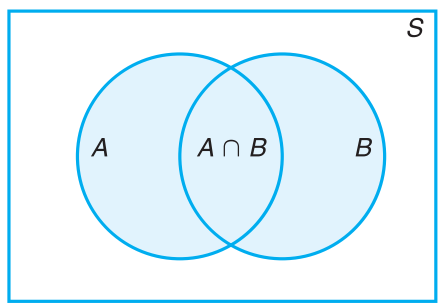

Figure 2.7: Additive rule of probability.

***Proof*:** Consider the Venn diagram in Figure 2.7. The $P(A \cup B)$ is the sum of the probabilities of the sample points in $A \cup B$. Now $P(A) + P(B)$ is the sum of all the probabilities in A plus the sum of all the probabilities in B. Therefore, we have added the probabilities in $(A \cap B)$ twice. Since these probabilities add up to $P(A \cap B)$, we must subtract this probability once to obtain the sum of the probabilities in $A \cup B$.

Corollary 2.1: If A and B are mutually exclusive, then

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B).$$

Corollary 2.1 is an immediate result of Theorem 2.7, since if A and B are mutually exclusive, $A \cap B = 0$ and then $P(A \cap B) = P(\phi) = 0$. In general, we can write Corollary 2.2.

Corollary 2.2: If $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$ are mutually exclusive, then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \cdots + P(A_n).$$

A collection of events $\{A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n\}$ of a sample space S is called a **partition** of S if $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$ are mutually exclusive and $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n = S$. Thus, we have

Corollary 2.3: If $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$ is a partition of sample space S, then

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \cdots + P(A_n) = P(S) = 1.$$

As one might expect, Theorem 2.7 extends in an analogous fashion.

Theorem 2.8: For three events A, B, and C,

$$P(A \cup B \cup C) = P(A) + P(B) + P(C) - P(A \cap B) - P(A \cap C) - P(B \cap C) + P(A \cap B \cap C).$$

Example 2.29: John is going to graduate from an industrial engineering department in a university by the end of the semester. After being interviewed at two companies he likes, he assesses that his probability of getting an offer from company A is 0.8, and his probability of getting an offer from company B is 0.6. If he believes that the probability that he will get offers from both companies is 0.5, what is the probability that he will get at least one offer from these two companies?

***Solution*:** Using the additive rule, we have

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B) = 0.8 + 0.6 - 0.5 = 0.9.$$

Example 2.30: What is the probability of getting a total of 7 or 11 when a pair of fair dice is tossed?

***Solution*:** Let A be the event that 7 occurs and B the event that 11 comes up. Now, a total of 7 occurs for 6 of the 36 sample points, and a total of 11 occurs for only 2 of the sample points. Since all sample points are equally likely, we have $P(A) = 1/6$ and $P(B) = 1/18$. The events A and B are mutually exclusive, since a total of 7 and 11 cannot both occur on the same toss. Therefore,

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{18} = \frac{2}{9}.$$

This result could also have been obtained by counting the total number of points for the event $A \cup B$, namely 8, and writing

$$P(A \cup B) = \frac{n}{N} = \frac{8}{36} = \frac{2}{9}.$$

Theorem 2.7 and its three corollaries should help the reader gain more insight into probability and its interpretation. Corollaries 2.1 and 2.2 suggest the very intuitive result dealing with the probability of occurrence of at least one of a number of events, no two of which can occur simultaneously. The probability that at least one occurs is the sum of the probabilities of occurrence of the individual events. The third corollary simply states that the highest value of a probability (unity) is assigned to the entire sample space S.

Example 2.31: If the probabilities are, respectively, 0.09, 0.15, 0.21, and 0.23 that a person purchasing a new automobile will choose the color green, white, red, or blue, what is the probability that a given buyer will purchase a new automobile that comes in one of those colors?

***Solution*:** Let G, W, R, and B be the events that a buyer selects, respectively, a green, white, red, or blue automobile. Since these four events are mutually exclusive, the probability is

$$\begin{aligned} P(G \cup W \cup R \cup B) &= P(G) + P(W) + P(R) + P(B) \\ &= 0.09 + 0.15 + 0.21 + 0.23 = 0.68. \end{aligned}$$

Often it is more difficult to calculate the probability that an event occurs than it is to calculate the probability that the event does not occur. Should this be the case for some event A, we simply find $P(A')$ first and then, using Theorem 2.7, find $P(A)$ by subtraction.

Theorem 2.9: If A and A' are complementary events, then

$$P(A) + P(A') = 1.$$

***Proof*:** Since $A \cup A' = S$ and the sets A and A' are disjoint,

$$1 = P(S) = P(A \cup A') = P(A) + P(A').$$

Example 2.32: If the probabilities that an automobile mechanic will service 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, or 8 or more cars on any given workday are, respectively, 0.12, 0.19, 0.28, 0.24, 0.10, and 0.07, what is the probability that he will service at least 5 cars on his next day at work?

***Solution*:** Let E be the event that at least 5 cars are serviced. Now, $P(E) = 1 - P(E')$, where E' is the event that fewer than 5 cars are serviced. Since

$$P(E') = 0.12 + 0.19 = 0.31,$$

it follows from Theorem 2.9 that

$$P(E) = 1 - 0.31 = 0.69.$$

Example 2.33: Suppose the manufacturer's specifications for the length of a certain type of computer cable are 2000 ± 10 millimeters. In this industry, it is known that small cable is just as likely to be defective (not meeting specifications) as large cable. That is, the probability of randomly producing a cable with length exceeding 2010 millimeters is equal to the probability of producing a cable with length smaller than 1990 millimeters. The probability that the production procedure meets specifications is known to be 0.99.

(a) What is the probability that a cable selected randomly is too large?

(b) What is the probability that a randomly selected cable is larger than 1990 millimeters?

Solution: Let M be the event that a cable meets specifications. Let S and L be the events that the cable is too small and too large, respectively. Then

(a) $P(M) = 0.99$ and $P(S) = P(L) = (1 - 0.99)/2 = 0.005$.

(b) Denoting by X the length of a randomly selected cable, we have

$$P(1990 \le X \le 2010) = P(M) = 0.99.$$

Since $P(X \ge 2010) = P(L) = 0.005$,

$$P(X \ge 1990) = P(M) + P(L) = 0.995.$$

This also can be solved by using Theorem 2.9:

$$P(X \ge 1990) + P(X < 1990) = 1.$$

Thus, $P(X \ge 1990) = 1 - P(S) = 1 - 0.005 = 0.995.$

Exercises

2.49 Find the errors in each of the following statements:

(a) The probabilities that an automobile salesperson will sell 0, 1, 2, or 3 cars on any given day in February are, respectively, 0.19, 0.38, 0.29, and 0.15.

(b) The probability that it will rain tomorrow is 0.40, and the probability that it will not rain tomorrow is 0.52.

(c) The probabilities that a printer will make 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4 or more mistakes in setting a document are, respectively, $0.19, 0.34, -0.25, 0.43$, and 0.29.

(d) On a single draw from a deck of playing cards, the probability of selecting a heart is 1/4, the probability of selecting a black card is 1/2, and the probability of selecting both a heart and a black card is 1/8.

2.50 Assuming that all elements of S in Exercise 2.8 on page 42 are equally likely to occur, find

(a) the probability of event A;

(b) the probability of event C;

(c) the probability of event $A \cap C$.

2.51 A box contains 500 envelopes, of which 75 contain \$100 in cash, 150 contain \$25, and 275 contain \$10. An envelope may be purchased for \$25. What is the sample space for the different amounts of money? Assign probabilities to the sample points and then find the probability that the first envelope purchased contains less than \$100.

2.52 Suppose that in a senior college class of 500 students it is found that 210 smoke, 258 drink alcoholic beverages, 216 eat between meals, 122 smoke and drink alcoholic beverages, 83 eat between meals and drink alcoholic beverages, 97 smoke and eat between meals, and 52 engage in all three of these bad health practices. If a member of this senior class is selected at random, find the probability that the student

(a) smokes but does not drink alcoholic beverages;

(b) eats between meals and drinks alcoholic beverages but does not smoke;

(c) neither smokes nor eats between meals.

2.53 The probability that an American industry will locate in Shanghai, China, is 0.7, the probability that

it will locate in Beijing, China, is 0.4, and the probability that it will locate in either Shanghai or Beijing or both is 0.8. What is the probability that the industry will locate
(a) in both cities?
(b) in neither city?

2.54 From past experience, a stockbroker believes that under present economic conditions a customer will invest in tax-free bonds with a probability of 0.6, will invest in mutual funds with a probability of 0.3, and will invest in both tax-free bonds and mutual funds with a probability of 0.15. At this time, find the probability that a customer will invest
(a) in either tax-free bonds or mutual funds;
(b) in neither tax-free bonds nor mutual funds.

2.55 If each coded item in a catalog begins with 3 distinct letters followed by 4 distinct nonzero digits, find the probability of randomly selecting one of these coded items with the first letter a vowel and the last digit even.

2.56 An automobile manufacturer is concerned about a possible recall of its best-selling four-door sedan. If there were a recall, there is a probability of 0.25 of a defect in the brake system, 0.18 of a defect in the transmission, 0.17 of a defect in the fuel system, and 0.40 of a defect in some other area.
(a) What is the probability that the defect is the brakes or the fueling system if the probability of defects in both systems simultaneously is 0.15?
(b) What is the probability that there are no defects in either the brakes or the fueling system?

2.57 If a letter is chosen at random from the English alphabet, find the probability that the letter
(a) is a vowel exclusive of y;
(b) is listed somewhere ahead of the letter j;
(c) is listed somewhere after the letter g.

2.58 A pair of fair dice is tossed. Find the probability of getting
(a) a total of 8;
(b) at most a total of 5.

2.59 In a poker hand consisting of 5 cards, find the probability of holding
(a) 3 aces;
(b) 4 hearts and 1 club.

2.60 If 3 books are picked at random from a shelf containing 5 novels, 3 books of poems, and a dictionary, what is the probability that
(a) the dictionary is selected?
(b) 2 novels and 1 book of poems are selected?

2.61 In a high school graduating class of 100 students, 54 studied mathematics, 69 studied history, and 35 studied both mathematics and history. If one of these students is selected at random, find the probability that
(a) the student took mathematics or history;
(b) the student did not take either of these subjects;
(c) the student took history but not mathematics.

2.62 Dom's Pizza Company uses taste testing and statistical analysis of the data prior to marketing any new product. Consider a study involving three types of crusts (thin, thin with garlic and oregano, and thin with bits of cheese). Dom's is also studying three sauces (standard, a new sauce with more garlic, and a new sauce with fresh basil).
(a) How many combinations of crust and sauce are involved?
(b) What is the probability that a judge will get a plain thin crust with a standard sauce for his first taste test?

2.63 According to *Consumer Digest* (July/August 1996), the probable location of personal computers (PC) in the home is as follows:

Adult bedroom:	0.03
Child bedroom:	0.15
Other bedroom:	0.14
Office or den:	0.40
Other rooms:	0.28

(a) What is the probability that a PC is in a bedroom?
(b) What is the probability that it is not in a bedroom?
(c) Suppose a household is selected at random from households with a PC; in what room would you expect to find a PC?

2.64 Interest centers around the life of an electronic component. Suppose it is known that the probability that the component survives for more than 6000 hours is 0.42. Suppose also that the probability that the component survives *no longer than* 4000 hours is 0.04.
(a) What is the probability that the life of the component is less than or equal to 6000 hours?
(b) What is the probability that the life is greater than 4000 hours?