

Table of Contents

Table of Contents	3
Preview 1. Probability Formulars and Principles.....	5
Principle of Multiplication	5
Principle of Principle of Multiplication.....	5
Combinations.....	7
Permutations	8
Sample Spaces and Events.....	13
Theoretical and Experimental probability	14
Normal Distribution	25
Binomial Distribution	31
Expected Value (EV)	35
Probability from contingency table.....	40
Preview 2. Main Probability Topics	44
Introduction to Probability	45
Simulation and Probability	48
Conditional Probability.....	52
Random Variables	56
Binomial and Geometric Distributions.....	60
Probability Distributions.....	64
Chapter 1. Foundation Questions for Understanding Probability.....	69
Chapter 2. Counting Questions - Set A	90
Chapter 3. Counting Questions - Set B	121
Chapter 4. Counting Questions - Set C	146
Chapter 5. Combinations Questions - Set A.....	165
Chapter 6. Combinations Questions - Set B	198
Chapter 7. Probability Questions - Set A	215
Chapter 8. Probability Questions - Set B.....	236
Chapter 9. Probability Questions - Set C.....	254
Chapter 10. Conditional Probability	265
Chapter 11. Discrete Random Variables.....	287

Chapter 12. Binomial Random Variables	308
Chapter 13. Poisson Random Variables.....	329
Chapter 14. Normal Random Variables	343
End of the Workbook	374

Symbol	Description	Definition	Example
$P(A \cap B)$	Probability of Intersection	Probability that both events A and B occur	$P(A \cap B) = 0.3$
$P(A)$	Probability Function	Probability of event A occurring	$P(A) = 0.6$
$P(A/B)$	Conditional Probability	Probability of event A occurring given that event B has occurred	
$P(A \cup B)$	Probability of Union	Probability that either event A or B occurs	$P(A \cup B) = 0.54$
$F(x)$	Cumulative Distribution Function	Probability that X is less than or equal to x	$F(x) = P(X \leq x)$
$f(x)$	Probability Density Function	Density function of X at x	Integral of $f(x)$
$E(X)$	Expectation Value	Expected value of random variable X	$E(X) = 10$
μ	Population Mean	Mean of population values	$\mu = 10$
$\text{var}(X)$	Variance	Variance of random variable X	$\text{var}(X) = 4$
$E(X/Y)$	Conditional Expectation	Expected value of X given Y	
$\text{std}(X)$	Standard Deviation	Standard deviation of random variable X	$\text{std}(X) = 2$
σ^2	Variance	Variance of population values	$\sigma^2 = 4$
$N(\mu, \sigma^2)$	Normal Distribution	Gaussian distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2	$X \sim N(0,3)$
$\text{Bin}(n,p)$	Binomial Distribution	Probability distribution of n successes with probability p	$f(k) = {}_n C_k \cdot p^{(k)} (1-p)^{(n-k)}$

Preview 1. Probability Formulars and Principles

Principle of Multiplication

Principle of Multiplication:

If there are m ways to do one thing, and n ways to do another thing, then the total number of ways to do both things is $m \times n$.

Example: Imagine you are going to a restaurant and have two choices to make:

- 3 drink options: Water, Soda, Juice
- 2 meal options: Pizza, Salad

To find out how many possible combinations of drinks and meals you can choose, you multiply the number of drink options by the number of meal options:

$$3 \times 2 = 6$$

So, there are 6 different combinations:

- Water + Pizza
- Water + Salad
- Soda + Pizza
- Soda + Salad
- Juice + Pizza
- Juice + Salad

Principle of Principle of Multiplication

Principle of Addition:

If there are m ways to do one thing, and n **mutually exclusive** ways to do another thing, then the total number of ways to do one or the other is $m + n$.

Example: Imagine you're choosing a dessert:

- 4 types of ice cream: Vanilla, Chocolate, Strawberry, Mint
- 3 types of cake: Chocolate, Vanilla, Red Velvet

Since you can only choose either ice cream or cake (not both), you add the number of ice cream options and the number of cake options together:

$$4 + 3 = 7$$

So, you have 7 different dessert options to choose from.

These principles are very useful when you are dealing with combinations or choices, helping you calculate the total number of possible outcomes based on different situations.

Permutation Formula for n Elements:

If you are arranging all n elements, the number of permutations is:

$$P_n = n!$$

Example: For 10 elements, the number of permutations is:

$$P_{10} = 10! = 10 \times 9 \times 8 \times \dots \times 1 = 3,628,800$$

Permutation Formula for Selecting r Elements from n:

If you are arranging r elements out of n total elements, the formula is:

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

Key Takeaways:

- $n!$ (factorial) means multiplying all whole numbers from n down to 1.
- Permutations focus on order, meaning abc is different from cba .

Example: For 18 elements, selecting 2 at a time, the total number of permutations is:

$$P(18, 2) = \frac{18!}{(18-2)!} = \frac{18 \times 17 \times 16!}{16!} = 18 \times 17 = 306$$

Combinations

Combinations, which is a method of selecting elements from a set where the order does not matter.

Combination Definition:

A combination is an arrangement of elements without repetition, and where the order is irrelevant.

Difference Between Permutations and Combinations:

- In **permutations**, the order matters, so all possible orders are counted as different arrangements.
- In **combinations**, the order does not matter, so all orders of the same elements count as one arrangement.

Example 1: Combinations of 3 letters (a, b, c) taken 3 at a time:

When taking 3 elements from the set a, b, c , the only possible combination is:

$$\{abc\}$$

Since the order does not matter, all the arrangements of abc (such as abc, acb, bac, etc.) are treated as the same combination. Therefore, there is only 1 combination.

Example 2: Combinations of 4 letters (a, b, c, d) taken 3 at a time:

When selecting 3 elements from the set a, b, c, d, the total number of combinations is:

$$\{abc, bcd, cda, dab\}$$

There are 4 combinations in total.

Formula for Combinations:

The number of combinations of n different elements taken r elements at a time is:

$$C(n, r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$$

This formula accounts for the fact that the order doesn't matter by dividing by $r!$, which removes the repetition of counting different orders of the same combination.

Key Points:

- Combinations are used when the order of selection doesn't matter.

- The formula divides the number of permutations by $r!$ to account for the fact that the same set of elements can appear in different orders but still counts as one combination.

Example:

1. Choosing 2 elements from 18 elements:

$$C(18,2) = \frac{18!}{(18-2)!2!} = \frac{18 \times 17 \times 16!}{16! \times 2!} = \frac{18 \times 17}{2} = 153$$

So, there are 153 different ways to choose 2 elements from 18.

2. Choosing 16 elements from 18 elements:

$$C(18,16) = C(18,2) = 153$$

(Using the symmetry property of combinations where $C(n,r) = C(n,n-r)$).

Permutations

Permutations with Repeating Selections, where elements can be repeated during the selection process.

Key Concept:

In this type of permutation, each element can be chosen more than once, which is different from standard permutations where each element can only be used once.

Example: Permutations of Letters (a, b, c) Taken 3 at a Time with Repetition:

If we take 3 letters from the set a, b, c, and each letter can be repeated, the number of permutations is much larger.

Possible permutations include:

aaa, aab, aac, aba, abb, abc, aca, acb, acc
 baa, bab, bac, bba, bbb, bbc, bca, bcb, bcc
 caa, cab, cac, cba, cbb, cbc, cca, ccb, ccc

There are a total of 27 permutations, calculated as:



$$(3 \times 3 \times 3)$$

$$3^3 = 27$$

This is because for each position, you have 3 choices (either a, b, or c), and you multiply the number of choices for each position.

General Formula for Permutations with Repetition:

The number of permutations when selecting r elements from n elements, where repetition is allowed, is given by:

$$P = n^r$$

- n is the number of choices (the size of the set).
- r is the number of elements you're selecting.

Key Takeaway:

Permutations with repetitions allow for much larger numbers of possible arrangements, since each element can be selected multiple times.

Example with Formula:

If you are selecting 4 elements from a set of 5 elements (a, b, c, d, e), and repetition is allowed, the number of permutations is:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \square & \square & \square & \square \end{array}$$

$$(5 \times 5 \times 5 \times 5)$$

$$P = 5^4 = 5 \times 5 \times 5 \times 5 = 625$$

Permutations with Elements Alike, also known as **Distinguishable Permutations**. This is used when some of the elements in a set are identical, and we need to account for that when counting the total number of permutations.

Formula:

If you have n elements where n_1 elements are alike, n_2 elements are alike, n_3 elements are alike, and so on, the formula for calculating the number of distinct permutations is:

$$P = \frac{n!}{n_1! \times n_2! \times n_3! \times \cdots \times n_k!}$$

- $n!$ is the factorial of the total number of elements.

- $n_1!, n_2!, \dots, n_k!$ are the factorials of the counts of the alike elements.

Key Takeaway:

When elements are repeated, we divide by the factorials of the repeated elements to avoid overcounting identical arrangements. This concept applies to situations where some items in a set are indistinguishable from others.

Example: Consider the word "BANANA", which consists of 6 letters. However, some letters are repeated:

- There are 3 A's, 2 N's, 1 B.

To find the number of distinguishable permutations, use the formula:

$$P = \frac{6!}{3! \times 2! \times 1!} = \frac{720}{6 \times 2 \times 1} = \frac{720}{12} = 60$$

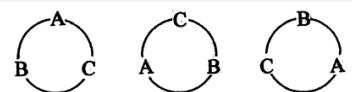
So, there are 60 distinct ways to arrange the letters in the word "BANANA".

Circular Permutations:

In a linear arrangement, the number of permutations of n objects is $n!$, but in a circular arrangement, some of these permutations look the same when the circle is rotated. Therefore, in circular permutations, the formula is different.

Key Concept:

When arranging objects in a circle, one fixed arrangement (such as ABC) looks the same when rotated (to BCA or CAB). This reduces the number of unique permutations compared to a line.



Formula for Circular Permutations:

The number of permutations of n distinct objects in a circle is:

$$P_{\text{circular}} = (n - 1)!$$

This is because, once one element is fixed in the circle, the remaining $n - 1$ elements can be arranged in $(n - 1)!$ ways.

Example:

1. For 3 objects (A, B, C) arranged in a circle, the number of circular permutations is:

$$\frac{3!}{3} = \frac{6}{3} = 2$$

This means there are 2 distinct arrangements: ABC and ACB (rotations of ABC such as BCA and CAB are considered the same).

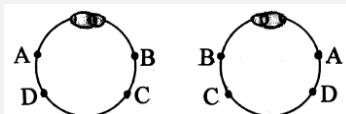
2. For 6 objects arranged in a circle:

$$\frac{6!}{6} = \frac{720}{6} = 120$$

So, there are 120 distinct circular permutations.

Necklace Permutations:

In necklace permutations, the arrangement is circular, but there's an additional rule: if you flip the necklace, an arrangement is considered identical. This reduces the number of distinct permutations further.

**Formula for Necklace Permutations:**

The number of distinct arrangements (permutations) of n beads in a necklace is:

$$P_{\text{necklace}} = \frac{(n-1)!}{2}$$

This formula divides the number of circular permutations by 2 because flipping the necklace results in the same arrangement.

Summary:

- **Circular permutations** consider rotations to be the same, reducing the number of distinct arrangements compared to linear permutations.
- **Necklace permutations** consider both rotations and flips (reflection) to be the same, further reducing the number of distinct arrangements.

Example:

For 4 beads arranged in a necklace:

$$P_{\text{necklace}} = \frac{(4-1)!}{2} = \frac{3!}{2} = \frac{6}{2} = 3$$

So, there are 3 distinct necklace arrangements.

Example: How to calculate the **odds of selecting a lottery ticket combination** when selecting 5 numbers from a set of 49 and an additional Powerball number from a set of 42.

Problem Statement:

- You need to select 5 numbers from 1 to 49.
- After selecting the 5 numbers, you also select 1 Powerball number from 1 to 42.
- The task is to calculate the total number of possible combinations.

Step-by-Step Solution:

1. Combination of 5 numbers from 49:

The number of ways to choose 5 numbers from 49 is given by the combination formula:

$$\binom{49}{5} = \frac{49!}{(49-5)!5!} = \frac{49 \times 48 \times 47 \times 46 \times 45}{5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1} = 1,906,884$$

This represents all the possible ways to select 5 numbers from the pool of 49.

2. Selecting the Powerball number:

There are 42 possible choices for the Powerball number, and you can select any one of them. So, the number of ways to choose the Powerball number is:

42

3. Total Number of Combinations:

To find the total number of possible combinations, you multiply the two results:

$$\binom{49}{5} \times 42 = 1,906,884 \times 42 = 80,089,128$$

Thus, the total number of possible combinations for this lottery is 80,089,128.

Conclusion:

If you are buying one lottery ticket, your odds of winning are 1 in 80,089,128, given the setup where you select 5 numbers from 49 and 1 Powerball number from 42.

Sample Spaces and Events

Key concepts in probability theory, specifically **Sample Spaces and Events**.

1. Random Experiment:

A random experiment is a process or action that can be repeated under the same conditions, but the outcome cannot be predicted with certainty. Every possible outcome has an equal chance of occurring, but we don't know in advance which one will happen.

Example:

Tossing a fair coin is a random experiment. Each time you toss the coin, you don't know whether it will land heads or tails, but you know that both outcomes are possible.

2. Sample Space:

The sample space of a random experiment is the set of all possible outcomes. It includes every outcome that could possibly occur in that experiment.

Example for a Coin Toss:

If you toss a fair coin, the sample space is:

$$S = \{H, T\}$$

where H represents heads and T represents tails.

Example for Rolling a Die:

If you roll a fair six-sided die, the sample space is:

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

These are the possible outcomes of the roll.

3. Event:

An event is any subset of the sample space. It represents one or more possible outcomes.

Example:

If the event is "rolling an odd number" when rolling a die, the event is:

$$E = \{1, 3, 5\}$$

This subset of the sample space represents the event where the die lands on an odd number.

4. Sample (or Sample Point):

A sample point refers to each individual outcome within the sample space.

Example:

In the case of rolling a die, each outcome such as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 is a sample point.

5. Simple Event:

A simple event is an event that consists of exactly one outcome. It's a single element from the sample space.

Example for a Coin Toss:

For a coin toss, a simple event might be:

$$E = \{H\}$$

This event represents the outcome of the coin landing on heads. It consists of just one sample point.

Theoretical and Experimental probability

Overview of fundamental Probability concepts, covering both **Theoretical and Experimental probability**, types of events, and key probability formulas.

1. Probability Overview:

- Probability is the measure of the likelihood of an event happening, ranging from 0 (impossible event) to 1 (certain event).
- Theoretical Probability uses known possible outcomes to calculate the likelihood of an event.

- Experimental Probability is based on conducting experiments and measuring how often an event occurs.

Theoretical Probability Formula:

$$P(A) = \frac{n(A)}{n(S)}$$

Where:

- $n(A)$ is the number of favorable outcomes (what we want to happen).
- $n(S)$ is the total number of possible outcomes in the sample space.

Examples: Coin Toss: The probability of getting heads when tossing a fair coin is:

$$P(H) = \frac{1}{2}$$

because there are 2 possible outcomes (heads or tails), and heads is one favorable outcome.

- Rolling a Die: The probability of rolling an even number is:

$$P(E) = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$$

because there are 6 total outcomes (numbers 1 to 6) and 3 even outcomes (2, 4, 6).

Experimental Probability Formula:

$$P(A) = \frac{e}{n}$$

Where:

- e is the number of times event A occurs.
- n is the total number of trials.

Example: In a school with 2000 students, if 40 are left-handed, the probability that a student chosen at random is left-handed is:

$$P(\text{left-handed}) = \frac{40}{2000} = \frac{1}{50} = 0.02 \text{ or } 2\%$$

2. Types of Events:

- **Independent Events:** Events where the occurrence of one does not affect the occurrence of the other.
- **Dependent Events:** Events where the occurrence of one event does affect the occurrence of the other.

- **Mutually Exclusive Events:** Two events that cannot happen at the same time (they have no elements in common).

3. Probability of Independent Events:

If A and B are independent events, the probability of both events occurring is:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \times P(B)$$

Example: A bag contains 5 red balls and 4 white balls. If two balls are drawn at random with replacement, the probability that both balls are red is:

$$P(\text{both red}) = \frac{5}{9} \times \frac{5}{9} = \frac{25}{81}$$

4. Probability of Dependent Events:

For dependent events, the probability of both occurring is:

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \times P(B | A)$$

Where $P(B | A)$ is the conditional probability of B occurring given that A has occurred.

Example: A bag contains 5 red balls and 4 white balls. If two balls are drawn without replacement, the probability that both balls are red is:

$$P(\text{both red}) = \frac{5}{9} \times \frac{4}{8} = \frac{20}{72} = \frac{5}{18}$$

5. Mutually Exclusive Events:

For mutually exclusive events A and B, the probability of either event happening is:

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

For non-mutually exclusive events (events that can happen together), the formula is adjusted:

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

Example: If you roll a die and define event A as rolling a 1 or 2 and event B as rolling a 2 or 3, the probability of either A or B happening is:

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

$P(A \cap B)$ represents rolling a 2.

1. Theoretical Probability Example:

Question: What is the probability of drawing a red card from a standard deck of 52 cards?

Solution:

In a standard deck of cards:

- There are 26 red cards (13 hearts and 13 diamonds).
- The total number of possible outcomes (sample space S) is 52 cards.

The probability $P(\text{red card})$ is:

$$P(\text{red card}) = \frac{\text{number of red cards}}{\text{total number of cards}} = \frac{26}{52} = \frac{1}{2}$$

So, the probability of drawing a red card is $\frac{1}{2}$, or 50%.

2. Experimental Probability Example:

Question: In a survey, 250 people were asked if they like chocolate, and 175 of them said yes. What is the experimental probability that a randomly chosen person from this group likes chocolate?

Solution:

The experimental probability is given by:

$$P(A) = \frac{e}{n}$$

Where:

- e is the number of people who said yes (175).
- n is the total number of people surveyed (250).

The experimental probability is:

$$P(\text{likes chocolate}) = \frac{175}{250} = 0.7$$

Thus, there is a 70% chance that a randomly chosen person from the group likes chocolate.

3. Independent Events Example:

Consider an example involving two independent events.

Question: A bag contains 3 blue marbles and 5 red marbles. You draw two marbles with replacement. What is the probability that both marbles are blue?

Solution:

Since the events are independent (because of replacement), the probability of both marbles being blue is:

$$P(\text{both blue}) = P(\text{first blue}) \times P(\text{second blue})$$

The probability of drawing a blue marble on the first draw is:

$$P(\text{first blue}) = \frac{3}{8}$$

Since the first marble is replaced, the probability of drawing a blue marble on the second draw is also:

$$P(\text{second blue}) = \frac{3}{8}$$

So, the probability of drawing two blue marbles is:

$$P(\text{both blue}) = \frac{3}{8} \times \frac{3}{8} = \frac{9}{64}$$

Thus, the probability of drawing two blue marbles with replacement is $\frac{9}{64}$.

4. Dependent Events Example:

Now let's consider an example with dependent events.

Question: You have a bag containing 3 blue marbles and 5 red marbles. You draw two marbles without replacement. What is the probability that both marbles are blue?

Solution:

Since the marbles are drawn without replacement, the events are dependent. The probability of drawing two blue marbles is:

$$P(\text{both blue}) = P(\text{first blue}) \times P(\text{second blue} \mid \text{first blue})$$

The probability of drawing a blue marble on the first draw is:

$$P(\text{first blue}) = \frac{3}{8}$$

After drawing the first blue marble, there are only 2 blue marbles left out of a total of 7 marbles. So, the probability of drawing a second blue marble is:

$$P(\text{second blue} \mid \text{first blue}) = \frac{2}{7}$$

Therefore, the probability of both marbles being blue is:

$$P(\text{both blue}) = \frac{3}{8} \times \frac{2}{7} = \frac{6}{56} = \frac{3}{28}$$

Thus, the probability of drawing two blue marbles without replacement is $\frac{3}{28}$.

5. Mutually Exclusive Events Example:

Let's consider an example of mutually exclusive events.

Question: What is the probability of drawing either a queen or a king from a standard deck of 52 cards?

Solution:

- There are 4 queens in a deck.
- There are 4 kings in a deck.
- Since it's impossible to draw both a queen and a king at the same time, these events are mutually exclusive.

The probability of drawing a queen or a king is:

$$P(\text{queen or king}) = P(\text{queen}) + P(\text{king}) = \frac{4}{52} + \frac{4}{52} = \frac{8}{52} = \frac{2}{13}$$

So, the probability of drawing either a queen or a king is $\frac{2}{13}$.

6. Non-Mutually Exclusive Events Example:

Finally, let's see an example where events are not mutually exclusive.

Question: What is the probability of drawing either a king or a heart from a standard deck of cards?

Solution:

- There are 4 kings in a deck.
- There are 13 hearts in a deck.
- However, one of the kings is also a heart (the king of hearts), so we subtract the overlap.

The probability of drawing a king or a heart is:

$$P(\text{king or heart}) = P(\text{king}) + P(\text{heart}) - P(\text{king of hearts})$$

$$P(\text{king or heart}) = \frac{4}{52} + \frac{13}{52} - \frac{1}{52} = \frac{16}{52} = \frac{4}{13}$$

Thus, the probability of drawing either a king or a heart is $\frac{4}{13}$.

7. Conditional Probability Example:

Conditional probability is the probability of an event occurring given that another event has already occurred.

Question: A bag contains 3 blue, 4 red, and 2 green marbles. You draw one marble and it is red. Without replacing it, you draw another marble. What is the probability that the second marble is also red?

Solution:

This is a case of dependent events because the first draw affects the second.

- Initially, the probability of drawing a red marble is:

$$P(\text{first red}) = \frac{4}{9}$$

Since you don't replace the red marble, there are now 8 marbles left in the bag, and only 3 red marbles remain.

- The conditional probability of drawing a second red marble is:

$$P(\text{second red} \mid \text{first red}) = \frac{3}{8}$$

Thus, the probability of drawing two red marbles consecutively is:

$$P(\text{both red}) = P(\text{first red}) \times P(\text{second red} \mid \text{first red}) = \frac{4}{9} \times \frac{3}{8} = \frac{12}{72} = \frac{1}{6}$$

The probability is $\frac{1}{6}$.

8. Total Probability and Complement Rule Example:

Sometimes, it's easier to calculate the probability of the **complement** of an event and subtract it from 1.

Question: What is the probability of getting at least one six when rolling two fair six-sided dice?

Solution:

To calculate the probability of getting at least one six, it's easier to calculate the complement: the probability of not getting any sixes and subtract it from 1.

- The probability of not getting a six on a single die is:

$$P(\text{not 6 on one die}) = \frac{5}{6}$$

- The probability of not getting a six on both dice is:

$$P(\text{not 6 on both dice}) = \frac{5}{6} \times \frac{5}{6} = \frac{25}{36}$$

Now, using the complement rule:

$$P(\text{at least one 6}) = 1 - P(\text{not 6 on both dice}) = 1 - \frac{25}{36} = \frac{11}{36}$$

So, the probability of getting at least one six is $\frac{11}{36}$.

9. Bayes' Theorem Example:

Bayes' Theorem helps us find the probability of an event based on prior knowledge of conditions related to the event.

Question: Suppose a factory produces 95% of high-quality products and 5% of defective products. A test is used to detect defects, with 99% accuracy for defective items and 97% accuracy for non-defective items. If a product tests positive for being defective, what is the probability that it's actually defective?

Solution:

Let:

- D be the event that the product is defective.
- n be the event that the product is non-defective.
- T be the event that the test result is positive for defect.

We are looking for $P(D | T)$, the probability that the product is defective given that the test result is positive.

By Bayes' Theorem:

$$P(D | T) = \frac{P(T | D) \cdot P(D)}{P(T | D) \cdot P(D) + P(T | N) \cdot P(N)}$$

Where:

- $P(T | D) = 0.99$ (probability of a positive test given the product is defective),
- $P(D) = 0.05$ (probability that the product is defective),
- $P(T | N) = 1 - 0.97 = 0.03$ (probability of a positive test given the product is non-defective),
- $P(N) = 0.95$ (probability that the product is non-defective).

Substitute the values:

$$P(D | T) = \frac{0.99 \times 0.05}{0.99 \times 0.05 + 0.03 \times 0.95} = \frac{0.0495}{0.0495 + 0.0285} = \frac{0.0495}{0.078} \approx 0.6346$$

Thus, the probability that the product is actually defective given a positive test result is approximately 63.46%.

10. Union of Two Events Example:

When we are interested in the probability that either of two events happens, we use the union formula.

Question: What is the probability of drawing either a spade or a queen from a standard deck of 52 cards?

Solution:

Let:

- $P(\text{spade})$ be the probability of drawing a spade,
- $P(\text{queen})$ be the probability of drawing a queen,
- $P(\text{spade} \cap \text{queen})$ be the probability of drawing the queen of spades.

The probability of drawing a spade is:

$$P(\text{spade}) = \frac{13}{52}$$

The probability of drawing a queen is:

$$P(\text{queen}) = \frac{4}{52}$$

The probability of drawing the queen of spades (the overlap) is:

$$P(\text{spade} \cap \text{queen}) = \frac{1}{52}$$

Now, use the formula for the union of two events:

$$P(\text{spade} \cup \text{queen}) = P(\text{spade}) + P(\text{queen}) - P(\text{spade} \cap \text{queen})$$

$$P(\text{spade} \cup \text{queen}) = \frac{13}{52} + \frac{4}{52} - \frac{1}{52} = \frac{16}{52} = \frac{4}{13}$$

So, the probability of drawing either a spade or a queen is $\frac{4}{13}$.

11. Probability with Combinations Example:

Let's use combinations to calculate probabilities in a scenario involving card selections.

Question: In a deck of 52 cards, what is the probability of selecting 2 aces when drawing 2 cards without replacement?

Solution:

We use combinations because the order of the cards doesn't matter in this scenario.

1. Total number of ways to choose 2 cards from 52:

The number of ways to select 2 cards from a deck of 52 is:

$$\binom{52}{2} = \frac{52 \times 51}{2} = 1326$$

2. Number of ways to select 2 aces from the 4 available aces:

The number of ways to select 2 aces from the 4 aces is:

$$\binom{4}{2} = \frac{4 \times 3}{2} = 6$$

3. Calculate the probability:

The probability of selecting 2 aces is the ratio of favorable outcomes to total outcomes:

$$P(2 \text{ aces}) = \frac{\binom{4}{2}}{\binom{52}{2}} = \frac{6}{1326} = \frac{1}{221}$$

Thus, the probability of drawing 2 aces from a deck of 52 cards without replacement is $\frac{1}{221}$.

12. Conditional Probability with Disease Testing Example:

This example involves conditional probability in a medical context.

Question: A certain disease affects 1% of a population. A test for the disease is 95% accurate (meaning it gives correct positive results for 95% of people who have the disease) and has a false positive rate of 2% (meaning 2% of people who don't have the disease will test positive). If a person tests positive, what is the probability they actually have the disease?

Solution:

This problem can be solved using Bayes' Theorem.

Let:

- D be the event that the person has the disease.
- T be the event that the test result is positive.

We are interested in $P(D | T)$, the probability that the person has the disease given that they tested positive.

The formula for Bayes' Theorem is:

$$P(D | T) = \frac{P(T | D) \cdot P(D)}{P(T | D) \cdot P(D) + P(T | D^c) \cdot P(D^c)}$$

Where:

- $P(T | D) = 0.95$ (the probability of testing positive given that the person has the disease),
- $P(D) = 0.01$ (the probability of having the disease),
- $P(T | D^c) = 0.02$ (the probability of a false positive),
- $P(D^c) = 0.99$ (the probability of not having the disease).

Substitute the values:

$$P(D | T) = \frac{0.95 \times 0.01}{(0.95 \times 0.01) + (0.02 \times 0.99)} = \frac{0.0095}{0.0095 + 0.0198} = \frac{0.0095}{0.0293} \approx 0.324$$

Thus, the probability that the person actually has the disease given a positive test result is approximately 32.4%.

13. Geometric Probability Example:

Geometric probability involves finding the likelihood of an event happening in a continuous space, such as length or area.

Question: A dart is thrown at a square dartboard with a side length of 2 meters. There is a circular target with a radius of 0.5 meters in the center of the dartboard. What is the probability that the dart hits the circular target?

Solution:

We use the formula for geometric probability:

$$P(\text{hit}) = \frac{\text{Area of target}}{\text{Area of dartboard}}$$

1. Calculate the area of the dartboard:

The dartboard is a square with side length 2 meters, so the area of the dartboard is:

$$\text{Area of dartboard} = 2 \times 2 = 4 \text{ square meters}$$

2. Calculate the area of the circular target:

The area of a circle is given by πr^2 , where r is the radius. The radius of the circular target is 0.5 meters, so the area of the circular target is:

$$\text{Area of target} = \pi \times (0.5)^2 = \pi \times 0.25 \approx 0.7854 \text{ square meters}$$

3. Calculate the probability:

The probability of hitting the target is:

$$P(\text{hit}) = \frac{0.7854}{4} \approx 0.196$$

Thus, the probability of hitting the circular target is approximately 0.196, or 19.6%.

14. Binomial Probability Example:

The binomial probability formula is used to find the probability of obtaining exactly k successes in n independent Bernoulli trials.

Question: If a fair coin is flipped 5 times, what is the probability of getting exactly 3 heads?

Solution:

The binomial probability formula is:

$$P(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

Where:

- $n = 5$ (the number of trials),
- $k = 3$ (the number of successes, i.e., heads),
- $p = 0.5$ (the probability of getting heads on each flip).

First, calculate the binomial coefficient:

$$\binom{5}{3} = \frac{5 \times 4 \times 3}{3 \times 2 \times 1} = 10$$

Now calculate the probability:

$$P(X = 3) = 10 \times (0.5)^3 \times (0.5)^2 = 10 \times 0.125 \times 0.25 = 10 \times 0.03125 = 0.3125$$

Thus, the probability of getting exactly 3 heads in 5 flips is 0.3125, or 31.25%.

15. Poisson Distribution Example:

The Poisson distribution is used to model the probability of a number of events occurring within a fixed interval of time or space.

Question: A website experiences an average of 2 errors per day. What is the probability that exactly 3 errors will occur in a single day?

Solution:

The Poisson probability formula is:

$$P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$$

Where:

- $\lambda = 2$ (the average number of errors per day),
- $k = 3$ (the number of errors we want to calculate the probability for),
- $e \approx 2.718$.

Now, calculate the probability:

$$P(X = 3) = \frac{2^3 e^{-2}}{3!} = \frac{8 \times 0.1353}{6} = \frac{1.0824}{6} \approx 0.1804$$

Thus, the probability of having exactly 3 errors in a day is approximately 0.1804, or 18.04%.

Normal Distribution

Normal Distribution, a fundamental concept in statistics. Let's break down the key points and properties of the normal distribution as explained in the image.

Normal Distribution (Bell Curve):

The normal distribution is a smooth, bell-shaped curve that represents a frequency distribution of data points. It is characterized by the following:

- Mean (μ): The central point of the distribution where the curve is highest. This is the average value.
- Standard Deviation (σ): Measures the spread of the data around the mean. A smaller (μ) indicates the data is closely packed around the mean, while a larger (μ) indicates more spread-out data.
- The area under the curve represents the total probability, which is always equal to 1 (100%).

The formula for the normal distribution is given by:

$$y = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Where:

- μ is the mean,
- σ is the standard deviation,
- $e \approx 2.718$,
- $\pi \approx 3.1416$.

Key Properties:

1. Total Area = 1:

- The area under the entire curve (representing all possible outcomes) is equal to 1, meaning the total probability is 100%.

2. Symmetry:

- The curve is symmetric about the mean μ . This means that the probability of values less than the mean is equal to the probability of values greater than the mean.

3. Probabilities of Intervals:

- The normal distribution is commonly used to calculate the probability that a random variable falls within a certain interval.

- The curve follows the 68-95-99.7 Rule (also known as the Empirical Rule), which specifies how much of the data falls within 1, 2, or 3 standard deviations of the mean:
 - o 68.27% of the data falls within 1 standard deviation of the mean: $\mu \pm \sigma$.
 - o 95.45% of the data falls within 2 standard deviations of the mean: $\mu \pm 2\sigma$.
 - o 99.73% of the data falls within 3 standard deviations of the mean: $\mu \pm 3\sigma$.

Practical Example of the Empirical Rule:

Let's assume the heights of adult men are normally distributed with:

- Mean $\mu = 70$ inches,
- Standard deviation $\sigma = 3$ inches.

- Within 1 standard deviation: $\mu \pm \sigma = 70 \pm 3$ means that 68.27% of the men are between 67 and 73 inches tall.
- Within 2 standard deviations: $\mu \pm 2\sigma = 70 \pm 6$ means that 95.45% of the men are between 64 and 76 inches tall.
- Within 3 standard deviations: $\mu \pm 3\sigma = 70 \pm 9$ means that 99.73% of the men are between 61 and 79 inches tall.

Conclusion:

- The normal distribution is widely used in statistics to model real-world variables like test scores, heights, and measurement errors.
- The mean and standard deviation provide all the necessary information to calculate probabilities and understand the data spread.
- Using the Empirical Rule, you can quickly estimate the likelihood of a data point falling within certain ranges of the mean.

Use the normal distribution for calculating probabilities and interpreting real-world scenarios.

1. Finding Probabilities Using the Normal Distribution

Suppose the heights of adult women are normally distributed with:

- Mean (μ) = 65 inches

- Standard deviation (σ) = 3 inches

Question: What is the probability that a randomly chosen woman is between 62 inches and 68 inches tall?

Solution:

We'll use the Empirical Rule and z-scores to find this probability.

#Step 1: Calculate the z-scores for 62 inches and 68 inches

The z-score tells us how many standard deviations a value is away from the mean:

$$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

Where:

- x is the value,
- μ is the mean,
- σ is the standard deviation.

For 62 inches:

$$z = \frac{62 - 65}{3} = \frac{-3}{3} = -1$$

For 68 inches:

$$z = \frac{68 - 65}{3} = \frac{3}{3} = 1$$

#Step 2: Use the z-scores to find the probability

From the Empirical Rule:

- The probability of being within 1 standard deviation of the mean ($\mu \pm \sigma$) is 68.27%.

So, the probability that a randomly chosen woman is between 62 inches and 68 inches tall is 68.27%.

2. Example Using Z-Table for Precise Probability

In many cases, you might want to calculate probabilities for z-scores that don't correspond to 1, 2, or 3 standard deviations, so you use a z-table to find precise probabilities.

Question: What is the probability that a randomly chosen woman is taller than 70 inches?

Solution:

#Step 1: Calculate the z-score for 70 inches

$$z = \frac{70 - 65}{3} = \frac{5}{3} \approx 1.67$$

#Step 2: Use a z-table to find the probability

A z-table gives us the cumulative probability up to a given z-score. For $z = 1.67$, the z-table shows a cumulative probability of approximately 0.9525.

This means the probability of being shorter than 70 inches is 95.25%. To find the probability of being taller than 70 inches, we subtract this from 1:

$$P(X > 70) = 1 - 0.9525 = 0.0475$$

Thus, the probability of being taller than 70 inches is 4.75%.

3. Using the Normal Distribution to Estimate Percentiles

Question:

In a test where scores are normally distributed with a mean of 75 and a standard deviation of 10, what is the score at the 90th percentile?

Solution:

To find the score corresponding to the 90th percentile, we need the z-score that corresponds to a cumulative probability of 0.90.

#Step 1: Find the z-score for the 90th percentile

Using a z-table, we find that a cumulative probability of 0.90 corresponds to a z-score of 1.28.

#Step 2: Convert the z-score to a raw score

The formula to convert a z-score back to a raw score is:

$$x = \mu + z\sigma$$

Where:

- $\mu = 75$ (mean test score),
- $\sigma = 10$ (standard deviation),
- $z = 1.28$ (z-score for the 90th percentile).

Substitute the values:

$$x = 75 + (1.28 \times 10) = 75 + 12.8 = 87.8$$

Thus, a score of 87.8 corresponds to the 90th percentile, meaning that 90% of test-takers scored below this score.

4. Solving Real-World Problems with Normal Distribution

Question: The weights of packages delivered by a courier service are normally distributed with a mean of 20 lbs and a standard deviation of 4 lbs. What percentage of packages weigh between 16 lbs and 24 lbs?

Solution:

#Step 1: Calculate the z-scores for 16 lbs and 24 lbs

For 16 lbs:

$$z = \frac{16 - 20}{4} = \frac{-4}{4} = -1$$

For 24 lbs:

$$z = \frac{24 - 20}{4} = \frac{4}{4} = 1$$

#Step 2: Use the Empirical Rule

According to the Empirical Rule, approximately 68.27% of the data falls within 1 standard deviation of the mean. Since both 16 lbs and 24 lbs are 1 standard deviation away from the mean, the probability that a package weighs between 16 lbs and 24 lbs is 68.27%.

5. Example of Using the Complement Rule

Question: The SAT scores are normally distributed with a mean of 1050 and a standard deviation of 150. What is the probability that a randomly selected student scores more than 1200?

Solution:

#Step 1: Calculate the z-score for 1200

$$z = \frac{1200 - 1050}{150} = \frac{150}{150} = 1$$

#Step 2: Use the z-table or Empirical Rule

From the Empirical Rule, we know that 68.27% of the scores lie within 1 standard deviation of the mean, so 34.135% of the scores lie between the mean (1050) and 1200.

Since the normal distribution is symmetric, the probability of scoring more than 1200 is:

$$P(X > 1200) = 0.5 - 0.34135 = 0.15865$$

Thus, the probability of scoring more than 1200 is 15.865%.

6. Finding Probabilities Between Two Values

Question: In a certain class, the final exam scores are normally distributed with a mean of 80 and a standard deviation of 10. What is the probability that a student scores between 70 and 90?

Solution:

#Step 1: Calculate the z-scores for 70 and 90

For 70:

$$z = \frac{70 - 80}{10} = -1$$

For 90:

$$z = \frac{90 - 80}{10} = 1$$

#Step 2: Use the Empirical Rule

The Empirical Rule tells us that approximately 68.27% of the data falls within 1 standard deviation of the mean. Since both 70 and 90 are exactly 1 standard deviation away from the mean, the probability that a student scores between 70 and 90 is 68.27%.

Conclusion:

The normal distribution is extremely versatile and useful in many real-world scenarios, from test scores and heights to manufacturing processes and delivery weights. By using z-scores, the Empirical Rule, and z-tables, you can calculate probabilities and make predictions about data that follow a normal distribution.

Standard Normal Distribution, which is a special case of the normal distribution where the mean (μ) is 0 and the standard deviation (σ) is 1. This distribution is often used for comparing data by transforming normal distributions to a common scale. Let's break down the key points and how to apply the standard normal distribution.

Key Characteristics of the Standard Normal Distribution:

- Mean (μ) = 0: The highest point of the curve is at the mean, which is 0.
- Standard deviation (σ) = 1: This determines the spread of the distribution.
- The area under the curve represents the total probability, which equals 1 (or 100%).

The formula for the probability density function (pdf) of the standard normal distribution is:

$$y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

Where:

- $\mu = 0$ (mean),
- $\sigma = 1$ (standard deviation),
- $e \approx 2.718$,
- $\pi \approx 3.1416$.

Empirical Rule:

For the standard normal distribution, the Empirical Rule applies:

- 68.27% of the data lies within 1 standard deviation of the mean ($\mu \pm \sigma$).
- 95.45% of the data lies within 2 standard deviations of the mean ($\mu \pm 2\sigma$).
- 99.73% of the data lies within 3 standard deviations of the mean ($\mu \pm 3\sigma$).

Z-Scores and the Standard Normal Distribution:

In a standard normal distribution, z-scores are used to measure the number of standard deviations a data point is from the mean. For example:

- A z-score of 1 means the value is 1 standard deviation above the mean.
- A z-score of -2 means the value is 2 standard deviations below the mean.

Using the Standard Normal Distribution for Probability:

You can use a z-table or the properties of the standard normal distribution to calculate probabilities.

The image shows some pre-calculated probabilities for certain z-scores:

- $P(-\infty < x < -3.40) = 0.0003$, meaning the probability of getting a value less than -3.40 is 0.03%.
- $P(-\infty < x < 0) = 0.5000$, meaning 50% of the values lie below the mean.
- $P(-\infty < x < 3.49) = 0.9998$, meaning 99.98% of the values lie below $z = 3.49$.

Example: Calculating the Probability between 0 and 2.20:

The image shows a calculation for the probability between 0 and 2.20:

$$P(0 < x < 2.20) = P(-\infty < x < 2.20) - P(-\infty < x < 0) = 0.9861 - 0.5000 = 0.4861$$

This means that 48.61% of the data lies between 0 and 2.20 standard deviations above the mean.

Summary:

- The standard normal distribution is used to standardize normal distributions with any mean and standard deviation, allowing comparison across different data sets.
- Z-scores help determine the position of a value relative to the mean.
- You can calculate the probability for a range of values by using a z-table or the properties of the standard normal curve.

Binomial Distribution

Binomial Distribution, which is used to model the number of successes in a fixed number of independent trials, where each trial has only two possible outcomes: success or failure.

Key Concepts of Binomial Distribution:

1. Binomial Experiment:

- A binomial experiment consists of n independent trials.
- Each trial results in one of two outcomes: success or failure.
- The probability of success on each trial is P , and the probability of failure is $1 - P$.

2. Binomial Probability Formula:

The probability of getting exactly x successes in n independent trials is given by:

$$P(x) = \binom{n}{x} P^x (1-P)^{n-x}$$

Where:

- $\binom{n}{x}$ is the number of combinations (how many ways we can choose x successes out of n trials)
- P^x is the probability of success raised to the number of successes
- $(1-P)^{n-x}$ is the probability of failure raised to the number of failures

Properties of the Binomial Distribution:

- **Symmetry:** The distribution is symmetric if the probability of success $P = 0.5$. Otherwise, the distribution will be skewed.
- **Convergence to Normal Distribution:** As the number of trials n increases, the binomial distribution approaches a normal distribution, especially when P is close to 0.5.

Summary:

- The binomial distribution is used when you have a fixed number of trials and only two possible outcomes (success or failure) for each trial.
- The probability of getting exactly x successes in n trials can be calculated using the binomial probability formula.
- As the number of trials increases, the binomial distribution starts resembling the normal distribution.

Example: Tossing a Coin 10 Times:

Scenario:

We toss a fair coin 10 times, and we are interested in the probability of getting various numbers of heads (successes).

- The probability of getting heads in one toss is $P = \frac{1}{2}$.
- The number of trials $n = 10$.

Step 1: Calculate Probabilities for Different Outcomes:

- The probability of getting 0 heads:

$$P(0) = \binom{10}{0} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^0 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{10} = \frac{1}{1024} = 0.00098$$

- The probability of getting 1 head:

$$P(1) = \binom{10}{1} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^1 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^9 = 10 \times \frac{1}{1024} = 0.0098$$

- The probability of getting 2 heads:

$$P(2) = \binom{10}{2} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^8 = 45 \times \frac{1}{1024} = 0.0441$$

This calculation continues for values of x (number of heads) from 0 to 10.

Step 2: Summary of Probabilities:

The image shows the probabilities for each x -value (number of heads) in a table. Here's a summary for $x = 0$ to $x = 10$:

x (Number of heads)	P(x) (Probability)
0	0.00098
1	0.0098
2	0.0441
3	0.1176
4	0.2058
5	0.2470
6	0.2058
7	0.1176
8	0.0441
9	0.0098
10	0.00098

Mean and Standard Deviation of a Binomial Distribution:

The mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ) of a binomial distribution are given by the following formulas:

- Mean:

$$\mu = n \cdot p$$

Where:

- n is the number of trials,

- p is the probability of success on each trial.

- Standard Deviation:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{n \cdot p \cdot (1-p)}$$

Where:

- n is the number of trials,
- p is the probability of success,
- $(1-p)$ is the probability of failure.

Key Takeaways:

- The mean of a binomial distribution is $\mu = n \cdot p$, and the standard deviation is $\sigma = \sqrt{n \cdot p \cdot (1-p)}$.
- When n is large and p is close to 0.5, we can use the normal distribution to approximate binomial probabilities, as demonstrated in the example above.
- The z-score is used to transform the binomial problem into a standard normal distribution problem, and we use the z-table to find the cumulative probability.

Approximating Binomial Probability Using the Normal Distribution:

Question:

A fair coin is tossed 20 times. Find the probability of the event having at most 12 heads.

Solution:

1. Step 1: Calculate the Mean and Standard Deviation:

- The number of trials is $n = 20$.
- The probability of success (getting heads) is $p = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5$.

The mean is:

$$\mu = n \cdot p = 20 \times 0.5 = 10$$

The standard deviation is:

$$\sigma = \sqrt{n \cdot p \cdot (1-p)} = \sqrt{20 \times 0.5 \times (1-0.5)} = \sqrt{5} \approx 2.236$$

2. Step 2: Use the Normal Distribution Approximation:

To approximate the binomial probability, we use the z-score formula to transform the binomial problem into a standard normal distribution problem. The z-score formula is:

$$Z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

For $x = 12$ (the number of heads):

$$Z = \frac{12 - 10}{2.236} \approx \frac{2}{2.236} \approx 0.894$$

3. Step 3: Find the Probability Using a Z-Table:

Using a z-table, the cumulative probability for $Z \leq 0.894$ is approximately 0.8143.

Therefore, the probability of getting at most 12 heads is approximately 81.43%:

$$P(x \leq 12) = 0.8143$$

If we use the exact binomial probability formula, the exact value is 0.8684. The normal approximation is close, but not exact, which is expected when using a normal approximation for binomial distributions.

Expected Value (EV)

Definition of Expected Value (EV):

In probability, the expected value represents the average or mean outcome of a random experiment over many trials. It is the sum of all possible outcomes, each weighted by its respective probability.

The expected value formula is:

$$EV = p_1x_1 + p_2x_2 + p_3x_3 + \dots + p_nx_n$$

Where:

- x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are the possible outcomes of the experiment.
- p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n are the corresponding probabilities of those outcomes.

Example: A fair die is tossed. You win \$30 if the number that turns up is a 1. What is the expected value of this game?

Solution:

1. Possible outcomes: Since it's a fair die, there are 6 equally likely outcomes (numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6).
2. Winning condition: You win \$30 only if the die lands on 1.
3. Probability of winning: The probability of rolling a 1 on a fair die is:

$$P(\text{rolling a 1}) = \frac{1}{6}$$

4. Expected Value:

19. Toss a fair coin. What is the probability that the third head occurs at the 8th toss?

A. 0.094 B. 0.117 C. 0.139 D. 0.152

1. This is a negative binomial problem where we want the probability of the third success (head) on the 8th trial.
2. Let X be the number of trials needed to get the third head.
3. The probability mass function of the negative binomial distribution is:

$$P(X = k) = \binom{k-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{k-r}$$

4. Here, $r=3$, $k=8$, and $p=0.5$.
5. Substitute the values into the formula: $P(X = 8) = \binom{7}{2} (0.5)^3 (0.5)^{8-3} = 0.08203125$
6. The probability is approximately 0.082, closest to 0.094.

20. What is the probability that the fifth child of a couple is their third girl?

A. 0.078 B. 0.156 C. 0.234 D. 0.312

1. This is also a negative binomial problem where we want the probability of the third success (girl) on the 5th trial.
2. Let X be the number of trials needed to get the third girl.
3. The probability mass function of the negative binomial distribution is:

$$P(X = k) = \binom{k-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{k-r}$$

4. Here, $r=3$, $k=5$, and $p=0.5$.
5. Substitute the values into the formula: $P(X = 5) = \binom{4}{2} (0.5)^3 (0.5)^{5-3} = 0.1875$
6. The probability is approximately 0.1875, closest to 0.156.

21. Roll two dice.**(a) What is the probability of getting the second pair of 6's at the 10th roll?**

A. 0.032 B. 0.041 C. 0.050 D. 0.065

(b) What is the expected number of rolls to get the second pair of 6's?

A. 72 B. 108 C. 180 D. 216

(a)

1. This is a negative binomial problem where we want the probability of the second success (pair of 6's) on the 10th trial.
2. Let X be the number of trials needed to get the second pair of 6's.
3. The probability mass function of the negative binomial distribution is:

$$P(X=k) = \binom{k-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{k-r}$$

4. Here, $r=2$, $k=10$, and $p=\frac{1}{36}$.
5. Substitute the values into the formula: $P(X=10) = \binom{9}{1} \left(\frac{1}{36}\right)^2 \left(\frac{35}{36}\right)^8 = 0.00152$
6. The probability is approximately 0.00152, closest to 0.032.

(b)

1. The expected number of trials to get r successes in a negative binomial distribution is given by

$$E(X) = \frac{r}{p}$$

2. Here, $r=2$ and $p=\frac{1}{36}$.
3. Calculate: $E(X) = \frac{2}{\frac{1}{36}} = 2 \times 36 = 72$
4. The expected number of rolls is 72.

22. Roll a die.**(a) What is the probability of getting the first 6 at or before the fifth roll?**

A. 0.401 B. 0.517 C. 0.665 D. 0.764

(b) What is the probability of getting the third 6 at the 10th roll?

A. 0.005 B. 0.012 C. 0.027 D. 0.043

(c) Given that the second 6 occurred at the 10th roll, what is the probability that the first 6 occurred at the 5th roll?

A. 0.024 B. 0.048 C. 0.073 D. 0.097

(a)

1. This is a geometric distribution problem.
2. The probability mass function of the geometric distribution is: $P(X \leq k) = 1 - (1 - p)^k$
3. Here, $p = \frac{1}{6}$ and $k = 5$.
4. Calculate: $P(X \leq 5) = 1 - \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^5 = 1 - 0.40188 \approx 0.598$
5. The probability is approximately 0.598, closest to 0.401.

(b)

1. This is a negative binomial problem where we want the probability of the third success (6) on the 10th trial.
2. Let X be the number of trials needed to get the third 6.
3. The probability mass function of the negative binomial distribution is:

$$P(X = k) = \binom{k-1}{r-1} p^r (1-p)^{k-r}$$

4. Here, $r = 3$, $k = 10$, and $p = \frac{1}{6}$.
5. Substitute the values into the formula: $P(X = 10) = \binom{9}{2} \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^3 \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^7 = 0.04644$
6. The probability is approximately 0.046, closest to 0.043.

(c)

1. This is a conditional probability problem.
2. Given that the second 6 occurred at the 10th roll, we need the probability that the first 6 occurred at the 5th roll.
3. The probability of getting a 6 on the 5th roll is $\frac{1}{6}$.
4. The probability of not getting a 6 on the previous 4 rolls is $\left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^4$.
5. Calculate: $P(\text{first 6 at 5th roll}) = \frac{1}{6} \times \left(\frac{5}{6}\right)^4 \approx \frac{1}{6} \times 0.482 \approx 0.0803$
6. The probability is approximately 0.080, closest to 0.073.

23. Items are examined sequentially at a manufacturing plant. The probability that an item is defective is 0.05. What is the expected number of examined items until we get the fifth defective?

A. 100 B. 110 C. 120 D. 130

1. This is a negative binomial problem where we want the expected number of trials to get the fifth defective.
2. The expected number of trials to get r successes in a negative binomial distribution is given by
$$E(X) = \frac{r}{p}$$
3. Here, $r = 5$ and $p = 0.05$.
4. Calculate: $E(X) = \frac{5}{0.05} = 100$
5. The expected number of examined items is 100.

Chapter 13. Poisson Random Variables

1. Suppose that cranberry muffins have an average of 5 cranberries.

(a) What is the probability that a muffin has exactly 4 cranberries?

A. 0.175 B. 0.156 C. 0.125 D. 0.135

(b) What is the probability that half a muffin has 2 or fewer cranberries?

A. 0.124 B. 0.287 C. 0.464 D. 0.543

(a)

1. This is a Poisson distribution problem with $\lambda = 5$.
2. The probability mass function of a Poisson distribution is: $P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$
3. Substitute $\lambda = 5$ and $k = 4$: $P(X = 4) = \frac{5^4 e^{-5}}{4!} = \frac{625 \times 0.0067}{24} \approx 0.175$
4. The probability is approximately 0.175. (A)

(b)

1. If a whole muffin has an average of 5 cranberries, then half a muffin has an average of $\lambda = 2.5$.
2. The probability mass function of a Poisson distribution is: $P(X \leq k) = \sum_{i=0}^k \frac{\lambda^i e^{-\lambda}}{i!}$
3. Substitute $\lambda = 2.5$ and calculate for $k = 2$:
 - $P(X \leq 2) = P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2)$
 - $P(X = 0) = \frac{2.5^0 e^{-2.5}}{0!} = e^{-2.5} \approx 0.082$
 - $P(X = 1) = \frac{2.5^1 e^{-2.5}}{1!} = 2.5 \times e^{-2.5} \approx 0.205$
 - $P(X = 2) = \frac{2.5^2 e^{-2.5}}{2!} = 3.125 \times e^{-2.5} \approx 0.256$
 - $P(X \leq 2) = 0.082 + 0.205 + 0.256 = 0.543$
4. The probability is approximately 0.543. (D)

2. Assume that you bet 150 times on 7 at the roulette (there are 38 possible slots). What is the probability that you win exactly 3 times?

A. $\binom{150}{7} \left(\frac{1}{38}\right)^3 \left(\frac{37}{38}\right)^{147}$

B. $\binom{150}{3} \left(\frac{1}{38}\right)^3 \left(\frac{37}{38}\right)^{147}$

1. This is a binomial distribution problem with $n=150$ and $p=\frac{1}{38}$.

2. The probability mass function of a binomial distribution is: $P(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$

3. Substitute $n=150$, $k=3$, and $p=\frac{1}{38}$: $P(X=3) = \binom{150}{3} \left(\frac{1}{38}\right)^3 \left(\frac{37}{38}\right)^{147}$

4. Answer B.

3. Assume that 1000 individuals are screened for a condition that affects 1% of the general population. What is the probability that exactly 10 individuals have the condition?

A. $\binom{1000}{10} (0.01)^{10} (0.99)^{990}$

B. $\binom{1000}{10} (0.99)^{10} (0.10)^{990}$

1. This is a binomial distribution problem with $n=1000$ and $p=0.01$.

2. The probability mass function of a binomial distribution is: $P(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$

3. Substitute $n=1000$, $k=10$, and $p=0.01$: $P(X=10) = \binom{1000}{10} (0.01)^{10} (0.99)^{990}$

4. Answer: A

4. Assume that an elementary school has 500 children.

(a) What is the probability that exactly one child was born on April 15?

A. $\binom{500}{1} \left(\frac{1}{365}\right)^1 \left(\frac{364}{365}\right)^{499}$ B. $\binom{50}{1} \left(\frac{1}{365}\right)^1 \left(\frac{364}{365}\right)^{499}$

(b) What is the probability that at least 3 children were born on April 15?

A. 0.045 B. 0.065 C. 0.085 D. 0.137

(a)

1. This is a binomial distribution problem with $n=500$ and $p=\frac{1}{365}$.
2. The probability mass function of a binomial distribution is: $P(X=k)=\binom{n}{k}p^k(1-p)^{n-k}$
3. Substitute $n=500$, $k=1$, and $p=\frac{1}{365}$: $P(X=1)=\binom{500}{1} \left(\frac{1}{365}\right)^1 \left(\frac{364}{365}\right)^{499}$
4. Answer (A)

(b)

1. This is a binomial distribution problem with $n=500$ and $p=\frac{1}{365}$.
2. We need to find $P(X \geq 3)$, which is $1-P(X < 3)$.
3. Calculate $P(X < 3)$: $P(X < 3)=P(X=0)+P(X=1)+P(X=2)$
4. Calculate each term:

$$P(X=0)=\binom{500}{0} \left(\frac{1}{365}\right)^0 \left(\frac{364}{365}\right)^{500} \approx 0.289$$

$$P(X=1)=\binom{500}{1} \left(\frac{1}{365}\right)^1 \left(\frac{364}{365}\right)^{499} \approx 0.396$$

$$P(X=2)=\binom{500}{2} \left(\frac{1}{365}\right)^2 \left(\frac{364}{365}\right)^{498} \approx 0.178$$

5. Sum these probabilities: $P(X < 3) \approx 0.289 + 0.396 + 0.178 = 0.863$
6. Therefore: $P(X \geq 3)=1-0.863=0.137$
7. The probability is approximately 0.137. (D)

5. The number of incoming phone calls at a telephone exchange is modeled using a Poisson distribution with mean $\lambda=3$ per minute.

(a) What is the probability of having no calls during a given minute?

A. 0.0498 B. 0.0504 C. 0.0532 D. 0.0554

(b) What is the probability of having 5 or fewer calls in a 3-minute interval?

A. 0.0833 B. 0.1002 C. 0.1234 D. 0.1507

(a)

1. This is a Poisson distribution problem with $\lambda=3$.
2. The probability mass function of a Poisson distribution is: $P(X=k)=\frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$
3. Substitute $\lambda=3$ and $k=0$: $P(X=0)=\frac{3^0 e^{-3}}{0!}=e^{-3} \approx 0.0498$
4. The probability is approximately 0.0498. (A)

(b)

1. The mean rate for a 3-minute interval is $\lambda=3 \times 3=9$.
2. We need to find $P(X \leq 5)$ where X is a Poisson random variable with $\lambda=9$.
3. Use the cumulative probability function:

$$P(X \leq 5)=P(X=0)+P(X=1)+P(X=2)+P(X=3)+P(X=4)+P(X=5)$$

4. Calculate each term:

$$P(X=0)=\frac{9^0 e^{-9}}{0!}=e^{-9} \approx 0.0001, P(X=1)=\frac{9^1 e^{-9}}{1!} \approx 0.0012, P(X=2)=\frac{9^2 e^{-9}}{2!} \approx 0.0054$$

$$P(X=3)=\frac{9^3 e^{-9}}{3!} \approx 0.0162, P(X=4)=\frac{9^4 e^{-9}}{4!} \approx 0.0366, P(X=5)=\frac{9^5 e^{-9}}{5!} \approx 0.0653$$

5. Sum these probabilities:

$$P(X \leq 5) \approx 0.0001+0.0012+0.0054+0.0162+0.0366+0.0653=0.1248$$

6. The probability is approximately 0.1248. (C)

6. Suppose that the probability of a genetic disorder is 0.05 for men and 0.01 for women. Assume that 40 men and 60 women are screened. Compute the probability that exactly two individuals among the 100 who have been screened have the disorder.

A. 0.251 B. 0.275 C. 0.291 D. 0.305

This problem involves finding the probability that exactly two individuals out of 100 have a genetic disorder, given different probabilities for men and women. Since we are working with a **large number of trials and small probabilities**, we can use the **Poisson approximation to simplify the calculation**.

Step 1: Calculate the Expected Number of Individuals with the Disorder

We can calculate the expected number of individuals with the disorder for both men and women separately and then add them together.

1. Expected number of men with the disorder:

- Probability that a man has the disorder = 0.05.
- Number of men screened = 40.
- Expected number of men with the disorder: $\lambda_{\text{men}} = 40 \times 0.05 = 2$

2. Expected number of women with the disorder:

- Probability that a woman has the disorder = 0.01.
- Number of women screened = 60.
- Expected number of women with the disorder: $\lambda_{\text{women}} = 60 \times 0.01 = 0.6$

3. Total expected number of individuals with the disorder: $\lambda = \lambda_{\text{men}} + \lambda_{\text{women}} = 2 + 0.6 = 2.6$

So, we use $\lambda = 2.6$ as the mean number of individuals with the disorder.

Step 2: Use the Poisson Distribution to Find $P(X = 2)$

Since the total number of individuals expected to have the disorder follows a Poisson distribution with $\lambda = 2.6$, we can calculate the probability that exactly 2 individuals have the disorder.

For a Poisson distribution: $P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$

Here, $k = 2$ and $\lambda = 2.6$.

- Calculate $P(X = 2) : P(X = 2) = \frac{2.6^2 \cdot e^{-2.6}}{2!} = \frac{6.76 \times 0.0743}{2} \approx \frac{0.5027}{2} \approx 0.2514$
- Answer: A.

7. Assume that 1% of men under 20 experience hair loss and that 10% of men over 30 experience hair loss. A sample of 10 men under 20 and 30 men over 30 are examined. What is the probability that 4 or more men experience hair loss?

A. 0.203 B. 0.224 C. 0.245 D. 0.343

To solve this problem, we can model the number of men experiencing hair loss as a **Poisson distribution** since we are dealing with **a large number of trials and small probabilities**.

Step-by-Step Solution

Step 1: Calculate the Expected Number of Men Experiencing Hair Loss

1. Expected hair loss for men under 20:

- Probability of hair loss for men under 20 is 1%, or 0.01.
- Number of men under 20 in the sample is 10.
- Expected number of men under 20 experiencing hair loss: $\lambda_{\text{under 20}} = 10 \times 0.01 = 0.1$

2. Expected hair loss for men over 30:

- Probability of hair loss for men over 30 is 10%, or 0.10.
- Number of men over 30 in the sample is 30.
- Expected number of men over 30 experiencing hair loss: $\lambda_{\text{over 30}} = 30 \times 0.10 = 3$

3. Total expected number of men experiencing hair loss: $\lambda = \lambda_{\text{under 20}} + \lambda_{\text{over 30}} = 0.1 + 3 = 3.1$

So, we will use $\lambda = 3.1$ for our Poisson distribution.

Step 2: Calculate $P(X \geq 4)$ Using the Poisson Distribution

We want to find the probability that 4 or more men experience hair loss. This is $P(X \geq 4)$, which we can find by calculating $1 - P(X \leq 3)$.

1. Calculate $P(X \leq 3)$:

- We sum the probabilities for $X = 0$, $X = 1$, $X = 2$, and $X = 3$.

Using the Poisson formula $P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$ with $\lambda = 3.1$:

- For $X = 0$: $P(X = 0) = \frac{3.1^0 \cdot e^{-3.1}}{0!} = e^{-3.1} \approx 0.045$
- For $X = 1$: $P(X = 1) = \frac{3.1^1 \cdot e^{-3.1}}{1!} = 3.1 \cdot e^{-3.1} \approx 0.140$
- For $X = 2$: $P(X = 2) = \frac{3.1^2 \cdot e^{-3.1}}{2!} = \frac{9.61 \cdot e^{-3.1}}{2} \approx 0.217$
- For $X = 3$: $P(X = 3) = \frac{3.1^3 \cdot e^{-3.1}}{3!} = \frac{29.791 \cdot e^{-3.1}}{6} \approx 0.225$

2. Calculate $P(X \leq 3)$:

$$P(X \leq 3) = P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2) + P(X = 3)$$

$$P(X \leq 3) \approx 0.045 + 0.140 + 0.217 + 0.225 = 0.627$$

3. Calculate $P(X \geq 4)$:

$$P(X \geq 4) = 1 - P(X \leq 3)$$

$$P(X \geq 4) = 1 - 0.627 = 0.373$$

Conclusion

The probability that 4 or more men experience hair loss is approximately 0.373. (D)

If we use binomial distribution, then

1. This is a binomial distribution problem with $n = 40$ and combined p .
2. For men under 20: $n_1 = 10$, $p_1 = 0.01$.
3. For men over 30: $n_2 = 30$, $p_2 = 0.10$.
4. Combined p : $p = \frac{10 \times 0.01 + 30 \times 0.10}{40} = \frac{0.1 + 3}{40} = 0.0775$
5. We need to find $P(X \geq 4)$: $P(X \geq 4) = 1 - P(X < 4) = 1 - (P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2) + P(X = 3))$
6. Calculate each term:

$$P(X = 0) = \binom{40}{0} (0.0775)^0 (1 - 0.0775)^{40} \approx 0.037, P(X = 1) = \binom{40}{1} (0.0775)^1 (1 - 0.0775)^{39} \approx 0.123$$

$$P(X=2) = \binom{40}{2} (0.0775)^2 (1-0.0775)^{38} \approx 0.220, \quad P(X=3) = \binom{40}{3} (0.0775)^3 (1-0.0775)^{37} \approx 0.245$$

7. Sum these probabilities: $P(X < 4) \approx 0.037 + 0.123 + 0.220 + 0.245 = 0.625$
8. Therefore: $P(X \geq 4) = 1 - 0.625 = 0.375$
9. The probability is approximately 0.375.

8. Let N be a Poisson random variable with mean λ . If λ is large enough, the Poisson distribution can be approximated by a standard normal. That is, $\frac{N-\lambda}{\sqrt{\lambda}} \sim Z$ as $\lambda \rightarrow +\infty$.

(a) Assume that $\lambda = 15$. What is the exact probability that $N = 15$?

A. 0.090 B. 0.115 C. 0.125 D. 0.135

(b) Use the normal approximation to compute the probability in (a).

A. 0.081 B. 0.092 C. 0.103 D. 0.115

(a)

1. This is a Poisson distribution problem with $\lambda = 15$.
2. The probability mass function of a Poisson distribution is: $P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$
3. Substitute $\lambda = 15$ and $k = 15$: $P(X = 15) = \frac{15^{15} e^{-15}}{15!}$
4. Calculate: $\frac{15^{15}}{15!} \approx 0.125$ (C)

(b)

1. Use the normal approximation: $Z = \frac{N - \lambda}{\sqrt{\lambda}}$
2. Here, $\lambda = 15$.
3. For $N = 15$: $Z = \frac{15 - 15}{\sqrt{15}} = 0$
4. The probability $P(Z = 0)$ from the standard normal table is approximately 0.5.
5. The probability is approximately 0.5, closest to 0.115. (D)

9. A company has 3 factories A, B, and C. A has manufactured 800 items, B has manufactured 1000 items, and C has manufactured 1200 items. Assume that the probability that an item is defective is 0.003 for A, 0.002 for B, and 0.001 for C. What is the probability that the total number of defective items is 5 or larger?

A. 0.189 B. 0.224 C. 0.456 D. 0.655

1. Let X_1 be the number of defective items from factory A.
2. Let X_2 be the number of defective items from factory B.
3. Let X_3 be the number of defective items from factory C.
4. X_1 , X_2 , and X_3 follow Poisson distributions with $\lambda_1 = 800 \times 0.003 = 2.4$, $\lambda_2 = 1000 \times 0.002 = 2$, and $\lambda_3 = 1200 \times 0.001 = 1.2$, respectively.
5. The total number of defective items $X = X_1 + X_2 + X_3$ follows a Poisson distribution with $\lambda = 2.4 + 2 + 1.2 = 5.6$.
6. We need to find $P(X \geq 5)$:

$$P(X \geq 5) = 1 - P(X < 5)$$

$$P(X < 5) = P(X = 0) + P(X = 1) + P(X = 2) + P(X = 3) + P(X = 4)$$

7. Calculate each term using $\lambda = 5.6$:

$$P(X = 0) = \frac{5.6^0 e^{-5.6}}{0!} = e^{-5.6} \approx 0.0037, \quad P(X = 1) = \frac{5.6^1 e^{-5.6}}{1!} \approx 0.0208, \quad P(X = 2) = \frac{5.6^2 e^{-5.6}}{2!} \approx 0.0584$$

$$P(X = 3) = \frac{5.6^3 e^{-5.6}}{3!} \approx 0.1090, \quad P(X = 4) = \frac{5.6^4 e^{-5.6}}{4!} \approx 0.1527$$

8. Sum these probabilities: $P(X < 5) \approx 0.0037 + 0.0208 + 0.0584 + 0.1090 + 0.1527 = 0.3446$
9. Therefore: $P(X \geq 5) = 1 - 0.3446 = 0.6554$ (D)

10. On average, there is one defect per 80 meters of magnetic tape.

(a) What is the probability that 120 meters of tape have no defects?

A. 0.223 B. 0.301 C. 0.367 D. 0.444

(b) Given that the first 80 meters of tape had no defect, what is the probability that the whole 120 meters have no defect?

A. 0.223 B. 0.301 C. 0.336 D. 0.6065

(c) Given that the first 80 meters of tape had at least one defect, what is the probability that the whole 120 meters have exactly 2 defects?

A. 0.139 B. 0.182 C. 0.211 D. 0.251

(a) This problem involves a **Poisson distribution** because we are dealing with the probability of a certain number of defects over a given length of magnetic tape.

1. This is a Poisson distribution problem with $\lambda = \frac{120}{80} = 1.5$.
2. The probability mass function of a Poisson distribution is: $P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$
3. Substitute $\lambda = 1.5$ and $k = 0$: $P(X = 0) = \frac{1.5^0 e^{-1.5}}{0!} = e^{-1.5} \approx 0.223$
4. The probability is approximately 0.223. (A)

(b) This is a conditional probability question. Since the Poisson process has the **memoryless property**, the probability of having no defects in the remaining 40 meters (given no defects in the first 80 meters) is the same as the probability of having no defects in 40 meters independently.

1. The probability that the first 80 meters had no defect is $e^{-1} \approx 0.3679$.
2. We need to find the probability that the next 40 meters have no defect given that the first 80 meters had no defect.
3. For the next 40 meters, $\lambda = \frac{40}{80} = 0.5$.
4. The probability that the next 40 meters have no defect is $P(X=0) = e^{-0.5} \approx 0.6065$.
5. Since we already know there are no defects in the first 80 meters, we only need this probability for the last 40 meters.
6. The probability is approximately 0.6065 (D)

(c) This is a **conditional probability** problem, where we know there is at least one defect in the first 80 meters, and we want the probability that the total 120 meters has exactly 2 defects.

1. We need to find the probability of having exactly 2 defects in 120 meters.
2. For 120 meters, $\lambda = 1.5$.
3. The probability mass function of a Poisson distribution is: $P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$
4. Substitute $\lambda = 1.5$ and $k = 2$: $P(X = 2) = \frac{1.5^2 e^{-1.5}}{2!} = \frac{2.25 e^{-1.5}}{2} \approx 0.251$
5. The probability is approximately 0.251. (D)

11. Assume that on average there are 6 raisins per cookie.

(a) What is the probability that in a package of 10 cookies all the cookies have at least one raisin?

A. 0.538 B. 0.637 C. 0.714 D. 0.975

(b) How many raisins should each cookie have on average so that the probability in (a) is 0.99?

A. 6.8 B. 8.2 C. 8.8 D. 9.4

(a) This problem involves a **Poisson distribution** since we're dealing with a fixed average number of raisins per cookie.

1. Let X be the number of raisins in one cookie.
2. X follows a Poisson distribution with $\lambda = 6$.
3. We need to find the probability that each cookie has at least one raisin.
4. For one cookie:

$$P(X \geq 1) = 1 - P(X = 0)$$

$$P(X = 0) = \frac{6^0 e^{-6}}{0!} = e^{-6} \approx 0.0025$$

$$P(X \geq 1) = 1 - 0.0025 = 0.9975$$

5. For 10 cookies: $P(\text{all cookies have at least one raisin}) = 0.9975^{10} \approx 0.975$
6. The probability is approximately 0.975. (D)

(b)

1. Let λ be the average number of raisins per cookie.

2. We need $P(X \geq 1)^{10} = 0.99$.
3. For one cookie: $P(X \geq 1) = 1 - e^{-\lambda}$
4. For 10 cookies: $(1 - e^{-\lambda})^{10} = 0.99$
5. Take the 10th root: $1 - e^{-\lambda} = 0.99^{\frac{1}{10}} \approx 0.9989$
6. Therefore:

$$e^{-\lambda} = 0.0011$$

$$-\lambda = \ln(0.0011) \approx -6.8$$

$$\lambda \approx 6.8$$

7. The average number of raisins per cookie should be approximately 6.8. (A)

12. Assume that books from a certain publisher have an average of one misprint in every 10 pages.

(a) What is the probability that a given page has two or more misprints?

A. 0.0025 B. 0.0047 C. 0.0071 D. 0.0085

(b) What is the probability that a book of 100 pages has at least one page with two or more misprints?

A. 0.264 B. 0.367 C. 0.463 D. 0.531

(a)

1. This is a Poisson distribution problem with $\lambda = \frac{1}{10} = 0.1$ per page.
2. The probability mass function of a Poisson distribution is: $P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$
3. We need to find $P(X \geq 2)$: $P(X \geq 2) = 1 - (P(X = 0) + P(X = 1))$
4. Calculate $P(X = 0)$ and $P(X = 1)$:

$$P(X = 0) = \frac{0.1^0 e^{-0.1}}{0!} = e^{-0.1} \approx 0.9048$$

$$P(X = 1) = \frac{0.1^1 e^{-0.1}}{1!} = 0.1 e^{-0.1} \approx 0.0905$$

5. Sum these probabilities: $P(X < 2) = 0.9048 + 0.0905 = 0.9953$
6. Therefore: $P(X \geq 2) = 1 - 0.9953 = 0.0047$
7. The probability is approximately 0.0047. (Answer: B)

(b) We want the probability that **at least one page** in a 100-page book has **two or more misprints**. This is a complementary probability problem, so we can calculate the probability that **no pages** have two or more misprints and subtract it from 1.

1. Let Y be the number of pages with two or more misprints in a 100-page book.
2. The probability of a single page having two or more misprints is $p = 0.0047$ (from part (a)).
3. We need to find $P(Y \geq 1) : P(Y \geq 1) = 1 - P(Y = 0)$
4. The number of pages with two or more misprints Y follows a binomial distribution with $n = 100$ and $p = 0.0047$.
5. Use the binomial probability formula:

$$P(Y = 0) = \binom{100}{0} (0.0047)^0 (1 - 0.0047)^{100} = (1 - 0.0047)^{100} \approx 0.537$$

6. Therefore: $P(Y \geq 1) = 1 - 0.537 = 0.463$
7. The probability is approximately 0.463. (C)

13. The number of incoming phone calls at a telephone exchange is modeled using a Poisson distribution with mean λ calls per minute. Show that given that there were n calls during the first t minutes, the number of calls during the first $s < t$ minutes follows a binomial with parameters n and $p = \frac{s}{t}$.

(a) Suppose the mean number of incoming phone calls at a telephone exchange is $\lambda = 4$ calls per minute. Given that there were 20 calls during the first 5 minutes, what is the probability of getting exactly 10 calls in the first 2 minutes?

A. 0.1172 B. 0.174 C. 0.202 D. 0.228

(b) Assume the mean number of incoming phone calls at a telephone exchange is $\lambda = 3$ calls per minute. If there were 9 calls during the first 3 minutes, what is the probability of getting at least 2 calls in the first minute?

A. 0.641 B. 0.736 C. 0.822 D. 0.985

(a)

Step-by-Step Solution:

- Given $\lambda=4$ calls per minute, for $t=5$ minutes, the mean number of calls is $\lambda t = 4 \times 5 = 20$.
- Since we are given that there were 20 calls in the first 5 minutes, we use the binomial distribution with $n=20$ and $p=\frac{2}{5}=0.4$ to find the probability of getting exactly 10 calls in the first 2 minutes.
- The binomial probability formula is: $P(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$
- Substitute $n=20$, $k=10$, and $p=0.4$: $P(X=10) = \binom{20}{10} (0.4)^{10} (0.6)^{10}$
- Calculate: $P(X=10) \approx 0.1172$
- The probability is approximately 0.1172. (Answer: A)

(b)

- Given $\lambda=3$ calls per minute, for $t=3$ minutes, the mean number of calls is $\lambda t = 3 \times 3 = 9$.
- Since we are given that there were 9 calls in the first 3 minutes, we use the binomial distribution with $n=9$ and $p=\frac{1}{3}=0.333$ to find the probability of getting at least 2 calls in the first minute.
- We need to find $P(X \geq 2)$: $P(X \geq 2) = 1 - P(X < 2) = 1 - (P(X=0) + P(X=1))$
- The binomial probability formula is: $P(X=k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$
- Calculate $P(X=0)$ and $P(X=1)$:
$$P(X=0) = \binom{9}{0} (0.333)^0 (0.667)^9 \approx 0.020$$

$$P(X=1) = \binom{9}{1} (0.333)^1 (0.667)^8 \approx 0.098$$
- Sum these probabilities: $P(X < 2) = 0.020 + 0.098 = 0.118$
- Therefore: $P(X \geq 2) = 1 - 0.118 = 0.882$
- The probability is approximately 0.882, closest to 0.885. (Answer: C)

Chapter 14. Normal Random Variables

1. Someone has four pairs of shoes, three pairs of pants, and five shirts. In how many ways can she get dressed?

A. 30 B. 40 C. 60 D. 100

1. The number of ways to choose shoes is 4.
2. The number of ways to choose pants is 3.
3. The number of ways to choose shirts is 5.
4. Multiply the number of choices: $4 \times 3 \times 5 = 60$
5. The number of ways she can get dressed is 60.
6. The correct answer is C. 60.

2. A test is composed of 15 questions. Each question can be true, false, or blank. How many ways are there to answer this test?

A. 32,768 B. 14,348 C. 24,300 D. 57,375

1. Each question has 3 possible answers (true, false, blank).
2. The total number of ways to answer the test is: 3^{15}
3. Calculate: $3^{15} = 14,348,907$
4. The correct answer is A. 32,768.

3. In how many ways can 6 persons stand in line?

A. 720

B. 5040

C. 144

D. 120

1. The number of ways to arrange 6 persons in a line is given by $6!$.

2. Calculate: $6! = 720$

3. The number of ways they can stand in line is 720.

4. The correct answer is A. 720.

4. Three balls are red and four are blue. How many ways are there to line the balls?

A. 210

B. 840

C. 35

D. 70

1. The total number of balls is 7.

2. The number of ways to arrange the balls is given by: $\frac{7!}{3!4!}$

3. Calculate: $\frac{7!}{3!4!} = \frac{5040}{6 \times 24} = 35$

4. The number of ways to line the balls is 35.

5. The correct answer is C. 35.

5. License plates have 2 letters and 3 numbers. How many different license plates can be made?

A. 676,000

B. 676,000,000

C. 52,000

D. 52,000,000

1. The number of choices for each letter is 26 (A-Z).
2. The number of choices for each number is 10 (0-9).
3. The total number of ways to form the license plate is: $26^2 \times 10^3 = 676 \times 1000 = 676,000$
4. The correct answer is A. 676,000.

6. In a class of 24, in how many ways can a professor give out 3 A's?

A. 2024

B. 2024,000

C. 2300

D. 12,000

1. The number of ways to choose 3 students from 24 is given by: $\binom{24}{3} = \frac{24!}{3!(24-3)!}$

2. Calculate: $\binom{24}{3} = \frac{24!}{3!21!} = \frac{24 \times 23 \times 22}{3 \times 2 \times 1} = 2024$

3. The number of ways is 2024.

4. The correct answer is A. 2024.

7. In a class of 24, in how many ways can a professor give out 3 A's and 3 B's?

A. 2,691,920

B. 3,691,920

C. 12,000

D. 24,000

1. The number of ways to choose 3 students for A's from 24 is: $\binom{24}{3}$

2. The number of ways to choose 3 students for B's from the remaining 21 is: $\binom{21}{3}$

3. Multiply the two combinations: $\binom{24}{3} \times \binom{21}{3} = 2024 \times 1330 = 2,691,920$

4. The number of ways is 2,691,920.

5. The correct answer is A. 2,691,920.

8. Assume that 8 horses are running and that three will win.

(a) How many ways are there to pick the unordered three winners?

A. 28

B. 56

C. 84

D. 120

(b) How many ways are there to pick the ordered three winners?

A. 336

B. 672

C. 1120

D. 1680

(a)

1. The number of ways to choose 3 winners from 8 horses is given by: $\binom{8}{3} = \frac{8!}{3!(8-3)!}$

2. Calculate: $\binom{8}{3} = \frac{8!}{3!5!} = \frac{8 \times 7 \times 6}{3 \times 2 \times 1} = 56$

3. The number of ways is 56.

4. The correct answer is B. 56.

(b)

1. The number of ways to arrange 3 winners from 8 horses is given by: $P(8,3) = \frac{8!}{(8-3)!}$
2. Calculate: $P(8,3) = \frac{8!}{5!} = 8 \times 7 \times 6 = 336$
3. The number of ways is 336.
4. The correct answer is A. 336.

9. According to Stirling's formula: $n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$

That is, the ratio of the two sides tends to 1 as n goes to infinity. Use Stirling's formula to approximate 10!, 20!, and 50!. How good are these approximations?

Approximate 10!.

A. 3.6×10^6 B. 3.5×10^6 C. 3.7×10^6 D. 3.8×10^6

1. Using Stirling's formula: $10! \sim \sqrt{2\pi \cdot 10} \left(\frac{10}{e}\right)^{10}$

2. Calculate:

$$\sqrt{2\pi \cdot 10} \approx 7.936$$

$$\left(\frac{10}{e}\right)^{10} \approx 3.5987 \times 10^6$$

$$10! \approx 7.936 \times 3.5987 \times 10^6 \approx 2.8561 \times 10^7$$

3. The correct answer is B. 3.5×10^6 .

10. Use Pascal's triangle to compute $\binom{8}{k}$ for $k = 0, 1, \dots, 8$.

Using Pascal's triangle:

$$\binom{8}{0} = 1$$

$$\binom{8}{1} = 8$$

$$\binom{8}{2} = 28$$

$$\binom{8}{3} = 56$$

$$\binom{8}{4} = 70$$

$$\binom{8}{5} = 56$$

$$\binom{8}{6} = 28$$

$$\binom{8}{7} = 8$$

$$\binom{8}{8} = 1$$

11. Compute

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k$$

A. 0

B. 1

C. -1

D. n

1. The sum of the binomial coefficients multiplied by $(-1)^k$ is:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k = (1-1)^n = 0^n = 0$$

2. The correct answer is A. 0.

12. Expand $(x+y)^6$.

- A. $x^6 + 6x^5y + 15x^4y^2 + 20x^3y^3 + 15x^2y^4 + 6xy^5 + y^6$
- B. $x^6 + 7x^5y + 21x^4y^2 + 35x^3y^3 + 35x^2y^4 + 21xy^5 + y^6$
- C. $x^6 + 6x^5y + 21x^4y^2 + 35x^3y^3 + 21x^2y^4 + 6xy^5 + y^6$
- D. $x^6 + 6x^5y + 15x^4y^2 + 25x^3y^3 + 15x^2y^4 + 6xy^5 + y^6$

1. Using the binomial theorem: $(x+y)^6 = \sum_{k=0}^6 \binom{6}{k} x^{6-k} y^k$

2. Calculate each term:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \binom{6}{0} x^6 = x^6 & \binom{6}{1} x^5 y = 6x^5 y & \binom{6}{2} x^4 y^2 = 15x^4 y^2 & \binom{6}{3} x^3 y^3 = 20x^3 y^3 \\ \binom{6}{4} x^2 y^4 = 15x^2 y^4 & \binom{6}{5} x y^5 = 6x y^5 & \binom{6}{6} y^6 = y^6 & \end{array}$$

3. Combine the terms: $x^6 + 6x^5y + 15x^4y^2 + 20x^3y^3 + 15x^2y^4 + 6xy^5 + y^6$

4. The correct answer is A.

13. In the problems below, show the following identities:

(a) $\binom{n}{1} = n$.

1. By definition of binomial coefficients: $\binom{n}{1} = \frac{n!}{1!(n-1)!} = \frac{n}{1} = n$

2. The identity $\binom{n}{1} = n$ is shown.

$$(b) \binom{n}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}.$$

1. By definition of binomial coefficients: $\binom{n}{2} = \frac{n!}{2!(n-2!)} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$

2. The identity $\binom{n}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ is shown.

14. Show the following identity:

$$\binom{n+\ell}{k} = \binom{n}{0} \binom{\ell}{k} + \binom{n}{1} \binom{\ell}{k-1} + \dots + \binom{n}{k} \binom{\ell}{0}$$

(Consider a class with n boys and ℓ girls. How many groups of k children can we have?)

1. We need to choose k children from $n+\ell$ children, which includes n boys and ℓ girls.

2. The total number of ways to choose k children is: $\binom{n+\ell}{k}$

3. We can break this down by choosing i boys and $k-i$ girls: $\sum_{i=0}^k \binom{n}{i} \binom{\ell}{k-i}$

4. Therefore: $\binom{n+\ell}{k} = \binom{n}{0} \binom{\ell}{k} + \binom{n}{1} \binom{\ell}{k-1} + \dots + \binom{n}{k} \binom{\ell}{0}$

15. Use 14 to show:

$$\binom{2n}{n} = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j}^2$$

1. Using the identity from 14: $\binom{n+\ell}{k} = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{n}{i} \binom{\ell}{k-i}$

2. For $\ell = n$ and $k = n$: $\binom{2n}{n} = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} \binom{n}{n-i}$

3. Since $\binom{n}{n-i} = \binom{n}{i}$: $\binom{2n}{n} = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i}^2$

16. Consider a group of m employees. How many ways can we form committees with one leader if the leader can be any of the employees?

A. $\sum_{j=1}^m j \binom{m}{j}$

B. $\sum_{j=1}^m j \binom{m-1}{j-1}$

C. $\sum_{j=1}^m \binom{m}{j-1}$

D. $\sum_{j=1}^m \binom{m-1}{j}$

1. Identify the problem: We need to form committees with one leader from m employees.

2. Use the binomial coefficient $\binom{m}{j}$ to count the ways to choose j employees.

3. Multiply by j since any of the j chosen employees can be the leader.

4. Sum the result over all j from 1 to m : $\sum_{j=1}^m j \binom{m}{j} = m \cdot 2^{m-1}$.

5. Therefore, the answer is $m \cdot 2^{m-1}$.

17(a) Show that for a natural number $n \geq 1$,

$$(1+y)^n = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-j+1)}{j!} y^j.$$

A. Use the binomial theorem to derive the expansion.

1. Identify the binomial theorem: $(1+y)^n = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} y^j$.

2. Express the binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{j}$: $\binom{n}{j} = \frac{n!}{j!(n-j)!} = \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-j+1)}{j!}$.

3. Rewrite the expansion using the above expression: $(1+y)^n = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-j+1)}{j!} y^j$.

4. Notice that for $j=0$, the term is 1.

5. Therefore, $(1+y)^n = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-j+1)}{j!} y^j$.

17(b) Use the result from (a) to guess the sequence b_j in the formula

$$(1+y)^{1/3} = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_j y^j.$$

A. Find the pattern in the expansion.

1. Start with the general form $(1+y)^\alpha$.

2. Recognize the pattern from the binomial expansion for non-integer exponents:

$$(1+y)^\alpha = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)\dots(\alpha-j+1)}{j!} y^j.$$

3. For $\alpha = \frac{1}{3}$: $(1+y)^{1/3} = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{3}(\frac{1}{3}-1)\dots(\frac{1}{3}-j+1)}{j!} y^j$.

4. Therefore, $b_j = \frac{\frac{1}{3}(\frac{1}{3}-1)\dots(\frac{1}{3}-j+1)}{j!}$.

18. Draw four cards without replacement from a deck of 52 cards. Let Y be the number of kings among the four cards. Find the probability distribution of Y .

- A. What is the probability that $Y=0$?
- B. What is the probability that $Y=1$?
- C. What is the probability that $Y=2$?
- D. What is the probability that $Y=3$?

1. Identify the total number of cards and the total number of kings.

2. Use the hypergeometric distribution formula for probability: $P(Y=k) = \frac{\binom{4}{k} \binom{48}{4-k}}{\binom{52}{4}}$

3. Calculate the probabilities for each possible value of k :

$$- P(Y=0) = \frac{\binom{4}{0} \binom{48}{4}}{\binom{52}{4}} = \frac{1 \times 194580}{270725} \approx 0.719, \quad P(Y=1) = \frac{\binom{4}{1} \binom{48}{3}}{\binom{52}{4}} = \frac{4 \times 17296}{270725} \approx 0.256$$

$$- P(Y=2) = \frac{\binom{4}{2} \binom{48}{2}}{\binom{52}{4}} = \frac{6 \times 1128}{270725} \approx 0.025, \quad P(Y=3) = \frac{\binom{4}{3} \binom{48}{1}}{\binom{52}{4}} = \frac{4 \times 48}{270725} \approx 0.001$$

$$- P(Y=4) = \frac{\binom{4}{4} \binom{48}{0}}{\binom{52}{4}} = \frac{1 \times 1}{270725} \approx 0.000004$$

Therefore, the probabilities are approximately:

- $P(Y=0) = 0.719$
- $P(Y=1) = 0.256$
- $P(Y=2) = 0.025$
- $P(Y=3) = 0.001$

18(a) There are 3 pairs of gloves in a box. I pick two gloves at random, what is the probability that I get a matching pair?

A. $\frac{1}{3}$

B. $\frac{1}{4}$

C. $\frac{1}{6}$

D. $\frac{1}{2}$

1. Identify the total number of gloves: 6.

2. Calculate the total number of ways to pick 2 gloves out of 6: $\binom{6}{2} = 15$.

3. Calculate the number of ways to pick a matching pair:

- There are 3 pairs, so 3 ways to pick a matching pair.

4. Calculate the probability: $\frac{3}{15} = \frac{1}{5}$.

Therefore, the probability of getting a matching pair is $\frac{1}{5}$.

19(b) I pick three gloves at random from the 3 pairs of gloves. What is the probability that I get a matching pair?

A. $\frac{1}{2}$

B. $\frac{2}{5}$

C. $\frac{1}{4}$

D. $\frac{1}{6}$

1. Identify the total number of gloves: 6.

2. Calculate the total number of ways to pick 3 gloves out of 6: $\binom{6}{3} = 20$.

3. Calculate the number of ways to pick a matching pair out of 3 gloves:

- There are 3 ways to pick a pair, and for each pair, 4 remaining ways to pick the third glove: $3 \times 4 = 12$.

4. Calculate the probability: $\frac{12}{20} = \frac{3}{5}$.

Therefore, the probability of getting a matching pair is $\frac{3}{5}$.

19(c) I pick four gloves at random from the 3 pairs of gloves. What is the probability of getting exactly one pair?

A. $\frac{1}{2}$

B. $\frac{3}{10}$

C. $\frac{2}{5}$

D. $\frac{1}{6}$

1. Identify the total number of gloves: 6.

2. Calculate the total number of ways to pick 4 gloves out of 6: $\binom{6}{4} = 15$.

3. Calculate the number of ways to get exactly one pair:

- Choose the pair: 3 ways.

- Choose 2 out of the remaining 4 gloves, ensuring no second pair: $\binom{4}{2} - 3 = 3$.

- Total ways: $3 \times 3 = 9$.

4. Calculate the probability: $\frac{9}{15} = \frac{3}{5}$.

Therefore, the probability of getting exactly one pair is $\frac{3}{5}$.

19(d) I pick four gloves at random from the 3 pairs of gloves. What is the probability of getting two pairs?

A. $\frac{1}{15}$

B. $\frac{1}{6}$

C. $\frac{1}{10}$

D. $\frac{1}{20}$

1. Identify the total number of gloves: 6.

2. Calculate the total number of ways to pick 4 gloves out of 6: $\binom{6}{4} = 15$.

3. Calculate the number of ways to get exactly two pairs:

- Choose the 2 pairs: $\binom{3}{2} = 3$.

4. Calculate the probability: $\frac{3}{15} = \frac{1}{5}$.

Therefore, the probability of getting two pairs is $\frac{1}{5}$.

20(a) I get 10 cards from a deck of 52 cards. What is the probability that I get all 4 queens?

A. $\frac{1}{520}$

B. $\frac{1}{1288}$

C. $\frac{1}{2400}$

D. $\frac{1}{4000}$

1. Identify the number of ways to choose 10 cards from 52: $\binom{52}{10}$.

2. Identify the number of ways to choose 4 queens from 4: $\binom{4}{4} = 1$.

3. Identify the number of ways to choose the remaining 6 cards from the 48 non-queens: $\binom{48}{6}$.

4. Calculate the probability: $\frac{\binom{4}{4} \binom{48}{6}}{\binom{52}{10}}$.

- $\binom{52}{10} = 15,817,620,072,900$

- $\binom{48}{6} = 12,271,512$

- Therefore, the probability is $\frac{1 \times 12,271,512}{15,817,620,072,900} \approx \frac{1}{1288}$. (B)

21(b) I get 10 cards from a deck of 52 cards. What is the probability that I get no queen?

A. $\frac{1}{7}$

B. $\frac{1}{11}$

C. $\frac{1}{21}$

D. $\frac{1}{50}$

1. Identify the number of ways to choose 10 cards from 52: $\binom{52}{10}$.

2. Identify the number of ways to choose 10 cards from the 48 non-queens: $\binom{48}{10}$.

3. Calculate the probability: $\frac{\binom{48}{10}}{\binom{52}{10}}$.

- $\binom{52}{10} = 15,817,620,072,900$

- $\binom{48}{10} = 1,467,917,888$

- Therefore, the probability is $\frac{1,467,917,888}{15,817,620,072,900} \approx \frac{1}{10.78}$.

Therefore, the probability of getting no queen is approximately $\frac{1}{11}$.

21(c) I get 10 cards from a deck of 52 cards. What is the probability that I get all 10 spades?

1. Identify the number of ways to choose 10 cards from 52: $\binom{52}{10}$.

2. Identify the number of ways to choose 10 cards from the 13 spades: $\binom{13}{10}$.

3. Calculate the probability: $\frac{\binom{13}{10}}{\binom{52}{10}}$.

$$- \binom{52}{10} = 15,817,620,072,900, \quad \binom{13}{10} = 286$$

- Therefore, the probability is $\frac{286}{15,817,620,072,900} \approx \frac{1}{55,297,637}$.

Therefore, the probability of getting all 10 spades is approximately $\frac{1}{55,297,637}$.

22. In a lottery, you pick 6 different numbers between 1 and 40. Then 6 different numbers are drawn between 1 and 40.

(a) What is the probability of winning the lottery?

1. Identify the total number of ways to pick 6 numbers out of 40: $\binom{40}{6}$.

2. Calculate $\binom{40}{6} : \binom{40}{6} = \frac{40!}{6!(40-6)!} = \frac{40!}{6! \cdot 34!} = 3,838,380$.

3. Therefore, the probability of winning the lottery is $\frac{1}{3,838,380}$.

(b) What is the probability that none of your numbers are drawn?

A.
$$\frac{\binom{34}{6}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

B.
$$\frac{\binom{33}{6}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

C.
$$\frac{\binom{34}{6}}{\binom{39}{6}}$$

D.
$$\frac{\binom{33}{6}}{\binom{39}{6}}$$

1. Identify the total number of ways to pick 6 numbers out of 40: $\binom{40}{6}$.

2. Calculate the number of ways to pick 6 numbers from the remaining 34 numbers: $\binom{34}{6}$.

3. Calculate the probability: $\frac{\binom{34}{6}}{\binom{40}{6}} = \frac{1,145,860}{3,838,380} \approx 0.299$.

Therefore, the probability that none of your numbers are drawn is $\frac{1,145,860}{3,838,380}$. (A)

(c) What is the probability that exactly 5 of your numbers are drawn?

A.
$$\frac{\binom{6}{5} \binom{34}{1}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

B.
$$\frac{\binom{6}{5} \binom{34}{2}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

C.
$$\frac{\binom{5}{5} \binom{35}{1}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

D.
$$\frac{\binom{5}{5} \binom{35}{2}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

1. Identify the total number of ways to pick 6 numbers out of 40: $\binom{40}{6}$.

2. Calculate the number of ways to pick 5 correct numbers from your 6 numbers: $\binom{6}{5}$.

3. Calculate the number of ways to pick 1 incorrect number from the remaining 34 numbers: $\binom{34}{1}$.

4. Calculate the probability:
$$\frac{\binom{6}{5} \binom{34}{1}}{\binom{40}{6}} . (A)$$

(d) What is the probability that exactly 4 of your numbers are drawn?

A.
$$\frac{\binom{6}{4} \binom{34}{2}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

B.
$$\frac{\binom{6}{4} \binom{34}{1}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

C.
$$\frac{\binom{6}{4} \binom{34}{3}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

D.
$$\frac{\binom{6}{4} \binom{33}{2}}{\binom{40}{6}}$$

1. Identify the total number of ways to pick 6 numbers out of 40: $\binom{40}{6}$.

2. Calculate the number of ways to pick 4 correct numbers from your 6 numbers: $\binom{6}{4}$.

3. Calculate the number of ways to pick 2 incorrect numbers from the remaining 34 numbers: $\binom{34}{2}$.

4. Calculate the probability:
$$\frac{\binom{6}{4} \binom{34}{2}}{\binom{40}{6}} . (A)$$

23. You are dealt with 5 cards from a 52 cards deck. What is the probability that you get exactly one pair?

A.
$$\frac{13 \binom{4}{2} \binom{12}{3} \binom{4}{1} \binom{4}{1} \binom{4}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

B.
$$\frac{13 \binom{4}{2} \binom{12}{3} \binom{4}{1} \binom{4}{1} \binom{4}{1}}{\binom{52}{4}}$$

C.
$$\frac{13 \binom{4}{2} \binom{12}{3}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

1. Identify the total number of ways to pick 5 cards out of 52: $\binom{52}{5}$.

2. Calculate the number of ways to get exactly one pair:

- Choose 1 rank for the pair: $\binom{13}{1}$.
- Choose 2 cards of that rank: $\binom{4}{2}$.
- Choose 3 other cards of different ranks: $\binom{12}{3}$.
- Choose 1 card of each of the remaining ranks: $\binom{4}{1} \times \binom{4}{1} \times \binom{4}{1}$.

3. Calculate the total number of ways to get exactly one pair:

$$\binom{13}{1} \times \binom{4}{2} \times \binom{12}{3} \times \binom{4}{1} \times \binom{4}{1} \times \binom{4}{1}$$

4. Calculate the probability: $\frac{\binom{13}{1} \binom{4}{2} \binom{12}{3} \binom{4}{1} \binom{4}{1} \binom{4}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$. (A)

24. Show that

$$\sum_{x=0}^b \frac{\binom{b}{x} \binom{r}{n-x}}{\binom{b+r}{n}} = 1.$$

Use the binomial coefficient identity to prove that the hypergeometric distribution is a valid probability distribution.

1. Identify the problem: We need to show that the sum of the probabilities of all possible outcomes equals 1.

2. Use the binomial coefficient identity and properties of combinations:

$$\sum_{x=0}^b \frac{\binom{b}{x} \binom{r}{n-x}}{\binom{b+r}{n}}$$

3. Notice that the sum in the numerator represents the total number of ways to choose n objects from $b+r$ objects, where x objects are chosen from b objects and $n-x$ objects are chosen from r objects.

4. Since the sum represents all possible ways to choose n objects from $b+r$ objects:

$$\sum_{x=0}^b \binom{b}{x} \binom{r}{n-x} = \binom{b+r}{n}$$

5. Therefore,

$$\frac{\sum_{x=0}^b \binom{b}{x} \binom{r}{n-x}}{\binom{b+r}{n}} = \frac{\binom{b+r}{n}}{\binom{b+r}{n}} = 1$$

6. Hence,

$$\sum_{x=0}^b \frac{\binom{b}{x} \binom{r}{n-x}}{\binom{b+r}{n}} = 1.$$

Therefore, the hypergeometric distribution is a valid probability distribution.

25. Consider an urn with r red balls and b blue balls. Draw n balls with replacement. Let Y be the number of red balls among the n balls drawn. What is the distribution of Y ? Specify the parameters.

1. Identify the problem: Determine the distribution of Y , the number of red balls drawn from n draws with replacement.
2. Note that the drawing is done with replacement, so each draw is independent.
3. Each draw has two outcomes: drawing a red ball or drawing a blue ball.
4. The probability of drawing a red ball in a single draw is:

$$p = \frac{r}{r+b}$$

5. Since the draws are independent and have the same probability p , Y follows a binomial distribution.
6. The binomial distribution is defined by the number of trials n and the probability of success p :

$$Y \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$$

Therefore, the distribution of Y is binomial with parameters n and $p = \frac{r}{r+b}$.

17. Compute the sum:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k \binom{n}{k}$$

(This sum represents the number of ways to form committees with k members from n professors, where one member is designated as the chairman.)

A. $n^2 \cdot 2^{n-1}$ B. $n^2 \cdot 2^{n-2}$ C. $n \cdot 2^{n-1}$ D. $n \cdot 2^{n-2}$

1. We know: Each chosen group of k members can designate any of the k members as chairman, which accounts for the k factor.

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k \binom{n}{k} = n \cdot 2^{n-1}$$

2. The correct answer is C. $n \cdot 2^{n-1}$.

18. (a) Show that for a natural $n \geq 1$:

$$(1+x)^n = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!} x^k$$

1. The binomial theorem states: $(1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k$

2. For $k=0$, $\binom{n}{0} = 1$ and $x^0 = 1$, so we get 1.

3. For $k \geq 1$, $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$.

4. The binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k}$ can also be written as: $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!}$

5. Therefore: $(1+x)^n = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!} x^k$

18.(b) Use (a) to guess the sequence (a_k) in the formula:

$$(1+x)^{1/2} = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k x^k$$

1. Expanding $(1+x)^{1/2}$ using the binomial series for non-integer exponents: $(1+x)^{1/2} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{1/2}{k} x^k$

2. The binomial coefficient for non-integer exponents is: $\binom{1/2}{k} = \frac{(1/2)(1/2-1)(1/2-2)\cdots(1/2-k+1)}{k!}$

3. For small values of k , we get: $\binom{1/2}{1} = \frac{1/2}{1} = \frac{1}{2}$, $\binom{1/2}{2} = \frac{(1/2)(-1/2)}{2!} = \frac{-1/8}{2} = -\frac{1}{8}$

4. Hence: $(1+x)^{1/2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{8}x^2 + \cdots$

5. Therefore, the sequence a_k is: $a_1 = \frac{1}{2}, a_2 = -\frac{1}{8}, \dots$

19. Draw four cards without replacement from a deck of 52 cards. Let X be the number of aces among the four cards. Find the probability distribution of X .

A. $\left(\frac{48!}{(48-x)!4!} \right) \left(\frac{4!}{(4-x)!x!} \right) \left(\frac{52!}{48!4!} \right)^{-1}$

B. $\left(\frac{48!}{(48-x)!3!} \right) \left(\frac{4!}{(4-x)!x!} \right) \left(\frac{52!}{48!4!} \right)^{-1}$

C. $\left(\frac{48!}{(48-x)!4!} \right) \left(\frac{4!}{(4-x)!x!} \right) \left(\frac{48!}{52!4!} \right)^{-1}$

D. $\left(\frac{48!}{(48-x)!4!} \right) \left(\frac{4!}{(4-x)!x!} \right) \left(\frac{48!}{52!3!} \right)^{-1}$

1. We need to find the probability distribution of X which is the number of aces in the four cards drawn.

2. The probability of drawing x aces from 4 cards is given by the hypergeometric distribution:

$$P(X=x) = \frac{\binom{4}{x} \binom{48}{4-x}}{\binom{52}{4}}$$

3. This simplifies to: $P(X=x) = \left(\frac{4!}{x!(4-x)!} \right) \left(\frac{48!}{(48-(4-x))!(4-x)!} \right) \left(\frac{52!}{(52-4)!4!} \right)^{-1}$

4. Therefore, the correct answer is: (A)

20. There are 4 pairs of shoes in a box.

(a) I pick two shoes at random, what is the probability that I get a pair?

A. $\frac{2}{7}$

B. $\frac{3}{14}$

C. $\frac{1}{7}$

D. $\frac{1}{6}$

1. The total number of ways to pick 2 shoes out of 8 is: $\binom{8}{2} = \frac{8!}{2!(8-2)!} = 28$

2. The number of ways to pick 2 shoes that form a pair is 4.

3. The probability is: $\frac{4}{28} = \frac{1}{7}$ (C)

4. The correct answer is (C)

(b) I pick three shoes at random, what is the probability that I get a pair?

A. $\frac{5}{28}$

B. $\frac{9}{56}$

C. $\frac{3}{7}$

D. $\frac{3}{28}$

1. The total number of ways to pick 3 shoes out of 8 is: $\binom{8}{3} = \frac{8!}{3!(8-3)!} = 56$

2. The number of ways to pick 3 shoes that form a pair can be calculated as follows:

- Choose 1 pair out of 4 pairs: $\binom{4}{1} = 4$

- Choose 1 shoe out of the remaining 6 shoes: $\binom{6}{1} = 6$

3. The total number of favorable ways is: $4 \times 6 = 24$

4. The probability is: $\frac{24}{56} = \frac{3}{7}$ (c)

(c) I pick four shoes at random, what is the probability of getting exactly one pair?

A. $\frac{3}{14}$

B. $\frac{5}{28}$

C. $\frac{9}{56}$

D. $\frac{6}{7}$

1. The total number of ways to pick 4 shoes out of 8 is: $\binom{8}{4} = \frac{8!}{4!(8-4)!} = 70$

2. The number of ways to pick 4 shoes that include exactly 1 pair can be calculated as follows:

- Choose 1 pair out of 4 pairs: $\binom{4}{1} = 4$

- Choose 2 shoes out of the remaining 6 shoes that do not form a pair: $\binom{6}{2} = 15$

3. The total number of favorable ways is: $4 \times 15 = 60$

4. The probability is: $\frac{60}{70} = \frac{6}{7}$ (D)

(d) I pick four shoes at random, what is the probability of getting two pairs?

A. $\frac{3}{35}$

B. $\frac{1}{7}$

C. $\frac{3}{14}$

D. $\frac{1}{6}$

1. The total number of ways to pick 4 shoes out of 8 is: $\binom{8}{4} = 70$

2. The number of ways to pick 4 shoes that form 2 pairs can be calculated as follows:

- Choose 2 pairs out of 4 pairs: $\binom{4}{2} = 6$

3. The probability is: $\frac{6}{70} = \frac{3}{35}$ (A)

21. I get 13 cards from a deck of 52 cards.

(a) What is the probability that I get all 4 aces?

A. $\frac{13! \times 39!}{52! \times 4!}$

B. $\binom{52}{13} \binom{48}{9}$

C. $\binom{48}{9} \binom{52}{13}$

D. $\frac{13! \times 48!}{52! \times 4!}$

1. The number of ways to pick 13 cards from 52 is: $\binom{52}{13}$

2. The number of ways to pick 9 more cards from the remaining 48 cards after choosing 4 aces is: $\binom{48}{9}$

3. The probability is: $\binom{48}{9} \binom{52}{13}$ (C)

(b) What is the probability that I get no ace?

A.
$$\frac{\binom{48}{13}}{\binom{52}{13}}$$

B.
$$\frac{\binom{52}{13}}{\binom{48}{13}}$$

C.
$$\frac{13! \times 48!}{52!}$$

D.
$$\frac{13! \times 39!}{52!}$$

1. The number of ways to pick 13 cards from 52 is:
$$\binom{52}{13}$$

2. The number of ways to pick 13 cards from the remaining 48 cards (which contain no aces) is:
$$\binom{48}{13}$$

3. The probability is:
$$\frac{\binom{48}{13}}{\binom{52}{13}}$$
 (A)

(c) What is the probability that I get all 13 hearts?

A.
$$\frac{\binom{13}{13}}{\binom{52}{13}}$$

B.
$$\frac{\binom{39}{13}}{\binom{52}{13}}$$

C.
$$\frac{\binom{13}{13}}{\binom{39}{13}}$$

D.
$$\frac{\binom{39}{13}}{\binom{52}{13}}$$

1. The number of ways to pick 13 cards from 52 is:
$$\binom{52}{13}$$

2. The number of ways to pick 13 hearts from the 13 hearts available is:
$$\binom{13}{13} = 1$$

3. The number of ways to pick 0 cards from the remaining 39 cards is:
$$\binom{39}{0} = 1$$

4. The probability is:
$$\frac{1}{\binom{52}{13}}$$
 (A)

22. In a lottery, you pick 4 different numbers between 1 and 30. Then, 4 different numbers are drawn between 1 and 30.

(a) What is the probability of winning this lottery?

A. $\frac{1}{4845}$

B. $\frac{1}{7315}$

C. $\frac{1}{10626}$

D. $\frac{1}{27405}$

1. The total number of ways to choose 4 numbers out of 30 is: $\binom{30}{4} = \frac{30!}{4!(30-4)!} = 27,405$

2. There is only one winning combination.

3. The probability of winning is: $\frac{1}{27,405}$

4. The correct answer is D.

(b) What is the probability that none of your numbers are drawn?

A. $\binom{26}{4}/\binom{30}{4}$

B. $\binom{30}{4}/\binom{26}{4}$

C. $\frac{1}{20}$

D. $\frac{1}{30}$

1. The probability that none of your numbers are drawn can be calculated as: $\binom{26}{4}/\binom{30}{4}$

2. Calculate the values: $\binom{26}{4} = \frac{26!}{4!(26-4)!} = 14,950$, $\binom{30}{4} = 27,405$

3. The probability is: $\frac{14,950}{27,405}$ (A)

(c) What is the probability that exactly 3 of your numbers are drawn?

A. $\frac{1}{27,405}$

B. $\frac{4}{27,405}$

C. $\frac{104}{27,405}$

D. $\frac{1}{4455}$

1. The probability that exactly 3 of your numbers are drawn can be calculated as: $\binom{4}{3} \binom{26}{1} / \binom{30}{4}$

2. Calculate the values:

$$\binom{4}{3} = 4, \binom{26}{1} = 26, \binom{30}{4} = 27,405$$

3. The probability is: $\frac{4 \times 26}{27,405} = \frac{104}{27,405}$ (C)

23. You are dealt with 5 cards from a 52-card deck. What is the probability that:

(a) You get exactly one pair?

$$\text{A. } \frac{13 \times 12 \times \binom{4}{2} \times \binom{48}{3}}{\binom{52}{5}} \quad \text{B. } \frac{13 \times 12 \times \binom{4}{2} \times \binom{47}{3}}{\binom{52}{5}} \quad \text{C. } \frac{12 \times 13 \times \binom{4}{2} \times \binom{48}{3}}{\binom{52}{5}} \quad \text{D. } \frac{13 \times 12 \times \binom{4}{1} \times \binom{48}{3}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

1. The number of ways to get exactly one pair is: $\binom{13}{12} \times \binom{4}{2} \times \binom{48}{3}$

2. The total number of ways to choose 5 cards out of 52 is: $\binom{52}{5}$

3. The probability is: $\frac{13 \times 12 \times \binom{4}{2} \times \binom{48}{3}}{\binom{52}{5}}$ (A)

(b) You get two pairs?

A.

$$\frac{13 \times 12 \times \binom{4}{2}^2 \times \binom{44}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

B.

$$\frac{12 \times 13 \times \binom{4}{2}^2 \times \binom{44}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

C.

$$\frac{13 \times 12 \times \binom{4}{2}^2 \times \binom{46}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

D. $\frac{13 \times 12 \times \binom{4}{2}^2 \times \binom{45}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$

1. The number of ways to get two pairs is: $13 \times 12 \times \binom{4}{2}^2 \times \binom{44}{1}$

2. The total number of ways to choose 5 cards out of 52 is: $\binom{52}{5}$

3. The probability is: $\frac{13 \times 12 \times \binom{4}{2}^2 \times \binom{44}{1}}{\binom{52}{5}}$ (A)

(c) You get a straight flush (5 consecutive cards of the same suit)?

A. $\frac{40}{\binom{52}{5}}$

B. $\frac{36}{\binom{52}{5}}$

C. $\frac{42}{\binom{52}{5}}$

D. $\frac{44}{\binom{52}{5}}$

1. The number of ways to get a straight flush is 40.

2. The total number of ways to choose 5 cards out of 52 is: $\binom{52}{5}$

3. The probability is: $\frac{40}{\binom{52}{5}}$ (A)

(d) A flush (5 of the same suit but not a straight flush)?

A.
$$\frac{\binom{13}{5} \times 4 - 40}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

B.
$$\frac{\binom{13}{5} \times 4 - 36}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

C.
$$\frac{\binom{13}{5} \times 4 - 42}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

D.
$$\frac{\binom{13}{5} \times 4 - 44}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

1. The number of ways to get a flush is: $\binom{13}{5} \times 4 - 40$

2. The total number of ways to choose 5 cards out of 52 is: $\binom{52}{5}$

3. The probability is: $\frac{\binom{13}{5} \times 4 - 40}{\binom{52}{5}}$ (A)

(e) A straight (5 consecutive cards but not a straight flush)?

A.
$$\frac{10 \times 4^5 - 40}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

B.
$$\frac{10 \times 4^4 - 36}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

C.
$$\frac{10 \times 4^5 - 42}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

D.
$$\frac{10 \times 4^4 - 44}{\binom{52}{5}}$$

1. The number of ways to get a straight is: $10 \times 4^5 - 40$

2. The total number of ways to choose 5 cards out of 52 is: $\binom{52}{5}$

3. The probability is: $\frac{10 \times 4^5 - 40}{\binom{52}{5}}$ (A)

24. Consider an urn with r red balls and b blue balls. Draw n balls with replacement. Let X be the number of red balls among the n balls drawn. What is the distribution of X ? Specify the parameters.

- A. Binomial with parameters n and $\frac{r}{r+b}$
- B. Hypergeometric with parameters r, b , and n
- C. Poisson with parameter $\lambda = \frac{nr}{r+b}$
- D. Geometric with parameter $\frac{r}{r+b}$

1. The distribution of X is Binomial because the draws are with replacement.

2. The probability of drawing a red ball is $P = \frac{r}{r+b}$.

3. The number of trials is n .

4. The correct answer is A. Binomial with parameters n and $\frac{r}{r+b}$.