Lesson and Activity Packet Lecture 5:

MATH 232: Introduction to Statistics

September 23, 2016

Homework and Announcements

- Don't leave class today without submitting Homework 3.
- Homework 4 due Monday in class

Recap

Last time, we discussed:

- Fractiles (measures of position)
- Median (this is not new)
- Quartiles
- Deciles
- Percentiles
- Interquartile range
- Box-and-Whisker Plot

Questions?

If not, then today, we begin Chapter 4: Probability.

To preface our study of probability, we should speak in a standard way about what is generally possible in the world; we can't predict the outcome of a soccer game if we don't know who's playing, for example, just as we can't predict an election without knowing who's

We start with some terminology

Definition 1

- An experiment is any operation or procedure whose outcomes cannot be predicted with certainty.
- The set of all possible outcomes for the experiment is called the sample space of the experiment. The sample space is a set (i.e., an unordered list), and is usually given the name S.

Example 1

predicted with certainty. The sample space of the coin-toss experiment can be written as $S := \{H, T\}$.

Example 2

The single toss of a die is an experiment with one of six outcomes. Here, the sample space is $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$.

Group Exercise 1 (1 minute)

How many outcomes are in the sample space corresponding to the experiment of selecting one card from a standard deek?

Sometimes events consist of more than one trial or component: each outcome can be decomposed into one or more outcomes.

Example 3

When classifying people by their blood type, usually the antigen type (A, B, AB, or O) is given along with the Rhesus factor (+,-). Your instructor's blood type is O+, for example.

Group Exercise 2

List all of the possible blood types. (This is the sample space.) How many blood types are there?

A tree diagram is a visual representation of the number of possible outcomes of multi-step experiments.

Example 4

For the blood type data, the tree diagram is:

Theorem 1 (The basic principle of counting)

Suppose that two experiments are to be performed. If experiment 1 can result in any one of m possible outcomes and if for each result of experiment 1, experiment 2 can result in n possible outcomes, then taken together there are mn possible outcomes of the two experiments

Example 6

so there are $4 \cdot 2 = 8$ possible blood types.

Example 5

There were four ways to choose the antigen type, and two ways to choose the Rhesus factor;

If an ice cream shop has 20 flavors to choose from with 8 choices of toppings, then there are a total of $20 \cdot 8 = 160$ different combinations you can choose from.

Theorem 2 (The generalized principle of counting)

If k experiments are to be performed, and the first one may result in any of n_1 possible outcomes; the second may result in n_2 possible outcomes, and so on, then there is a total of $n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot n_k$ possible outcomes of the k experiments.

Example 7

How many 7-place liconse plates are possible if the first three places are letters, and the final four places are numbers?

Example 8

How many 5-card poker hands are there?

example 9

How many license plates would be possible if repetition among letters or numbers were prohibited?

Example 10

How many ways are there to arrange 10 objects from left to right on a shelf?

Definition 2

- An event is any collection of results or outcomes of a procedure. An event is a set, and
 it is a subset of the sample space (i.e., each member of an event must have appeared
 in the sample space first). Events are usually given the name E. We therefore write
 E ⊆ S, pronounced "E is a subset of S".
- A simple event is a set with exactly one outcome.
- A compound event contains more than one outcome.

Example 11

- If an experiment/procedure consists of flipping two coins, then the sample space contains the following four points: S₁ := {(H, H), (H, T), (T, H), (T, T)}.
- A simple event could be E = (H, H) (both coins come up heads).
- A compound event might be E = {(H, H), (H, T)} (the event that a head appears on the first coin).

Example 12

- If an experiment consists of tossing two dice, then the sample space consists of the 36 ordered pairs in the set $S_2 := \{(i,j), \text{ where } i,j \text{ are among } 1,2,3,4,5,6\}$.
- A compound event might be $E = \{(1,6), (2,5), (3,4), (4,3), (5,2), (6,1)\}$ (the event that the sum of the dice is 7).

It is often important to know how many outcomes a sample space or an event contains. We already have the generalized rule of counting for simple cases; we will now learn about permutations and combinations.

Example 13

Recall the example where you placed 7 distinct items on a shelf from left to right: we used the generalized rule of counting to figure out that there were $7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 5040$ ways to do it.

Definition 3

A permutation is a way of arranging objects in an ordered list.

Group Exercise 3 (30 seconds)

How many permutations are there for a sey of 7 distinct items?

Group Exercise 4 (5 minutes)

How many parmutations are there for a set of n distinct items? Does any of your groupmates know the "factorial" notation? If so, express the number of permutations using that notation.

$$m(m-1)(m-2)\cdots(3)(2)(1)=m$$

Group Exercise 5 (1 minute)

How many different batting orders are there for a baseball team consisting of $9~\mathrm{players}^{?}$

7

One important variation on permutations is the problem of selecting r items from a set of n distinct items. We can figure this out using the rule of counting as well.

Example 14

How many ways are there to select two items from a set of 26?

Group Exercise 6 (2 minutes)

In how many different ways can our class (which we can assume has 26 students) select a president, a vice president, a secretary, and a treasurer, assuming that no single student can hold more than one position?

Group Exercise 7 (Optional)

How do you use factorial notation to express the total number of ways that τ objects can be selected from n distinct objects. This number is typically given the name $_nP_r$.

"The exercise here is optional, but the concept is not: If you choose not to figure this out as an exercise, you'll still need to listen to the instructor talk about it and write down notes.

$$mPR = \frac{m!}{(m-n)!} = \frac{m(m-1)(m-2)\cdots 9\cdot 2\cdot 1}{(m-n)!}$$

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of two more variations: There are several other important variations on the permutation problem. Here are examples

I have 10 different books that I want to put on my bookshelf: 4 arc mathematics books, 3 are language books, 2 are history books, and 1 is a chemistry book. But I want to keep all books with the same subject together. How many different arrangements are possible?

So, by generalized country: (4:)(3!)(2!)(1!)(4!) = 6,912 Example 16 many ways to arrange math books 4! many many to arrange M-L-H-C blocks or Cross 5 mg Janana chem.

words "distinct" and "different" in previous examples! How many different letter arrangements can be formed using the letters PEPPER? [The fact that several of the letters repeat in this problem domonstrates why we kept using the

group are identically For example, if we number That means that the 720 permutations really per group, where the 12 permutations in each come in groups of (3!)(2!) = (3.2)(2) = 6.2 = 12 many permutations. But the three PIs are indistinct, and the topo E's are indistinct 6 dutiers total - if they were distinct, would be 61=720

> Combinations are a special case of the "choosing r objects from n many" problem, where Remember the example:

Example 17

In how many different ways can our class (which we can assume has 26 students) select a hold more than one position? president, a vice president, a secretary, and a treasurer, assuming that no single student can

Consider the similar example

council of four students to represent us at a statistics conference? In how many different ways can our class (which we can assume has 26 students) select a

Hannah the vice president, Nicole the treasurer, and Tim the secretary. is the secretary, then this is a different situation than having Mykaela be the president, Hannah is the president, Mykaela is the vice president, Nicole is the treasurer, and Tim The crucial difference here is that in the first example, the four positions were distinct. If

However, in the second example, order does not matter. If the group consists of Tiffany, Kaitlyn, Paul, and Akira, then the group with Kaitlyn, Akira, Paul, and Tiffany is exactly

So, let's answer the question: how many ways can 4 students represent 26?

There are 358,800 ways to choose if That is, these choices come in groups of 4! = 4.3.2 = 24 councils that have the same members. so there are (26-4)! 4! 24 : 14, 950 many distinct grups. $\frac{26!}{22!\cdot 4!} = 14,950$ order matter;

PIPSEZPZEIR, PZPIEIPSEZR, PZPIEZPSEIR, PZPSEIPIEZR, PSPSEZPIEIR, PSPIEIPZEZR, PSPIEZPIEIR, PSPZEIPIEZR, PSPSEZPIEIR. of the 12 arrangements: P.P.E.BER, P.P.E.P.E.R. P.P.E.P.E.R. the letters: P.E.P. P3E2R, Then one group consists This means the total It of avangements of the litters perper is: (31)(21) = 420 = 60 possible orangement

is given by the formula The number of combinations of n many objects taken r at a time is denoted ${}_{n}C_{r}$ or ${}_{r}^{(n)}$, and

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

Group Exercise 8 (2 minutes)

flavor is on top, etc.), then how many possible combinations are there? Our favorite ice cream shop is about to close up for the season, so its offerings are scant. They have vanilla, dark chocolate, maple walnut, coffee, pistachio, and raspherry. If you know you want a cone with three scoops of ice cream (and if it doesn't matter to you which

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$$C3 = {6 \choose 2} = {6! \choose 2! (6-3)!} = {6! \choose 2! (3-3)!} = {6! \choose 2! (3-3)!} = {6! \choose 3! (3-3)!} = {5 \cdot 4 \cdot 32} = 5 \cdot 4 = 20$$

Group Exercise 9 (optional; 2 minutes)

serve on that council? Think before computing! 26 at a statistics meeting. How many ways are there of choosing 22 students who do not Think back to the example of choosing 4 students on the council to represent our class of

Group Exercise 10 (optional; 2 minutes)

Show using the formula that $\binom{n}{t} = \binom{n}{n-t}$.

$$\frac{n}{n!(m-n)!} = \frac{n!}{(m-n)!} = \frac{n!}{(m-n)$$

Recap

- Experiment, outcome, sample space
- Sets and subsets
- Counting
- Tree diagrams
- Basic principle of counting
- Generalized principle of counting
- Events
- Simple events
- Compound events
- Permutations
- Permutations for sets of distinct items
- Selecting r ordered items from n distinct items
- Groups of permutations (bookshelf problem)
- Permutations for sets of non-distinct items (PEPPER problem)
- Factorials
- Combinations
- Selecting r unordered items from n distinct items
- ${}_n C_r = \binom{n}{r}$
- $-\binom{n}{r} = \binom{n}{n-r}$

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distribution law