

MODULE1

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The main prerequisites for understanding the content of this unit is a knowledge of elementary algebra, set theory. In this unit, a set could be a well-defined list, collection or class of objects. The objectives comprising the set are called its elements or members. The object in a set could be anything such as set of numbers, set of letters of the alphabet, set of names of African countries etc. Note that set could be defined by listing its members, stating properties, etc. This unit will also discuss series.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state set and subsets of objects/numbers
- state and use sum of series
- use the binomial theorem to solve related problems
- use de Morgan's Law for two or more sets.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Set

A set will be denoted by capital letters or symbols such as X, Y, A, B, \dots and its elements will be denoted by lowercase letters x, y, a, b, \dots .

Example 1.1 Toss a cubical die once. There are six possible numbers that can appear.



We can write $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

Where Ω is a set consisting of six elements 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 called the elements of the set Ω .

There are essentially two ways of specifying a particular set. One way if possible is by listing its elements as in example 1.1 above. The other way is by stating properties which characterize the elements in the set. The above set Ω can be written as:

$$\Omega = \{x: \text{is an integer}, 1 \leq x \leq 6\}$$

If x is an element Ω , then the notation $x \in \Omega$ means that x belongs to Ω . The negation of this assertion i.e. the statement that x does not belong to Ω will be denoted by $x \notin \Omega$

Thus, for the above example, $2 \in \Omega$ but $8 \notin \Omega$.

Definition

Subset: A set A is a subset of a set Ω if each element in A also belongs to Ω .

In example 1 above, the set

$$A = \{1, 3, 5\} = \{x: x \in \Omega \text{ and } x \text{ is odd}\}$$

is a subset of Ω , that is, each element of A is in Ω .

Two sets A and B are called equal if and only if they contain exactly the same elements.

Throughout this book, whenever the word set is used, it will be interpreted to mean a subset of a given set denoted by Ω . The set which contains no elements is called the Null set $\{\}$ or Φ .

Definition

Let A be a set. The elements which are not included in A also constitute a subset. This is known as the complement of A and is denoted by A^c .

As given in example 1.1 above, if $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$

$$A^c = \{2, 4, 6\} = \{x: x \in \Omega \text{ and } x \text{ is even}\}.$$

Definition:

Two sets A, B define two related sets. One of these is the set of all elements which belong to both sets A and B . This is called the intersection of A and B and is denoted by $A \cap B$. The other is the set of all the elements which occur in either A or B or both. This is called the *union* of A and B denoted by $A \cup B$.

Example 1.2

Let $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, $A = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $B = \{2, 3, 5\}$

Then

$$A \cap B = \{3, 5\},$$

$$A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}$$

A and B contain 3 elements each while $A \cap B$ contains 2 elements and $A \cup B$ contains 4 elements.

Note that the number of elements in $A \cap B$ is not the sum of the number of elements in A and B .

Definition: Difference of Two sets

The difference of A and B is the set of elements which belong to A but not to B and is denoted by A/B

In example 1.2 above $A/B = \{x : x \in A, x \notin B\} \in \Omega$

$$A/B = \{1\}$$

$$B/A = \{2\}$$

The union of two sets A and B can be divided into three disjoint sets A/B ,

$$A \cap B, B/A.$$

That is

$$A \cup B = (A/B) \cup (A \cap B) \cup (B/A)$$

The number of elements in a set will be denoted by nA . Thus,

$$n(A \cup B) = n(A/B) + n(A \cap B) + n(B/A)$$

Since

$(A/B), (A \cap B), (B/A)$ are disjoint sets

$$nA = n(A/B) + n(A \cap B)$$

$$\begin{aligned}nB &= n(B/A) + n(A \cap B), \\n(A/B) &= nA - n(A \cap B), \\n(B/A) &= nB - n(A \cap B),\end{aligned}$$

hence,

$$n(A \cup B) = nA - n(A \cap B) + n(A \cap B) + nB - n(A \cap B) = nA + nB - n(A \cap B)$$

$$\text{Note: } A/B = A \cap B^c, B/A = B \cap A^c$$

For any set A,

$$A \cap A^c = \Phi, A \cup A^c = \Omega.$$

For any two sets A and B, we have the following decomposition:

$$B = B \cap \Omega = B \cap (A \cup A^c) = (B \cap A) \cup (B \cap A^c),$$

Since $A \cap B$ and $A^c \cap B$ are disjoint, we have

$$nB = n(A \cap B) + n(A^c \cap B)$$

deMorgan's Law

The laws are as follows :

For any two sets A and B,

- i) $(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$
- ii) $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$

Proof by Examples:

1) Let $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$, $A = \{2, 3\}$ and $B = \{3, 4, 5\}$.

Show that $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$.

Solution :

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

$$A = \{2, 3\}$$

$$B = \{3, 4, 5\}$$

$$A \cup B = \{2, 3\} \cup \{3, 4, 5\}$$

$$= \{2, 3, 4, 5\}$$

$$\therefore (A \cup B)^c = \{1, 6\}$$

Also $A^c = \{1, 4, 5, 6\}$

$B^c = \{1, 2, 6\}$

$\therefore A^c \cap B^c = \{1, 4, 5, 6\} \cap \{1, 2, 6\}$

$= \{1, 6\}$

Hence $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$

2. If $\Omega = \{a,b,c,d,e\}$, $A = \{ a,b,d\}$ and $B = \{b,d,e\}$. Prove De Morgan's law of intersection.

Solution :

$= \{a,b,c,d,e\}$

$A = \{ a,b,d\}$

$B = \{b,d,e\}$

$(A \cap B) = \{ a,b,d\} \cap \{b,d,e\}$

$(A \cap B) = \{b,d\}$

$\therefore (A \cap B)' = \{a, c,e\} \text{ -----}>(1)$

$A' = \{c,e\}$ and $B' = \{a,c\}$

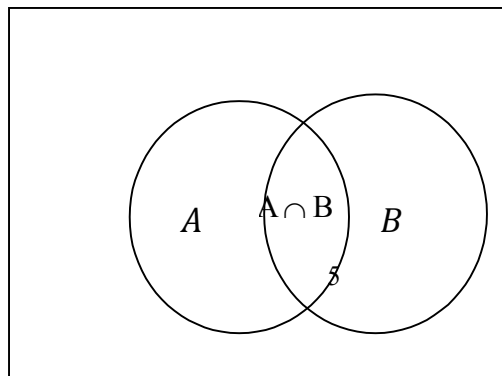
$\therefore A' \cup B' = \{c,e\} \cup \{a,c\}$

$A' \cup B' = \{ a, c,e\} \text{ -----}>(2)$

From (1) and (2)

$(A \cap B)' = A' \cup B'$ (which is a De Morgan's law of intersection).

$A^c = (A \cap B)^c \cap (B/A),$



$$B^c = (A \cap B)^c \cap (A/B)$$

Thus,

$$A^c \cap B^c = (A \cup B)^c$$

Since B/A and A/B are disjoint, Alternatively,

$$(A \cup B)^c = \{x: x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}^c = A^c \cap B^c$$

In general, if A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are any n sets

Thus

$$(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n)^c = A_1^c \cup A_2^c \cup \dots \cup A_n^c$$

3.2 Series

A sequence is a set of numbers occurring in order, and there is a simple rule by which the terms are obtained. For example, $1, x, x^2, \dots$ is a sequence. If the terms of a sequence are considered as a sum, for instance, $1 + x + x^2 + \dots$. The expression is called a series. A series with a finite number of terms is called a finite series otherwise it is called a finite series otherwise it is called an infinite series. The summation is shown by the symbol.

When the sum is taken from the first term ($r = 1$) to the n^{th} term ($r = n$).

Example

The series $1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^{10}$ can be written as
$$X^{r-1} = \frac{1 - X^r}{1 - X}$$

The above series is called a geometric series with common ratio x . the sum

$$X^{r-1} = \frac{1 - X^r}{1 - X} = 1,$$

$$1 - x$$

$$N, \quad x = 1$$

The common ratio is x . If $-1 < x < 1$, $x^n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then the series converges to $\frac{1}{1-x}$

The infinite series

Example

Find the sum of the series

Solution

$$(1-p)^{r-1} = 1 + (1-p) + (1-p)^2 + \dots$$

The common ratio is $1-p$, from (1) let $x = 1-p$, we have

$$(1-p)^{r-1} = \frac{1}{1-(1-p)} = \frac{1}{p}$$

And

$$(1-p)^{r-1} = \frac{1-(1-p)^r}{1-(1-p)} = \frac{1-(1-p)^r}{p}$$

Exponential series

The function $y = e^x$ is called an exponential function. This function is one of the special functions of analysis and can be defined as the sum of an infinite series. It is defined by

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^r}{r!} + \dots$$

The notation $r!$ is called factorial and is defined as $R! = r(r-1)(r-2) \dots$

For example

$$5! = 5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$$

Where $0! = 1$ and $1! = 1$. $R!$ defined above has no meaning unless r is a positive integer.

The factorial of any negative integer is infinite.

Gamma Function

It is easily shown by direct integration that when m is an integer

$$m! = \int_0^{\infty} x^m e^{-x} dx$$

Provided that $m > -1$. It can be proved that (2) will also have a meaning for fraction m . For instance, it is known that

$$\text{Since } m! = m(m-1)!. \text{ By setting } m = \frac{1}{2} \text{ we have}$$

2

3.3 The Binomial Theorem

If n is a positive integer,

$$(a+b)^n = a^n + {}^n C_1 a^{n-1} b + {}^n C_2 a^{n-2} b^2 + \dots + b^n$$

Where ${}^n C_r = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$. Using the summation notation, we have

$$(a+b)^n \text{ using the summation notation, we have}$$

Example

Find the sum of the series

$$S_n = P^n + {}^n C_{1p} P^{n-1} (1-P) + {}^n C_{2p} P^{n-2} (1-P)^2 + \dots + (1-P)^n C_r P + (1-P)^r$$

Substituting p and $1-p$ for a, b in the binomial theorem above, we have

Thus,

Generalization of the Binomial theorem is the **multinomial** theorem. If n is a positive integer

$$(a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_k)^n = \sum \dots \sum \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_k!} a_1^{n_1} a_2^{n_2} \dots a_k^{n_k}$$

Sum is over all n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k where $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_k = n$.

3.4 Product Notation

The product of the terms of a sequence x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n can be written as $x_1 x_2 x_3 \dots x_n$. This product is shown by the symbol.

Where the product is taken from x_1 , (the first term) to the n th term, x_n . For example,

$$n_1! n_2! \dots n_k! \text{ and } a_1^{n_1} a_2^{n_2} \dots a_k^{n_k}$$

Can be written as

Thus the multinomial theorem can be written as

Example

$$(a_1+a_2+a_3)^2 = \sum \sum \frac{2!}{3}$$

When $n=2, k=3$. Possible values of n_1 are

$$n_1=2, n_2=0, n_3=0$$

$$n_1=0, n_2=2, n_3=0$$

$$n_1=0, n_2=0, n_3=2$$

$$n_1=1, n_2=1, n_3=0$$

$$n_1=1, n_2=1, n_3=1$$

$$n_1=0, n_2=1, n_3=1$$

hence, we have

$$(a_1+a_2+a_3)^2 = a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2 + 2a_1a_2 + 2a_1a_3 + 2a_2a_3$$

3.5 Exponential Functions

These are functions in which the variable occurs in the index, for example $e^{3x}, 2^{2x}$ are called

exponential functions. Let $y = e^{h(x)}$ then

For example, if $y = e^{3x^2}$ then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 6xe^{3x^2}$$

Derivative of $\log_e h(x)$ If $y = \log_e h(x)$ then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{h(x)} \cdot \frac{dh(x)}{dx}$$

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, we have stated the elements of set and subsets. We have also dealt with the use of de Morgan's Law for two sets. Also the sum of series were dealt with.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, the following have been covered:

- Sets and subsets of objects/numbers
- Differences of two sets

- De Morgan's Law
- Series
- Exponential Series
- The Binomial Theorem
- Exponential functions
- Product Notation

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Prove that if $A \subset B$ and $B \subset C$, then $A \subset C$
2. Prove de Morgan's first law using a Venn diagram
3. Let $\Omega = \{1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8\}$, $A = \{1,4,6\}$ and $B = \{4,6,7\}$ then find
 - (i) $A \cap B$
 - (ii) A^c
 - (iii) $A \cup B^c$

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Harry Frank & Steven C. Althoen (1995). Statistics: Concepts and Applications. Cambridge University Press.

UNIT2 MATHEMATICS OF COUNTING

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
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 - 3.2 Event
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Probability had its origin in games of chances such as disc and card games. The number of definitions you can find for it is limited only by the number of books you may wish to consult. Probability can be defined as a measure put on occurrence of a random phenomenon. Probability theory is developed as a study of the outcomes of a trail of an experiment.

2.0 OBJECTIVE

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- write down sample space of set of items
- state the 'event' in a set outcomes
- write down the possible outcomes in an event
- state the probability of a prime, even number or odd number when a die is rolled
- use classical approach to calculate probability.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

Definition

An experiment is a phenomenon to be observed according to a clearly defined procedure. Probabilities are numbers between 0 and 1, inclusive that reflect the chances of a particular physical event occurring. If a die is tossed once, the possible outcomes are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, let $\Omega = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. Then Ω is a set consisting of all possible outcomes of tossing a die once. This set is given a name, it is called a sample space.

Example 1.1

Write down the sample space for each of the following experiments

- (i) Toss a coin 3 times and observe the total number of heads
- (ii) A box contains 6 items of which 2 are defective. One item is chosen one after the other without replacement until the last defective item is chosen. We observe the total number of items removed from the box.

Solution

- (i) Possible outcomes are: number of heads is 0 when we have TTT, number of heads is 1 when we have HTT or THT or TTH, number of heads is 2 when we have HHT, THH, HTH and number of heads are 0, 1, 2, 3. Hence the sample space $\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$
- (ii) Total number of items removed is 2 if we have "the first is defective (D) and the second is defective (D) (Note that the total number of items removed cannot be 0 or 1) denoted by DD. The total number of items removed is 3 if we have GDD or DGD (where G denoted good item), and so on. Thus, the sample space

$$\Omega = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

Definition 1.2 Event

Any subset A of a sample space Ω is called an event, where $A \subset \Omega$.

Example 1.2

The following are examples of events

- (i) An odd number occurs when a die is rolled once

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

- (ii) Toss a coin 3 times, the total number of heads observed is even

$$\Omega = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}, A = \{0, 2\}$$

Definition 1.3 Trial of an Experiment

A trial is a single performance of an experiment

There are basically two methods for assigning probabilities to events. These are

- (i) Relative frequency approach
- (ii) Classical approach

(i) Relative Frequency Approach

If we are interested in the occurrence of an event A, we could perform a large number of trials and define the relative frequency of A as

$$RF(A) = \frac{\text{Number of trials in which A occurs}}{\text{Total number of trials}}$$

The ratio $RF(A)$ is called the empirical probability. If the number of trials is very large $RF(A)$ will (in most cases) tend to a particular value called the probability that the event A will occur, that is $RF(A)$ is an estimate of $P(A)$, the probability that A will occur.

Example 1.3

Suppose we are interested in the occurrence of a “6” when we roll a well balanced die (fair die) the die is then rolled 100 times and “6” appeared 15 times. The relative frequency of “6” is thus $\frac{15}{100}$ which is the empirical probability of getting 6

(ii) Classical Approach:

In the above example, there are six ways the die can fall when it is rolled once. So we can define a theoretical probability by

$$P(6) = \frac{\text{number of ways of getting a “6” when rolled once}}{\text{Total number of possible outcomes when rolled once}} = \frac{1}{6}$$

The classical approach to probability gives

$$P(A) = \frac{n_A}{n_\Omega}$$

This definition is valid only when outcomes are equally likely.

Example 1.4

A coin is rolled thrice. The possible outcomes assumed to be equally likely are $\Omega = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, TTT, TTH, THT, THH\}$
 Let A be the event that 2 heads occur. Then

$$A = \{HHT, HTH, THH\}$$

$$n_\Omega = 8, n_A = 3$$

hence

$$P(A) = \frac{3}{8}$$

This classical approach when applicable (the possible outcomes are equally likely) has

the advantage of being exact. Thus to compute a probability by using the above definition one must be able to count.

(i) n_Ω the total number of possible outcomes in the sample space and

(ii) n_A , the number of ways in which event A can occur

equally like outcomes are also called equally probable outcomes. If an event cannot occur its probability is 0, if it must occur its probability is 1.

The computation of n_A and n_Ω is easy if Ω has only a few possible outcomes, as the number of possible outcomes becomes large, this method of counting all possible outcomes are cumbersome and time-consuming.

Alternative methods of counting must therefore be developed. For example if one asks for the probability of getting a sum of numbers showing to be 30 when 7 dice are rolled one must determine how many different ways are possible to get the sum to be 30. Such possible ways include

(6,6,6,6,2,1,3) (2,5,2,6,6,3), (4,4,4,4,4,4,6)

In this chapter we introduce a non-technical discussion of techniques of mathematics of counting frequently needed in problems of finding n_A and n_Ω

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

1. A die is rolled once. What are the probabilities of getting

- (i) An even number
- (ii) A prime number
- (iii) A non-prime number
- (iv) An odd number
- (v) An even number

Fundamental Principle of Counting

First Law of Counting

If an event A_1 can occur in n_1 ways and thereafter an event A_2 can occur in n_2 ways, "both A_1 and A_2 can occur in this order in $n_1 n_2$ ways.

Example 1.5

Roll a die first and then a coin

A_1 can occur in 6 ways (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6) and A_2 can occur in 2 ways (H or T). Thus, by the above law, there are

$$6 \times 2 = 12$$

Possible ways for the outcomes

The outcomes are

(1,H)	(1,T)	(5,H)	(5,T)
(2,H)	(2,T)	(6,H)	(6,T)
(3,H)	(3,T)	(4,H)	(4,T)

In general, if an event A_1 can occur in n_1 different ways and if following this an event

A_2 can occur in n_2 different ways, and if following this a second event, an event A_3 can occur in n_3 different ways and so forth, then the events A_1 and A_2 and $A_3 \dots$ and A_k can occur in this order in $n_1 n_2 \dots n_k$ ways.

Example 1.6

If a die is rolled 10 times. Let A_i denote the outcome of the roll, $i=1, 2, \dots, 10$. A_i can occur in 6 ways.

Thus the number of ways A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{10} can occur is 6^{10} possible outcomes.

That is

$$N_{\Omega} = 6^{10}$$

Second Law of Counting

If an event A_1 can occur in n_1 different ways and an event A_2 can occur in n_2 ways then either A_1 or A_2 can occur in $n_1 + n_2$ different ways.

Example 1.7

Let us toss a die or a coin once. Let A_1 be the event "the die shows an even number" and A_2 be the event "the coin lands heads". A_1 can occur in 3 ways (2, 4 or 6) and A_2 can occur only once.

\the number of ways in which an even number or a head be obtained is

$$3 + 1 = 4$$

A_1 can occur in 3 ways A_2 can occur in 1 way

Therefore A_1 or A_2 can occur in 4 ways

In general, if events A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k can occur in n_1, \dots, n_k different ways, then either A_1 or A_2 or \dots or A_k can occur in $n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_k$ different ways.

Example 1.8

Four people enter a restaurant for lunch in which there are six chairs. In how many ways can they be seated.

Let A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4 denote the events "choice of chair by the four people", the suffix denoting order of seating. The first person has six choices. He can decide to sit on any of the six vacant chairs. Therefore, there are 6 different ways A_1 can occur, after the first person has seated, the second person can sit on any of the remaining 5 chairs. Thereafter the third person can sit on the remaining 4 chairs. Thus, using the notation of law of counting

$$n_1=6, n_2=5, n_3=4, n_4=3$$

$$6 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 = 360 \text{ ways}$$

They can be seated.

Example 1.9

How many 4 digit numbers can be formed from the digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 if the first digit must not be 0 and repetition of digits are not allowed.

Let A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4 denote the events: select the first, second, third and fourth digits respectively since the first digit cannot be 0, the first digit can be either 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 therefore A_1 can occur in 5 ways, having chosen the first digit the second digit can be selected from the remaining 5 digits. After the first and second digit have been chosen, there remains 4 digits. The third digit can be chosen from the remaining 4 digits and the fourth can be chosen from the remaining 3 digits. Therefore, A_1, A_2, A_3 and A_4 can occur in 5, 4, 3, 2 ways respectively. Thus there

$$5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 = 120 \text{ numbers}$$

Example 1.10

Ten candidates are eligible to fill 4 vacant positions. How many ways are there of filling them?

Let A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4 be the events denoting candidates that fill positions 1, 2, 3, 4 respectively. Candidate filling position 1 can be any of the ten candidates, therefore A_1

can occur in 10 ways. Following this, the next position 2 can be filled by any of the remaining 9 candidates since position 1 had been filled by one candidate. Therefore A_2 can occur in 9 ways. Similarly, A_3 and A_4 can occur in 8 and 7 ways respectively. Thus there are $10 \times 9 \times 8 \times 7 = 5040$ ways

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

1. A student is to answer all the five questions in an examination. It is believed that the sequence in which the questions are answered may have a considerable effect on the performance of the student. In how many different orders can the questions be answered?
2. If a woman has 10 blouses and 6 skirts, in how many ways can she choose a dress assuming any combination of blouse and skirt matches?
3. In a study of plants, five characteristics are to be examined. If there are six recognizable differences in each of four characteristics and eight recognizable differences in the remaining characteristics. How many plants can be distinguished by these five characteristics?
4. A bus starts with 6 people and stops at 10 different stops, how many different ways can the 6 people depart if
 - (i) Any passenger can depart at any bus stop
 - (ii) Not two passengers can leave at the same bus stop
5. Show that the number of ways of choosing r objects from n objects with replacement is given by n^r

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this unit, emphasis has been on the concept of probability, sample space, occurrence of events, laws of counting. Also, different ways of arranging objects.

5.0 SUMMARY

Two methods for assigning probabilities to events were discussed as relative and classical approaches. The fundamental principle of counting were discussed under the first and second laws. Permutation and combination of n distinct objects where the number of possible permutations of several objects gives the number of different rankings possible were also studied

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENTS

1. What is the probability of drawing either a heart or a face card (king, queen or jack) on one drawing from a 52-card deck?
2. Consider the following experiment and random variable: Roll an ordinary 6-sided die and count the spots on the uppermost face.
 - (i) What is the value set for this random variable?

- (ii) Let E_1 be “obtain a prime number.” What is $P(E_1)$?
- (iii) What is $P(E_2/E_1)$?
- (iv) Are these two events independent? Why or why not?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Harry Frank & Steven C. Althoen (1995). *Statistics: Concepts and Applications*. Cambridge University Press.

UNIT 3 PERMUTATION AND COMBINATION

CONTENT

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

A permutation is an arrangement of objects in a definite order (called ordered sample). A combination is a selection of objects without regard to order (unordered sample)

A group of objects, with regard to permutation and combination has three characteristics:

1. The way the objects in a group are arranged
2. The kind of objects in the group
3. The number of objects of each kind in the group

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- state both the way objects are arranged and the kind of objects in a group
- define permutation and combination concepts
- state how many permutations can be formed in a given set
- state the distinct combinations of a given number of objects without replacement
- use basic rules of permutations and combinations to solve related problems.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Permutations

Suppose that a set contains n objects. We are often interested in arranging the objects in a definite order.

Two groups containing n objects are said to form different permutations if they differ in arrangements

Consider groups of letters a, b, c, d .

$(a, b, c, d): (b, c, d, a): (c, a, d, b)$

They are all different permutations because the arrangement of the letters is different in each group.

Example 1.11

How many permutations of four letters can be formed from the letters a, b, c, d . To answer this question we reason as follows:

Since we are permuting 4 letters, four events are involved. Let A_1 be the event denoting the letter to occupy the i th position. A_1 can occur in 4 ways, that is the first letter can be either $a, b, c, \text{ or } d$. After this event has taken place, A_2 can occur in three ways (that is, after having chosen the first letter, the letter occupying the second position can be chosen from the remaining three letters. After this second event, there remain only two letters from which one is to be chosen to occupy the third position. So A_3 is 2 and it remains only one letter.

A_4 can occur only in one way. Thus, there are $4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 24$ permutations of the four letters. Permutation of four objects from four objects is called permutation of order 4 and is denoted by 4P_4

3.2 Permutation of n Distinct Objects

Consider a set consisting of n distinct objects. Permutation of this set consists of n events

A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n , where the object occupying the i th position is the outcome of $A_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. A_1 can occur in n ways, A_2 can occur in $n-1$ ways and so on.

Thus there are $(n-1)(n-2) \dots \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$ permutations of the n objects. The number of permutations of n distinct objects is $n!$.

Example 1.12

If n balls are distributed at random into r boxes, in how many ways can this be done if

- (i) Each of the balls can go into any of the boxes
- (ii) No box has more than one ball.

Solution

- (i) Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n where the object occupying the i th position is the outcome of A_i $i=1, 2, \dots, n$. A_1 can occur in 1 way, A_2 can occur in 1 way and so on.
- (ii) The first ball can go into any of the boxes, the second any one of the remaining $(r-1)$ boxes etc, so in all there are $(r-1)(r-2)\dots(r-n+1)$ different ways ($n \leq r$).

Example 1.13

How many permutations of three letters can be formed from the letters a, b, c, d, e. abc, bae, cba, cdb, are few of the required permutations. Since the permutation consists of 3 letters, 3 events are involved, A_1, A_2, A_3 . The first letter can be any of the 5 letters, therefore A_1 can occur in 5 ways. Similarly A_3 can occur in 3 ways. Thus, there are $5 \times 4 \times 3 = 60$

Permutation of three letters from 5 letters. This is denoted by 5P_3 (5 permutation 3).

Definition 1.4

The number of permutations of r ($r \leq n$) objects from n distinct objects is called n permutation r and is denoted by ${}^n P_r$. It can easily be shown that

$${}^n P_r = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-r+1)$$

to see this we can argue as follows. Since we are permuting r objects, there are r events

A_1, A_2, \dots, A_r involved.

The first position can be occupied by any of the n objects, following this the second position can be occupied by any of the remaining $n-1$ objects and so on. Therefore A_1, A_2, \dots, A_r can occur in $n, n-1, n-2, \dots, n-(r-1)$ ways respectively. Thus the number of permutations is

But

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

$$n! = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-r+1)(n-r)(n-r-1)\dots 1 \tag{3.2.1}$$

$$(n-r)! = (n-r)(n-r-1)\dots 2.1$$

$$\frac{n!}{(n-r)!} = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-r+1).$$

Therefore

$${}^n P_r = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-r+1)$$

$${}^n P_r = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

In example 1.13 above, $n=5, r=3$

$${}^5 P_3 = \frac{5!}{(5-3)!} = \frac{5!}{2!} = 5 \times 4 \times 3 = 60$$

Example 1.14

A group of students consist of 5 men and 3 women. The students are ranked according to their performance in a quiz competition. Assuming not two students obtain the same score

- (i) How many different ranking are possible?
- (ii) If the men are ranked just among themselves and the women among themselves, how many different rankings are possible?

Solution

- (i) A possible ranking correspond to a permutation of the students. The number of possible permutation of the 8 students give the number of different ranking possible. Thus the answer is

$$P_8 = \frac{8!}{(8-8)!} = 8! = 40320.$$

- (ii) There are ${}^5 P_5 = 5! = 120$ possible ranking of the men and ${}^3 P_3 = 3! = 6$ possible ranking of the women. It follows from the fundamental principle of counting that there are

$${}^5 P_5 \times {}^3 P_3 = 5! \times 3! = 720 \text{ - possible rankings}$$

Example 1.15

Four digit numbers are to be formed using any of the digits 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, (No repetition of digit is allowed).

- (i) How many four digit number can be formed
- (ii) How many 4 digit numbers greater than 3000 can be formed?
- (iii) How many 4-digit even numbers can be formed?

(iv) How many of these even 4-digit numbers are greater than 3000?

Solution

(i) This is a permutation of 4 digits from 6 digits. Therefore the different permutation is

$${}^6P_4 = \frac{6!}{2!} = 360.$$

Alternatively, we can reason as follows:

The first digit to be selected can be any of the six given digits, so $n_1 = 6$. The second digit to be selected can be any of the remaining 5 digits (since no repetition is allowed) so $n_2 = 5$. Similarly, $n_3 = 4$ and $n_4 = 3$. Thus, the answer is

$$N = n_1 \times n_2 \times n_3 \times n_4 = 6 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 = 360$$

(ii)

Since the number must be greater than 3000, the first digit must be chosen from 3, 4, 5, or 6 so $n_1 = 4$. The second digit can be any of the remaining 5 digits, so $n_2 = 5$ similarly, $n_3 = 4$, $n_4 = 3$. Thus, there are

$$4 \times 5 \times 4 \times 3 = 240$$

4-digit numbers greater than 3000 that can be formed using the digits 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6,

(iii)

A number can be defined to be an even number if the last digit of the number is even. Going by this definition, we see that the required number is even if the last digit is 2, 4, or 6. Since there is a restriction on the last digit, we have to select the last digit first. The last digit can be selected from 2, 4, or 6, so we have 3 choices. Having chosen the last digit, we can now select the first, second and third digit. After choosing the last digit there remains 5 digits, so $n_1 = 5$ similarly, $n_2 = 4$, $n_3 = 3$. Thus, the answer is $5 \times 4 \times 3 \times 3 = 180$

(iv)

The last digit must be 2, 4, or 6 and the first digit must be 3, 4, 5, or 6. If the last digit is 2, then the number of ways of selecting the first digit is 4. However, if the last digit is selected as 4 or 6 then the number of ways of selecting the first digit is 3 (that is 3, 5 or 6, 3, 4 or 5)

Case I: $n_4 = 1, n_1 = 4, n_2 = 4, n_3 = 3$

The number of 4-digit numbers that can be formed in this case is

$$4 \times 4 \times 3 \times 1 = 48$$

Case II: $n_4 = 2, n_1 = 3, n_2 = 4, n_3 = 3$

The number of 4-digit numbers that can be formed in this case is

$$3 \times 4 \times 3 \times 2 = 72$$

Hence, the total numbers of even 4 digit numbers greater than 3000 that can be formed is

$$48 + 72 = 120.$$

Example 1.16

The letters A, B, C, D and E are placed at random to form a five letters word (without repetition). How many ways can a word be formed such that

- (i) D directly follows A.
- (ii) A and D follow each other
- (iii) A, D and E follow each other

Solution

- (i) For D to directly follow A, we must always have AD appearing in the word so formed. AD can be regarded as a letter so that we now have the letters B, C, E and AD. The number of ways of rearranging these new four letters is $4!$. Thus there are $4! = 24$ ways of forming a word such that D directly follows A.
- (ii) A and D follow each other; either we have AD or DA each having $4!$ ways. Thus there are $2 \times 4!$ ways of forming a word such that A and D follow each other.
- (iii) ADE can be regarded as a letter so that we now have the letters B, C, ADE. There are $3!$ permutations of the new 3 letters. ADE can also be permuted in $3!$ ways, that is

ADE, AED, DAE, DEA, EAD, EDA.

Thus there are

$$3! \times 3! = 36 \text{ ways}$$

3.3 Permutation of Indistinguishable Objects

Consider n objects where n_1 are of type 1, n_2 of type 2, ..., n_k of type k , in shown many ways can the object be arranged.

For example in how many ways can the letters of the word book be arranged. here $n=4, k=3, n_1=1, n_2=2, n_3=1$. First give the two O's suffixes $o_1 o_2 k$. then treating the O's as different, the 4 letters may be arranged in $4!$ ways. In every distinct arrangement, the 2 O's may be rearranged amongst themselves in $2!$ ways without altering the permutation for

instance 1b02k are the same when the suffixes are removed.

Therefore, the number of permutations of the letters of the word book is

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

Book, ookb, oobk, obok, okob, koob.

In general, the number of ways in which n objects where n_1 are of type 1, n_2 of type 2, ..., n_k of type k can be arranged is given by

$$\frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_k!}$$

Example 1.17

How many distinct permutations are there of the letters of the word Television? The ten letters to be permuted consist of 2 e's, 2 i's, 1 T, 1 v, 1 s, 1 o, 1 n. Thus the number of distinct permutations is

$$\frac{10!}{2! 2! 1! 1! 1! 1! 1! 1! 2! 2!} = 10!$$

3.4 Combinations

Definition 1.5

Two groups are said to form different "combination" if they differ in the number of any kind of object in the groups. Consider a group of 4 letters a, b, c, d. the combinations abcd, bcda, cadb are identical combinations each of them contains the same number of a, b, c, d: one b, one c and one d.

The combinations of the 4 letters taken 3 at a time are:

Abc, acd, abd, cbd

Therefore, there are 4 distinct combinations for three letters from the four letters. Each of these combinations has 3! = 6 permutations. For instance,

- abc = abc, acb, cab, cba, bac, bca
- acd = acd, adc, cad, cda, dac, dca
- abd = abd, adb, bad, bda, dab, dba
- cbd = cbd, cdb, bcd, bdc, dcb, dc b

The number of distinct permutations is $P_3^4 = 24$

The number of distinct combinations is 4. Therefore,

$$\text{Number of combinations} = \frac{\text{number of permutations}}{3!}$$

The number of distinct combinations of 4 objects taken 3 at a time is denoted by 4C_3 . Thus,

$${}^4C_3 = P_3^4 / 3!$$

In general,

$${}^nC_r = \frac{P_r^n}{(n-r)!} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$$

Theorem 1.1

The number of distinct combinations of n objects taken r at a time (that is the number of ways of choosing objects out of n , disregarding order and without replacement) is given by

Proof:

There are $P_r^n = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$ permutations of n objects taken r at a time. If we disregard order among the r objects, there are $r!$ permutations that will give the same combination. Therefore the number of combinations is the number of permutations divided by $r!$ thus.

$${}^nC_r = \frac{P_r^n}{r!} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$$

Example 1.18

A club consists of 15 members. In how many ways can a committee of 3 be chosen?

Solution

This can be done in ${}^{15}C_3$ ways

$${}^{15}C_3 = \frac{15!}{3!12!} = \frac{15 \times 14 \times 13}{3 \times 2 \times 1} = 455 \text{ ways}$$

Example 1.19

A club consists of 10 men and 5 women, in how many ways can a committee of 6

consisting of 4 men and 2 women be chosen. The 4 men can be chosen from the 10 men in ${}^{10}C_4$ ways, the 2 women can be chosen from the 5 women in 5C_2 ways. Hence the committee can be chosen in (by the fundamental principle of counting)

$${}^{10}C_4 \times {}^5C_2 = \frac{10!}{6!4!} \times \frac{5!}{2!3!} = 2,100 \text{ ways}$$

Example 1.20

Suppose we have a box containing n balls of which r are black and the remaining $n-r$ are white. A random sample of size k is selected without replacement. In how many ways can the sample be selected such that it contains x black balls

The x black balls can be selected in rC_x ways and $k-x$ white balls can be selected from $n-r$ white balls. Thus, there are

$${}^rC_x \times {}^{n-r}C_{k-x}$$

ways of selecting a sample such that it contains x black balls and $k-x$ white balls

Example 1.21

A committee of 4 men and 2 women is selected from 10 men and 5 women. If two of the men are feuding and will not serve on the committee together, in how many ways can the committee be selected

Solution

The number of ways of selecting 4 men and 2 women is

$${}^{10}C_4 \times {}^5C_2 = 2100$$

The number of ways of selecting the committee such that the two men are in the committee is

$${}^8C_2 \times {}^5C_2 = 280$$

Hence, the number of different committees that can be formed such that the two men are not in the committee together is

$$2100 - 280 = 1820$$

Another method is to consider 3 cases

Case I: The two women say, A and B are not in the committee

$${}^8C_4 \times {}^5C_2 = 700$$

Case II: A is the committee but not B:

$${}^8C_4 \times {}^5C_2 = 560$$

Case III: B is the committee but not A

$${}^8C_4 \times {}^5C_2 = 560$$

Thus, the total number of ways the committee can be selected is

$$700 + 560 + 560 = 1,820$$

Example 1.22

How many subsets can be formed, containing at least one member from a set of n elements

Solution

There are ${}^n C_k$ subsets of size k that can be formed, the total number of subsets containing at least one member is

Example 1.23

A student is to answer 5 out of 8 questions in an examination. How many if he must answer at least 2 of the first 4 questions?

Solution

- (i) By the combination law the answer of ${}^8 C_5 = 56$
- (ii) Possible choices are (2,3)(3,2)(4,1) where (2,3) means answer 2 questions from the first 4 questions and 3 from the remaining 4 questions. The number of ways of doing this is ${}^4 C_2 \times {}^4 C_3$.

Thus the answer is

$$({}^4 C_2 \times {}^4 C_3) + ({}^4 C_3 \times {}^4 C_2) + ({}^4 C_4 \times {}^4 C_1) = 52$$

3.5 Partitioning

Dividing a population or a sample of n objects into k ordered parts of which the first

contain object, these r_2 objects and so on is called *ordered partition*. If the division is into *unordered parts*, then the partition is said to be unordered. For example suppose a class contains 15 students and we want to divide the class into 3 tutorial groups of 5 each. Three lecturers are available and each is to take each group. In other words, we want to divide the 15 students into 3 ordered groups (A, B, C) this is an ordered partition since there are $3! = 6$ ways

The lecturers can be assigned to take any partition, for instance groups (A, B, C) can be taken by

(L_1, L_2, L_3) or (L_2, L_1, L_3) or (L_1, L_3, L_2)

Or (L_2, L_3, L_1) or (L_3, L_2, L_1) or (L_3, L_1, L_2)

Where L_1 means lecturer 1 and (L_1, L_2, L_3) means L_1 takes group A, L_2 takes group B, L_3 takes group C and so on

There are ${}^{15}C_5$ ways of selecting those 5 students to be in group A, following this, there are 10 students left and so there are ${}^{10}C_5$ selecting those to be in the second group, therefore by the fundamental principle of counting, there are

$${}^{15}C_5 \times {}^{10}C_5 \times {}^5C_5 = \frac{15!}{10! 5!} \times \frac{10!}{5! 5!} \times \frac{5!}{5! 0!} = 15! / (5! 5! 5!)$$

Ordered partitions. The number of ways in which n objects can be divided into *ordered parts* of which the first contains r_1 objects, the second r_2 objects and so on is

$${}^n C_{r_1} \cdot {}^{n-r_1} C_{r_2} \cdot {}^{n-r_1-r_2} C_{r_3} \cdots {}^{n-r_1-r_2-\dots-r_{k-1}} C_{r_k}$$

$$= \frac{n!}{(n-r_1)! r_1!} \cdot \frac{(n-r_1)!}{(n-r_1-r_2)! r_2!} \cdots \frac{(n-r_1-r_2-\dots-r_{k-1})!}{(n-r_1-r_2-\dots-r_{k-1}-r_k)! r_k!} = \frac{n!}{r_1! r_2! r_3! \dots r_k!}$$

Where $n = r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_k$

Example 1.24

In how many ways can three committees of five, three and two persons be formed from 10 persons.

We seek the number of ordered partitions of the 10 persons

This is given by

$$\frac{10!}{5! 3! 2!} = 2520$$

Example 1.25

In how many ways can 9 toys be divided among three children if each gets 3 toys

If the toys are numbered 1 through 9, the partition $\{(1, 2, 3), (4, 5, 6), (7, 8, 9)\}$ means child A gets toys 1, 2, 3, child B gets toys (4, 5, 6) while child C gets toys 7, 8, 9. We distinguish between $\{(1, 2, 3), (4, 5, 6), (7, 8, 9)\}$ and $\{(4, 5, 6), (1, 2, 3), (7, 8, 9)\}$ so these are ordered partitions.

Thus there are

$$\frac{9!}{3! 3! 3!} = 1680 \text{ ways}$$

When $r_1 = r_2 = \dots = r_j$, we can distinguish between ordered and unordered partitions. For example, a partition of a set consisting of 8 objects numbered 1 to 8 into 3 parts of which the first contains 2 objects, the second 4 objects and the third 2 objects. A partition is

$$\{(1, 2), (3, 4, 5, 6), (7, 8)\}.$$

In an ordered partition we distinguish between the partition

$$\{(1, 2), (3, 4, 5, 6), (7, 8)\} \text{ and } \{(7, 8), (3, 4, 5, 6), (1, 2)\}$$

But they are the same for unordered partitions. Therefore, the number of unordered partitions is

$$\frac{8!}{2! 4! 2!} = 210$$

Example 1.26

In how many ways can a family of 9 divide itself into 3 groups so that each group contains 3 persons?

Solution

We are seeking for unordered partitions $r_1 = 3, r_2 = 3, r_3 = 3$

The number of unordered partitions is

$$\frac{9!}{3! 3! 3!} = 280$$

Since the three parts contain the same number of objects

The same relationship that exists between permutation and combination exists between ordered and unordered partitions of a set.

Example 1.27

In how many ways can a family of 10 be divided into three groups, one containing 4 and the others 3?

Solution

$$r_1=4, r_2=, r_3=3$$

The number of ordered partitions is

$$\frac{10!}{4! 3! 3!} = 4,200$$

And the number of unordered partitions is

$$\frac{10!}{4! 3! 3! 2!} = 2,100$$

Since only two of the three parts contain the same number of objects

3.6 Selection of Non distinct Objects

The number of ways r distinct balls can be distributed into n cells is r^n . The number of ways if a specified cell contains exactly k balls ($k=0, 1, 2, \dots, r$) is $\binom{n-1}{r-k} r^{r-k}$

That is the balls can be chosen in $\binom{n-1}{r-k}$ ways and the remaining $r-k$ balls can be placed into the remaining $n-1$ cells in r^{r-k} ways

Now, suppose the balls are non-distinct (indistinguishable) we can only talk about number of balls in the i^{th} cells

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n denote the number of balls in the i^{th} cell, then

$$X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n = r$$

The number of distinct distributions in which no cell remains empty is

$$\binom{r-1}{n-1}$$

to see this let us assume that the non-distinct objects are lined by and bars used to

divide them into groups. The balls $r-1$ space of which $n-1$ are to be occupied by bars. For example if $r=9$ and $n=5$, we have

0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

Thus 0/00/0/000/00 correspond to

$$X_1=1, X_2=2, X_3=1, X_4=3, X_5=2.$$

And there are $\binom{8}{4}$ possible distribution of the bars.

another possible distribution is 000/0/00/00

If $x_1 \geq 0$, that is cells can remain empty, then the number of non-negative solutions of

$$X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n = r$$

is the same as the number of positive solutions of

$$Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_n = r + n$$

Where $y_1 = x_1 + 1$. Thus, there are

$$\binom{r+n-1}{n-1} \tag{1.2}$$

Distinct solutions satisfying $x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n = r$

The number of distinct distribution is the number of ways $n-1$ spaces can be selected out of the $n+r-1$ spaces

Application to Runs

Definition

A run is any ordered sequence of elements of two kinds

For example, by a run of wins we mean a consecutive sequence of wins. The sequence WWLWWLLWLWW gives 4 runs of wins. The first run is length 3, the second run of length 2, the third of length 1 and the fourth of length 2.

Suppose now that we have two letters (W and L) n non-distinct letters (L) and m non-distinct letter (W). the total number of distinct orderings of W and L is $\binom{n+m}{n-r}$ runs of W is equivalent to arranging the letters W in r cells none of which is empty. If there are r runs on W,

The number of L runs is necessarily $r+1, r-1$ or. Thus from (1.1) we have $\binom{m-1}{r-1}$

1 distinct was of having r runs of W . hence there are.

$\binom{m-1}{r-1} \binom{n-1}{r}$ ways of having r runs of W and $(r+1)$ runs of L . A sequence representing r runs of W is

LL...	WW...W	LL...	WW...W	...	WW...	L..L
Y_1	X_1	Y_2	X_2		X_r	Y_{r+1}

Where $y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_{r+1} = n, y_i \geq x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_r = m, x_i \geq 0$.

Let $y_{i+1} = y_i + 1, i = 2, \dots, r, y_{r+1} = y_{r+1} + 1$

The number of non-negative solutions to

$$Y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_{r+1} = n, (y_i \geq 0)$$

Is the same as number of positive solutions to

$$Y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_{r+1} = n + 2$$

Thus, the number of outcomes that result in r runs is $\binom{n+1}{r}$

Hence, $\sum_{r=1}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{r-1} \binom{n-1}{r}$ is the total number of ways of having runs of W

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 3

- i. How many 4 digit numbers can be formed from the digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 if the first digit must not be 0 and repetitions is allowed. how many of these numbers are (i) even (ii) less than 5,000?
- ii. A code consists of five symbols. The first three symbols are letters and the last two are digits. How many codes can be made if no letter nor digit is repeated in any codeword?
- iii. Suppose objects are permuted at random among themselves. In how many ways can this be done such that k specified objects occupy k specified positions
- iv. How many distinct arrangements are there of the letters of word (i) University (ii) biology (iii) Mississippi
- v. The number 1, 2, 3, ... n are arranged in random order. in how many ways can this be done such that
 - (i) 1 and 2 follow each other
 - (ii) 2, 3 and 4 follow each other in that order
- vi. Show that the number of distinct ordered samples of size r that can be drawn from a population with n objects is
 - (i) $\frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$ if sampling is with replacement and
 - (ii) $\frac{n!}{r!}$ if sampling is without replacement

- $n - r!$
- vii. A total of n balls are randomly placed into r cells. In how many ways can this be done. In how many ways if each cell is occupied
- viii. A warehouse has 6 different containers to be distributed among 10 retailers. In how many ways can this be done? How many ways if no retailer receives more than one container?
- ix. Prove the following identities
 a. ${}^n C_x = {}^n C_{n-x}$ (b) ${}^{m+1} C_x = {}^m C_x + {}^m C_{x-1}$
- x. (a) In how many ways can 4 boys and 2 girls be arranged to sit in a row? (b) In how many ways if only the boys must sit together?
 (c) In how many ways if the boy and no girl must sit together? (d) In how many ways if no boy and no girl must sit together?
- xi. In how many ways can a football team be selected from 15 players. In how many ways if 6 particular players must be included in the team?
- xii. From a box containing 5 red, 4 white and 3 black marbles, three marbles are drawn one after the other without replacement, how many ways can this be done if
 (i) all are white
 (ii) 2 are white and 1 is red
 (iii) at least one is black
- xiii. A pair of dice is rolled once. In how many ways can
 (i) The sum of the two numbers appearing exceeds 8
 (ii) The maximum of the two numbers is greater than 4
 (iii) The minimum of the two numbers is greater than 4
- xiv. A disciplinary committee of four is to be chosen from six men and five women. One particular man and one particular woman refuse to serve if the other person is on the committee. How many committees may be formed
- xv. Eleven people are to travel in two cars - salon and station wagon. The salon has 4 seats and the station wagon 7 seats. In how many ways can the party be split up?
- xvi. In how many ways can a committee of 6 be composed of 3 full professors, 2 associate professors and 1 senior lecturer be selected from 5 full professors, 10 associate professors and 20 senior lecturers
- xvii. A box contains 12 balls labeled 1, 2, 3, ..., 12, suppose a random sample of size 4 is selected. In how many ways can the sample be selected if balls labeled 2, 3, are among the four selected.
- xviii. Suppose a random sample of size r is drawn from a population of n objects. In how many ways can this be done if a given object must be included in the sample and (a) sampling is without replacement (b) Sampling is with replacement
- xix. I bought 2 tickets to a lottery for which n tickets were sold and 4 prizes to be given in how many ways can the tickets be drawn such that I win at least a prize?
- xx. A committee of 8 is to be formed from 10 couples (10 men and 10 women). In how many ways can the committee be formed if no husband serves on it with his wife.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The arrangement of objects in different ways had been stated in permutation and

combination. Permutation is characterized by the identity of the elements it includes and by the order in which they appear. It was deduced that by the extended principle of multiplication, the number of permutations of all N objects must be $N(N - 1)(N - 2) \dots 1 = N!$

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed permutation and combination, basic rules of permutations and combinations and how to solve related problems using them.

We also studied a combination as a selection of distinct objects without regard to order. It was also noted that the total number of permutations is therefore equal to the number of combinations multiplied by the number of ways to order each combination.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Lines are drawn top to bottom through six points. In how many ways can this be done if each line passes through only two points?
2. Interchanges may occur between any two of the chromosomes of a cell
3. (a) In how many ways can exactly one interchange occur?
(b) In how many ways can exactly k interchanges occur?
4. If $n=5$, in how many ways can at most three interchanges occur?
5. Prove that $C_k^{n_1+n_2} = C_r^{n_1} C_{k-r}^{n_2}$ where $k \leq n_1, n_2$
HINT: Select k objects from $n_1 + n_2$ objects of n_1 of type I and n_2 of type II
6. A company is considering building additional warehouse at new locations. There are ten satisfactory locations and the company must decide how many and which one to select. How many choices are there?
7. Are there more samples obtainable in five draws from 10 objects with replacement than 12 objects without replacement?
8. Each of fifty items is tested and found to be defective or non-defective. How many possible outcomes are there?

7.0 REFERENCE/FURTHER READING

Harry Frank & Steven C. Althoen (1995). Statistics: Concepts and Applications. Cambridge University Press.