

# What is the probability of “At Least One” Success?

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December 13, 2025

## RECOMMENDED CITATION

stats writer (2025). *What is the probability of “At Least One” Success?*. PSYCHOLOGICAL SCALES. Retrieved from <https://scales.arabpsychology.com/?p=107339>

The concept of calculating the probability of "At Least One" success is fundamental in probability theory, especially when analyzing sequences of events or trials. This measure determines the likelihood that a desired outcome occurs at least one time throughout a specified sequence of repeated experiments. Whether you are analyzing quality control in manufacturing, success rates in sports, or risk assessment in finance, understanding this calculation is essential for making informed decisions.

Mathematically, the probability of at least one success is the complement of the probability of having zero successes (i.e., all outcomes being failures). Calculating the probability of zero successes is often significantly simpler than calculating and summing the probabilities of one success, two successes, and so on, up to  $n$  successes. Therefore, we utilize the powerful method known as the Complement Rule.

The relationship is formally expressed as:  **$P(\text{At Least One Success}) = 1 - P(\text{No Successes})$** . This foundational rule simplifies complex combinatorial problems into a straightforward subtraction problem, providing a clean and efficient path to the desired probability. We will delve into how to apply this rule effectively across various practical scenarios.

## The Power of the Complement Rule in Probability

In probability, the set of all possible outcomes for an experiment must sum to 1 (or 100%). The Complement Rule dictates that the probability of an event occurring plus the probability of that event not occurring must equal 1. When we are looking for the probability of "at least one" success, we are interested in a range of outcomes: 1 success, 2 successes, 3 successes, all the way up to  $n$  successes. The only scenario excluded from this range is **zero successes**.

Because the event "at least one success" and the event "zero successes" (total failure) are mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive, they are complements of each other. Therefore, instead of calculating  $P(1) + P(2) + \dots + P(n)$ , we simply find  $P(0)$  and subtract it from 1. This dramatic reduction in necessary calculations is why the method is so widely used in statistical analysis, particularly when dealing with trials that are independent.

To ensure a robust understanding, consider a specific scenario: Imagine that 4% of students at a major university identify mathematics as their favorite subject. If we randomly select a single student, the probability of success-- $P(\text{prefers math})$ --is 0.04. However, practical applications often require us to examine multiple selections simultaneously. What happens if we select three students? We need to determine the probability that **at least one** of these three students favors mathematics.

## Applying the Calculation to Independent Trials

To solve the problem--finding the probability that at least one of three randomly selected students prefers math--we must follow a structured, three-step approach rooted in the Complement Rule. This method is particularly suitable when dealing with sequences where each selection is an independent event.

Here is the detailed process for determining  $P(\text{At Least One Success})$  when  $P(\text{Success}) = 0.04$  and the number of trials,  $n$ , equals 3:

### Determine the Probability of Failure in a Single Trial ( $P(\text{Failure})$ ):

The initial step requires us to identify the probability that the desired event does *not* occur in a single trial. Since the probability of success-- $P(\text{prefers math})$ --is 0.04, the probability of failure-- $P(\text{does not prefer math})$ --is found by subtracting the success probability from 1:

$$P(\text{Failure}) = 1 - P(\text{Success}) = 1 - 0.04 = \mathbf{0.96}.$$

### Calculate the Probability of Total Failure ( $P(\text{No Successes})$ ):

Total failure means that every single trial in the sequence results in a failure. Since we assume the selection of each student is an independent event, we can find the probability of all three students failing (i.e., none prefer math) by multiplying their individual failure probabilities together. If there are  $n$  trials, we raise  $P(\text{Failure})$  to the power of  $n$ .

$$P(\text{No Successes}) = (P(\text{Failure}))^n = (0.96)^3 \approx \mathbf{0.8847}.$$

This result, 0.8847, signifies the cumulative probability that all three randomly selected students do not prefer math as their favorite subject.

### Apply the Complement Rule to Find $P(\text{At Least One Success})$ :

The final step involves using the core principle of the complement. By subtracting the probability of zero successes (total failure) from 1, we isolate the probability of all other possibilities--the event of having one or more successes.

$$P(\text{At Least One Success}) = 1 - P(\text{No Successes}) = 1 - 0.8847 \approx \mathbf{0.1153}.$$

Therefore, there is an 11.53% chance that at least one of the three randomly selected students prefers math.

## The General Formula for Calculating "At Least One" Probability

While the three-step breakdown provides clarity on the underlying mathematical logic, in practice, the calculation is condensed into a single, efficient formula. This generalized model is applicable across all scenarios involving a fixed number of trials where the success or failure of one trial does not influence any subsequent trials (i.e., they are independent).

The general formula succinctly encapsulates the Complement Rule applied to a series of events:

$$P(\text{at least one success}) = 1 - P(\text{failure in one trial})^n$$

In this expression, **P(failure in one trial)** is the probability of the complementary event (1 minus the probability of success), and  $n$  represents the total number of independent trials being observed. This formula confirms our earlier calculation, yielding the same results in a more direct manner:

$$P(\text{at least one student prefers math}) = 1 - (0.96)^3 \approx \mathbf{0.1153}.$$

Mastering this formula is essential for quick computation in statistical contexts, especially those relating to the Binomial Distribution, where we determine the likelihood of a specific number of successes in a fixed number of independent trials. The following examples provide further practice utilizing this condensed method across diverse real-world scenarios.

### Case Study 1: Analyzing Success Rates in Sports (Free Throws)

Consider a basketball player, Mike, who has a historically consistent success rate of 20% on his free-throw attempts. If he attempts 5 free throws during a crucial moment in the game, the question arises: What is the probability that he successfully makes **at least one** shot out of these five attempts? This scenario perfectly illustrates the utility of the "at least one" rule, as calculating  $P(1) + P(2) + P(3) + P(4) + P(5)$  would be needlessly complex.

We first define the parameters based on the problem statement:

$$P(\text{Success}) = P(\text{Mike makes a shot}) = 0.20$$

$$P(\text{Failure}) = P(\text{Mike misses a shot}) = 1 - 0.20 = 0.80$$

$$\text{Number of trials } (n) = 5$$

Applying the simplified Complement Rule formula, we calculate the probability of total failure (missing all five shots) and subtract it from 1:

$$P(\text{makes at least one}) = 1 - P(\text{misses all 5 attempts})$$

$$P(\text{makes at least one}) = 1 - (P(\text{Failure}))^n$$

$$P(\text{makes at least one}) = 1 - (0.80)^5$$

The value of  $(0.80)^5$  is 0.32768. Therefore, the final probability is:

$$P(\text{makes at least one}) = 1 - 0.32768 \approx \mathbf{0.672}.$$

The result demonstrates that Mike has approximately a 67.2% chance of making at least one successful free throw in five attempts. This high probability, despite a low individual success rate, highlights how repeating trials increases the overall likelihood of achieving at least one positive outcome.

## Case Study 2: Quality Control and Defective Rates (Widgets)

In manufacturing and quality assurance, this probabilistic approach is critical for assessing risk. Suppose a factory producing electronic widgets maintains a defect rate of 2%. If a quality control inspector randomly selects a sample of 10 widgets for testing, we must determine the probability that this sample contains **at least one defective** item. In this context, "success" is defined as finding a defective widget, as that is the event we are tracking.

The necessary variables are established as follows:

$$P(\text{Success}) = P(\text{Widget is defective}) = 0.02$$

$$P(\text{Failure}) = P(\text{Widget is non-defective}) = 1 - 0.02 = 0.98$$

$$\text{Number of trials } (n) = 10$$

We use the complement to find the probability that all 10 widgets are perfect (i.e., zero defective widgets):

$$P(\text{at least one defective}) = 1 - P(\text{all 10 are non-defective})$$

$$P(\text{at least one defective}) = 1 - (0.98)^{10}$$

Calculating  $(0.98)^{10}$  yields approximately 0.81707. Substituting this back into the formula:

$$P(\text{at least one defective}) = 1 - 0.81707 \approx \mathbf{0.183}.$$

Despite the low individual defect rate of 2%, sampling 10 items results in an 18.3% chance of encountering at least one defective unit. This insight is highly valuable for setting acceptable sampling sizes and risk thresholds in industrial operations.

## Case Study 3: Assessing Skill Performance (Trivia)

This final example demonstrates a crucial feature of the "at least one" calculation: the definition of success can shift based on the question being asked. Suppose Bob, a skilled trivia player, typically answers 75% of questions correctly. If he is asked 3 new questions, we want to find the probability

that he answers **at least one incorrectly**. In this context, "success" is defined as an incorrect answer (failure in performance), which is the complementary event to his usual success rate.

We redefine success and failure based on the objective of the calculation:

$P(\text{Bob answers correctly}) = 0.75$  (This is the failure of our target event,  $P(0 \text{ successes})$ )

$P(\text{Bob answers incorrectly}) = P(\text{Success for the calculation}) = 1 - 0.75 = 0.25$

Number of trials ( $n$ ) = 3

The goal is  $P(\text{At Least One Incorrect})$ . The complement is  $P(\text{Zero Incorrect})$ , which means  $P(\text{All Correct})$ . We calculate total success (all correct answers) and subtract it from 1:

$P(\text{at least one incorrect}) = 1 - P(\text{all 3 are correct})$

$P(\text{at least one incorrect}) = 1 - (0.75)^3$

Calculating  $(0.75)^3$  yields 0.421875. Therefore, the resulting probability is:

$P(\text{at least one incorrect}) = 1 - 0.421875 \approx \mathbf{0.578}$ .

Even with a high baseline proficiency, the probability of making at least one mistake across three questions is surprisingly high (57.8%). This highlights how quickly the likelihood of a complementary event grows as the number of independent trials increases, a critical insight for risk and performance modeling.

## Summary and Computational Tools

The determination of the probability of "At Least One" success is one of the most practical applications of the Complement Rule in statistics. By focusing on the complementary event--the probability of total failure--we bypass potentially extensive calculations required to sum the probabilities of all other outcomes. This method remains robust as long as the underlying events are defined as independent trials.

Whether analyzing student preferences, manufacturing defects, or personal performance metrics, the core formula  **$P(\text{at least one success}) = 1 - P(\text{failure in one trial})^n$**  provides an efficient pathway to understanding cumulative probability across multiple iterations. The ability to rapidly calculate this metric is paramount for data-driven decision-making.

For instant verification and computational ease, specialized tools are available. Use this calculator to automatically find the probability of "at least one" success, based on the probability of success in a given trial and the total number of trials.