

POISSON DISTRIBUTION

We've looked at problems of "survival" in the presence of constant [and non-constant!] hazards, where a single event [nuclear decay, death, etc.] ends the experiment. But very often we have problems where several events might occur independently of one another, and the mean rate of occurrence is known:

E.g., Geiger counter clicks in time t due to background radiation.

Number of earthquakes [tsunamis, hurricanes, asteroid impacts...] in a given time.

Number of stars in telescope F.O.V.

Babies born in one week in Stretford.

Number of molecules of gas in a small volume...

All of these might be described by the POISSON DISTRIBUTION.

PC10471: LECTURE 12

[POISSON DISTRIBUTION]

STRATEGY We already know the probability of no event happening in time t in the presence of a constant hazard rate, α : this is the survival probability

$$P_0(t; \alpha) = e^{-\alpha t}.$$

We'll use it to obtain $P_1(t; \alpha)$, the probability of one event happening in time t , and then extend method to get $P_1, P_2, \dots P_k(t; \alpha)$.

Note that $\alpha \Delta t$ is both the probability of one event happening in time Δt [i.e., $P_1(\Delta t; \alpha) = \alpha \Delta t$] AND the mean # of events in a short time Δt , because the probability of two events happening in Δt is very small [proportional to $(\Delta t)^2$].

Pedantically,

$$\langle k \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k(\Delta t; \alpha)$$

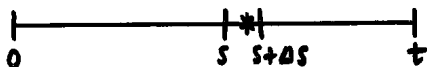
$$\approx 0 \cdot P_0 + 1 \cdot P_1 = \alpha \Delta t,$$

So α = mean rate of occurrence.

CALCULATION OF P_1

To be definite, suppose the variable is the background radiation count, so α is the mean # of "clicks" of GM tube per unit time.

Divide the time interval t into 3 parts, assuming that the single count occurs in the short interval $[s, s+\Delta s]$:



This particular scenario has probability

$$\Delta P_1 = P_0(s) \times \alpha \Delta s \times P_0(t-s)$$

prob. of no event up to s

prob. of one event in Δs

prob. of no events in remaining time $t-s$

$$= e^{-\alpha s} \times \alpha \Delta s \times e^{-\alpha(t-s)}$$

$$= e^{-\alpha t} \times \alpha \Delta s.$$

But ... the event could occur in any small interval Δs , so ...

[CALCULATION OF P_1 , CONTINUED]

... the TOTAL probability of one event in time t is

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(t; \alpha) &= \sum \Delta P_1 \\ &= \sum_{\text{all intervals}} e^{-\alpha t} \alpha \Delta s \\ &= \int_0^t e^{-\alpha t} \alpha ds = e^{-\alpha t} \alpha t. \end{aligned}$$

[What we've used is the fact that the probabilities of mutually exclusive events can be added: $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ if $A \cap B = \emptyset$. The single event cannot occur in two different intervals Δs (!)]

EXAMPLE 1: Suppose the count rate $\alpha = 2.0 \text{ sec}^{-1}$. Then for $t = 1.0 \text{ sec}$,

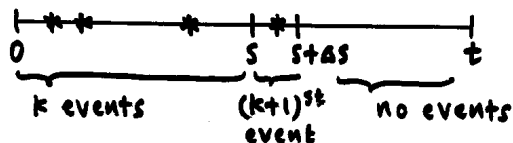
$$P_0 = e^{-\alpha t} = e^{-2} = 0.135$$

$$P_1 = \alpha t e^{-\alpha t} = 2e^{-2} = 0.271$$

$$P_{k>1} = 1 - P_0 - P_1 = 0.594$$

CALCULATION OF P_{k+1} FROM P_k

We can extend the preceding argument.
Again, divide the interval into 3 parts:



This particular scenario has probability

$$\Delta P_{k+1} = P_k(s) \times \alpha \Delta s \times P_0(t-s).$$

Add up the contributions for every interval Δs in which the $(k+1)^{\text{st}}$ event could happen:

$$P_{k+1}(t; \alpha) = \sum P_k(s) P_0(t-s) \alpha \Delta s$$

$$\rightarrow \int_0^t P_k(s) P_0(t-s) \alpha ds$$

for $\Delta s \rightarrow 0$.

E.g.,

$$P_2(t) = \int_0^t P_1(s) P_0(t-s) \alpha ds$$

$$P_3(t) = \int_0^t P_2(s) P_0(t-s) \alpha ds, \text{ etc.}$$

[P_{k+1} FROM P_k , CONTINUED]

Now, we already have P_0 and P_1 , so

$$\begin{aligned} P_2(t) &= \int_0^t (e^{-\alpha s} \alpha s) (e^{-\alpha(t-s)}) \alpha ds \\ &= e^{-\alpha t} \int_0^t \alpha^2 s ds \\ &= e^{-\alpha t} \frac{(\alpha t)^2}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} P_3(t) &= \int_0^t \left(e^{-\alpha s} \frac{(\alpha s)^2}{2} \right) (e^{-\alpha(t-s)}) \alpha ds \\ &= e^{-\alpha t} \int_0^t \frac{\alpha^3 s^2}{2} ds \\ &= e^{-\alpha t} \frac{(\alpha t)^3}{2 \times 3} \end{aligned}$$

In the calculation of P_4 , the integration of s^3 will give a factor 4 in denominator,

$$P_4(t; \alpha) = e^{-\alpha t} \frac{(\alpha t)^4}{2 \times 3 \times 4}.$$

And in general,

$$P_k(t; \alpha) = e^{-\alpha t} \frac{(\alpha t)^k}{k!}$$

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CHECKS ON P_k

Must make sure that the probabilities sum to unity. Write $\lambda \equiv \alpha t$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \\ &= e^{-\lambda} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \right\} = 1 \quad \checkmark\end{aligned}$$

$\leftarrow e^{\lambda}$ [see end]

From the interpretation of α as the mean count rate, the expected # of counts in time t must be $\alpha t = \lambda$:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle k \rangle &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda} \\ &\quad \leftarrow \text{term with } k=0 \text{ is zero, so can omit it.} \\ &= \lambda e^{-\lambda} \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} \right\} \leftarrow e^{\lambda} \quad \text{[see ADDENDUM]} \\ &= \lambda \quad \checkmark\end{aligned}$$

EXERCISE [for You!]: Show that

$$\langle k(k-1) \rangle = \lambda^2, \text{ and hence}$$

$$\text{var}(k) \equiv \sigma_k^2 = \langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle^2 = \lambda$$

[i.e., the mean and the variance of the Poisson distribution are equal]

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle k(k-1) \rangle &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1) \cdot \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!} \quad \text{terms with } k=0,1 \text{ are zero} \\ &= \underbrace{\left(\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^{k-2}}{(k-2)!} \right)}_{e^{\lambda}} \lambda^2 e^{-\lambda} = \lambda^2.\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{But } \underbrace{\langle k(k-1) \rangle}_{\lambda^2} = \underbrace{\langle k^2 \rangle}_{\lambda^2 + \lambda} - \underbrace{\langle k \rangle}_{\lambda}$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle k^2 \rangle = \lambda^2 + \lambda.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\text{var}(k) &= \langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle^2 \\ &= (\lambda^2 + \lambda) - \lambda^2 = \lambda.\end{aligned}$$

ADDENDUM:

We want to show that $Y(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$

is simply e^x .

First differentiate Y with respect to x :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dY}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k x^{k-1}}{k!} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(the term with } k=0 \text{ is zero, so} \\ \text{we omit it in the} \\ \text{next line)} \end{array} \\ &= \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^l}{l!} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{(with new summation} \\ \text{variable } l = k-1) \end{array}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e., } \frac{dY}{dx} = Y. \quad \textcircled{A}$$

Also note that $Y(0) = 1$. Now solve \textcircled{A} :

$$\int \frac{1}{Y} dY = \int dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln Y = x + C,$$

but $C=0$, because $Y=1$ when $x=0$.

Hence $Y = e^x$.