

Statistics for Computing

MA4413

Lecture 8

The Poisson Distribution

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Poisson Approximation

We saw in the previous lecture that the binomial probability function is

$$\Pr(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x}.$$

However, **when n is large and p is small**, this formula can present computational difficulties.

In this case we can use the **Poisson approximation**. Letting $\lambda = np$:

$$\Pr(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1 - p)^{n-x} \approx \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda}.$$

This approximation works well when $n > 20$ and $p < 0.1$.

Note: λ is the Greek letter “lambda”.

Example: Rare Disease

Let's assume that a rare disease affects 0.1% of all individuals. What is the probability that 10 individuals in a group of 5000 have this disease?

Let X = "the number of individuals who have the disease". Clearly this has a binomial distribution: $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n = 5000, p = 0.001)$

$$\Rightarrow \Pr(X = 10) = \binom{5000}{10} 0.001^{10} 0.999^{4990} = 0.018.$$

Since $n > 20$ and $p < 0.1$, we can use the *Poisson approximation* with $\lambda = np = 5000(0.001) = 5$

$$\Rightarrow \Pr(X = 10) \approx \frac{5^{10}}{10!} e^{-5} = 0.018.$$

Example: Rolling Two Dice

Consider the experiment of rolling two dice and adding the numbers showing. If repeated 30 times, what is the probability that on 2 occasions the sum is equal to 3?

You should be able to calculate the probability of getting a sum of 3 in one trial: $p = \frac{2}{36} = \frac{1}{18}$.

Repeating 30 times leads to $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n = 30, p = \frac{1}{18})$

$$\Rightarrow \Pr(X = 2) = \binom{30}{2} \left(\frac{1}{18}\right)^2 \left(\frac{17}{18}\right)^{28} = 0.2709.$$

Using the *Poisson approximation* with $\lambda = np = 30 \times \frac{1}{18} = \frac{30}{18} = \frac{5}{3}$

$$\Rightarrow \Pr(X = 2) \approx \frac{\left(\frac{5}{3}\right)^2}{2!} e^{-\frac{5}{3}} = 0.2623.$$

Question 1

Using both the binomial probability function, $p(x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x (1-p)^{n-x}$, and the Poisson approximation, $p(x) \approx \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda}$ where $\lambda = np$, evaluate each of the following:

- a) $\Pr(X = 2)$ when $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n = 20, p = 0.1)$.
- b) $\Pr(X = 5)$ when $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n = 100, p = 0.02)$.
- c) $\Pr(X = 3)$ when $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n = 1000, p = 0.005)$.
- d) $\Pr(X = 1)$ when $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n = 10000, p = 0.0001)$.

Poisson Distribution

The Poisson approximation is useful. However, the **Poisson distribution** is an important probability distribution in its own right.

It is the probability distribution for *the number of events occurring within an interval* of time / area / volume etc.

For example, the number of:

- System crashes per year.
- Text messages received per hour.
- Tasks processed by a CPU per hour.
- Flaws in a sheet of metal per m².
- Typographical errors per page.

Note: the events *must occur independently within the interval*, i.e., the occurrence of one event has no effect on another.

Why the Poisson Distribution Arises

Assume that a system crashes on average λ times per year.

Think about the *precise moment in time* of one such crash.

- This is the result of a Bernoulli trial with $\{1 = \text{crash}, 0 = \text{work}\}$ which has generated the outcome $1 = \text{crash}$.

Now think of the *whole year*.

- Throughout the year we observe the results of a *sequence of identical Bernoulli trials* where $p = \text{Pr}(\text{crash})$.
- Let n be the total number of Bernoulli trials during this period, i.e., there is a trial for *every single* precise moment in time.

Why the Poisson Distribution Arises

Assuming that these Bernoulli trials are *independent*, we know that the number of crashes, X , has a binomial distribution (see Lecture7):

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

What can we say about the value of n ? Think - how many precise moments in time are there in the year (or any period of time)?

What about p ? Think - if we pick some moment in time, what is the likelihood that the system crashes at *exactly* that moment in time?

Why the Poisson Distribution Arises

Since time is a *continuous* quantity, there are an *infinite* number of possible times that the system can crash, i.e., $n = \infty$.

For any moment in time, the probability that the system crashes at *exactly* that moment is very low, i.e., $p \approx 0$.

Since **n is large and p is small** we know from earlier that

$$\text{Binomial}(n, p) \rightarrow \text{Poisson}(\lambda).$$

Here the *average number of events per interval* is $\lambda = np$.

The same arguments hold for intervals of area / volume etc. Thus, the Poisson distribution arises naturally in a variety of situations.

Poisson Distribution

The **Poisson distribution** is used for calculating the probability of x events within an interval of time / area / volume etc.:

$$X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda)$$

$$\Pr(X = x) = \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda}$$

where $x \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, \infty\}$

$$E(X) = \lambda$$

$$\text{Var}(X) = \lambda$$

Example: System Crashes

Let's assume that a system crashes on average three times per year

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = 3 \text{ and } \Pr(X = x) = \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} e^{-\lambda} = \frac{3^x}{x!} e^{-3}.$$

What is the probability that:

... there are no crashes in a year?

$$\Pr(X = 0) = \frac{3^0}{0!} e^{-3} = \frac{1}{1} e^{-3} = 0.0498.$$

... at least one crash in a year?

$$\Pr(X \geq 1) = 1 - \Pr(X = 0) = 1 - 0.0498 = 0.9502.$$

Example: System Crashes

...less than 2 crashes in a year? (since X is discrete “ < 2 ” means “ ≤ 1 ”)

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(X < 2) &= \Pr(X \leq 1) = p(0) + p(1) \\ &= \frac{3^0}{0!} e^{-3} + \frac{3^1}{1!} e^{-3} \\ &= 0.0498 + 0.1494 = 0.1992.\end{aligned}$$

...between 4 and 6 crashes in a year?

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(4 \leq X \leq 6) &= p(4) + p(5) + p(6) \\ &= \frac{3^4}{4!} e^{-3} + \frac{3^5}{5!} e^{-3} + \frac{3^6}{6!} e^{-3} \\ &= 0.1680 + 0.1008 + 0.0504 = 0.3192.\end{aligned}$$

Poisson vs Binomial

● Binomial(n, p)

- You have the total number of Bernoulli trials, n , and the probability of an event in each trial, p .
- $X \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n\}$, i.e., the maximum number of events is n since there are n trials.
- Usage: probability of 1 event in 4 trials, less than 2 events in 6 trials, no events in 3 trials etc.

● Poisson(λ)

- You have the average number of events, λ , within a fixed interval of time / area / volume etc.
- $X \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, \infty\}$, i.e., there is no upper limit for X since there are an infinite number of Bernoulli trials throughout the interval.
- Usage: probability of 1 event per interval, less than 2 events per interval, no events per interval etc.

Different Time-frame

Note the following:

- λ is the average number of events per 1 interval.
- $\lambda \times 2$ is the average number of events per 2 intervals.
- $\lambda \times 3$ is the average number of events per 3 intervals.
- $\lambda \times 0.25$ is the average number of events per 0.25 intervals.
- ... etc.

In general:

- λt is the average number of events per t intervals.

⇒ **the number of events per t intervals has a $\text{Poisson}(\lambda t)$ distribution.**

Example: System Crashes

We said that there are $\lambda = 3$ crashes per year.

What is the probability of no crashes in 2 years? $\Rightarrow \lambda t = 3(2) = 6$ crashes on average per 2 years.

$$\Pr(X = 0) = \frac{6^0}{0!} e^{-6} = \frac{1}{1} e^{-6} = 0.0025.$$

What is the probability of more than 2 crashes in 6 months (i.e., 0.5 years)? $\Rightarrow \lambda t = 3(0.5) = 1.5$ crashes on average per 0.5 years.

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(X > 2) &= 1 - \Pr(X \leq 2) = 1 - [p(0) + p(1) + p(2)] \\ &= 1 - \left(\frac{1.5^0}{0!} e^{-1.5} + \frac{1.5^1}{1!} e^{-1.5} + \frac{1.5^2}{2!} e^{-1.5} \right) \\ &= 1 - (0.2231 + 0.3347 + 0.2510) \\ &= 1 - 0.8088 = 0.1912.\end{aligned}$$

Question 2

You receive emails at an average rate of 2 per hour. What is the probability of receiving:

- a) Six emails in one hour.
- b) Less than three emails in an hour.
- c) No emails in two hours.
- d) More than four emails in two hours.
- e) At least one email in half an hour.
- f) What is the value of the mean number of emails received in one hour? What is the corresponding standard deviation?

Poisson Tables

The **Poisson tables** are used in the same way as the binomial tables.

In particular, “**greater than or equal to**” probabilities are tabulated:

$$\Pr(X \geq r)$$

where r is the value in question.

We select the appropriate Poisson distribution by finding the λ value in the column headings (note: the tables use the symbol m rather than λ).

Example: System Crashes

With $X \sim \text{Poisson}(\lambda = 3 / \text{year})$, what is the probability that:

... there are no crashes in a year?

$$\Pr(X = 0) = \Pr(X \geq 0) - \Pr(X \geq 1) = 1.0000 - 0.9502 = 0.0498.$$

... at least one crash in a year?

$$\Pr(X \geq 1) = 0.9502.$$

... less than 2 crashes in a year?

$$\Pr(X < 2) = 1 - \Pr(X \geq 2) = 1 - 0.8009 = 0.1991.$$

... between 4 and 6 crashes in a year?

$$\Pr(4 \leq X \leq 6) = \Pr(X \geq 4) - \Pr(X \geq 7) = 0.3528 - 0.0335 = 0.3193.$$

Example: System Crashes

What is the probability of no crashes in 2 years? $\Rightarrow \lambda t = 3(2) = 6 = m$ in the tables.

$$\Pr(X = 0) = \Pr(X \geq 0) - \Pr(X \geq 1) = 1.0000 - 0.9975 = 0.0025.$$

What is the probability of more than 2 crashes in 6 months (i.e., 0.5 years)? $\Rightarrow \lambda t = 3(0.5) = 1.5 = m$ in the tables.

$$\Pr(X > 2) = \Pr(X \geq 3) = 0.1912.$$

Question 3

You receive emails at an average rate of 2 per hour. What is the probability of receiving:

- a) Six emails in one hour.
- b) Less than three emails in an hour.
- c) No emails in two hours.
- d) More than four emails in two hours.
- e) At least one email in half an hour.

Note: you calculated these in Question 1 using the *formula* for the probability function.

R Code

As with the binomial distribution, we can calculate probabilities for the Poisson distribution also:

Examples:

```
dpois(0,lambda=3)
```

gives 0.04978707,

```
dpois(4:6,lambda=3)
```

gives 0.16803136 0.10081881 0.05040941

and

```
sum(dpois(4:6,lambda=3))
```

gives 0.3192596

Compare the above with slides 11 and 12

R Code

Greater than probabilities, i.e., $\Pr(X > x)$, can also be calculated.

It is important to note that this differs from the Poisson tables which (as we saw) provide *greater than or equal to* probabilities.

Examples:

```
ppois(0,lambda=3,lower=F)
gives 0.9502129 which is  $\Pr(X > 0) = \Pr(X \geq 1)$ .

ppois(3,lambda=3,lower=F)
gives 0.3527681 which is  $\Pr(X > 3) = \Pr(X \geq 4)$ .

ppois(6,lambda=3,lower=F)
gives 0.03350854 which is  $\Pr(X > 6) = \Pr(X \geq 7)$ .
```

Compare this with slide 18.

R Code

We can *generate* Poisson random variables as follows:

Example:

```
rpois(100, lambda=3)
```

generates 100 $\text{Poisson}(\lambda = 3)$ variables.