# **Chapter 8.2**

Poisson random variable

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#### **Review of Last Week**

Variance:  $\sigma^2 = Var[X] = E[(X - \mu)^2]$  provides a measure of spread from the expected value  $\mu$ .

Easier formula for calculating variance:

$$Var\left[X\right] = E\left[X^2\right] - \mu^2$$

Standard deviation:  $\sigma = SD[X] = \sqrt{Var[X]}$  is the typical size of the deviation from  $\mu$ .

Chebyshev's inequality: the probability that a random variable is k or more  $\sigma$  from the mean is no bigger than  $\frac{1}{k^2}$ .

$$P(|X - \mu| \ge k\sigma) \le \frac{1}{k^2}.$$

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#### **Review of Last Week**

Geometric random variable: the number of **failures** before first success in independent trials with probability of success  $\pi$  on each trial.

$$X \sim Geom(\pi)$$

- PMF:  $f(x) = (1 \pi)^x \pi$ , x = 0, 1, 2, 3...
- For any integer  $x \ge 0$  we have the result  $P(X \ge x) = (1 \pi)^x$ . (example 8.2)
- $E[X] = \frac{1-\pi}{\pi}$  (odds of failure)

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## **Poisson Experiment**

Suppose some event occurs "at random times" over a fixed observation period. Let X be the random variable which counts the number of occurrences of this event over this observation period.

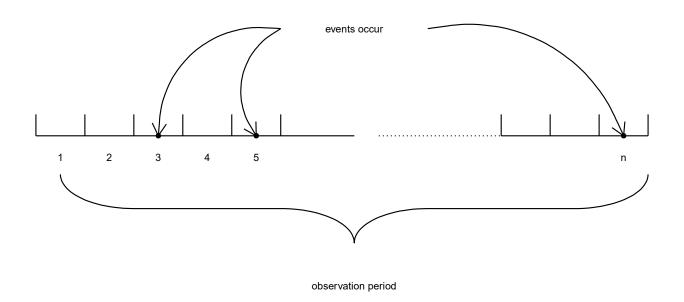
X is called a **Poisson** random variable.

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The derivation of the PMF of X begins by approximating X with something we know, namely the binomial distribution, using the following chain of reasoning.

- Divide the time into *n* non-overlapping sub-intervals of equal length.
- Assume that the probability that an event occurs during a given sub-interval,  $\pi$  remains constant from sub-interval to sub-interval and is proportional to  $\frac{1}{n}$  let's call this probability  $\lambda/n$ .
- If n is large, the probability of having two occurrences in one sub-interval is very small we will approximate this with 0.
- The number of occurrences in one interval is independent of the number in the other sub-intervals.

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A good approximation for X is

$$X \approx Binom(n, \frac{\lambda}{n})$$

because we have n independent sub-intervals (trials) with probability  $\pi = \lambda/n$  of occurrence in each one.

$$P(X = x) \approx P(x \text{ of the sub-intervals contain 1 event and}$$
 the other (n-x) contain 0 events), 
$$= \binom{n}{x} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x}.$$

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#### Poisson limit to the binomial

The binomial approximation to the Poisson experiment should get better and better as  $n \to \infty$ . In fact, when n is very large:

$$P(X=x) = \binom{n}{x} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{x} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x} \to e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^{x}}{x!}.$$

This is referred to as the **Poisson limit** to the binomial PMF as a nod to Siméon Denis Poisson, the French mathematician who discovered it.

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#### Proof of the Poisson limit to binomial

$$P(X = x) = \binom{n}{x} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{x} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x},$$

$$= \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{x} \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x},$$

$$= \frac{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \dots (n-x+1)}{n^{x}} \cdot \frac{\lambda^{x}}{x!} \cdot \frac{(1-\lambda/n)^{n}}{(1-\lambda/n)^{x}}$$

As  $n \to \infty$ , we have:

$$\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^n\approx e^{-\lambda},\;\frac{n\cdot(n-1)\cdot(n-2)\dots(n-x+1)}{n^x}\approx 1,\;\left(1-\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x\approx 1.$$

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In other words, for

$$X \sim Binom(n, \pi)$$

if n is large but  $\pi$  is small enough so that  $n\pi$  remains constant, then X is called a Poisson random variable with parameter  $\lambda = n\pi$ .

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**Definition 8.1** The PMF for a **Poisson random variable** with parameter  $\lambda$  (> 0) is

$$f(x) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}, \quad x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

We denote  $X \sim Poisson(\lambda)$ .

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Recall from calculus (Taylor series) that

$$1+\lambda+\frac{\lambda^2}{2!}+\frac{\lambda^3}{3!}+\cdots=\sum_{x=0}^\infty\frac{\lambda^x}{x!}=e^\lambda,$$

and therefore we have defined a legitimate PMF since

$$\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} f(x) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} \cdot \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \frac{\lambda^x}{x!} = e^{-\lambda} \cdot e^{\lambda} = 1.$$

Suppose that the number of accidents occurring on a highway each day is a Poisson random variable with parameter  $\lambda=3$ .

Find the probability that 3 or more accidents occur today.

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#### Poisson calculations in R

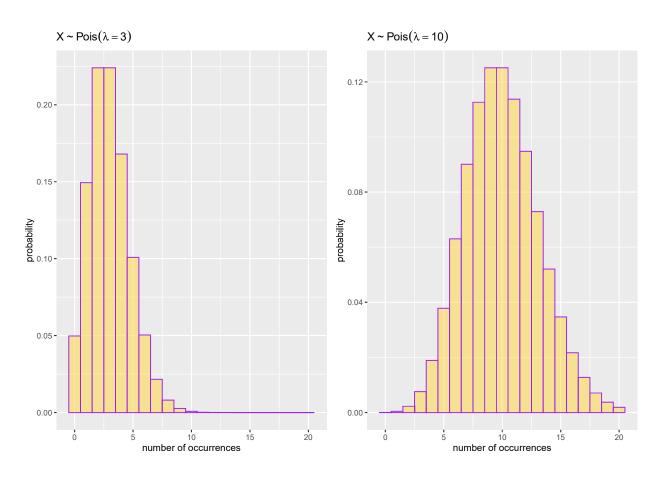
```
dpois(x = 3, lambda = 3) #P(X = 3)
## [1] 0.224

ppois(q = 2, lambda = 3) #P(X <= q)
## [1] 0.423

ppois(q = 2, lambda = 3, lower.tail = F) #P(X > q)
## [1] 0.577
```

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# **Probability histogram**



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## Example 8.4 contd.

Suppose that the number of accidents occurring on a highway each day is a Poisson random variable with parameter  $\lambda=3$ .

Repeat part a under the assumption that at least 1 accident occurs today.

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### **Expectation and variance**

**Lemma 8.1** Let  $X \sim Poisson(\lambda)$ . Then

- $E[X] = \lambda$
- $Var[X] = \lambda$

The important take aways here are that if  $X \sim Pois(\lambda)$ , then

- ullet the mean and variance of X are equal
- the parameter  $\lambda$  is the expected number of occurrences of the event during the observation period and is referred to as the **rate** parameter.

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It is often the case that the number of **arrivals** at a server (ATM machine, telephone exchange, wireless network) for some specific length of time t

- ullet can be modeled by a  $Pois(\lambda t)$  distribution where  $\lambda$  is the rate per unit time
- and is such that arrivals in non-overlapping intervals are independent.

We call such a model a **Poisson process** 

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Customers come to a small business at an average rate of 6 per hour. Let's assume that a Poisson process is a good model for customer arrivals.

Calculate the probability that there are exactly 5 customers in the next 20 minutes?

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Customers come to a small business at an average rate of 6 per hour. Let's assume that a Poisson process is a good model for customer arrivals.

Calculate the probability that there are exactly 5 customers in the next 20 minutes and 5 more customers in the following 10 minutes.

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Customers come to a small business at an average rate of 6 per hour. Let's assume that a Poisson process is a good model for customer arrivals.

Calculate the probability that the next 5 customers will arrive within 15 minutes of each other.

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Is the Poisson distribution a good fit for modeling the number of fumbles in NCAA football?

```
#include packages in setup
library(fastR2)  # for the dataset Fumbles
library(tidyverse)  # for ggplot + dplyr packages
```

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```
#you can type data(fumbles) in Console to load dataset in Environment

#
glimpse(Fumbles)

## Rows: 120

## Columns: 7

## $ team <fct> Air Force, Akron, Alabama, Arizona, Arizona St, Arkansas, Arkans~

## $ rank <int> 53, 19, 68, 31, 94, 46, 60, 94, 18, 94, 89, 76, 4, 38, 41, 53, 4~

## $ W <int> 8, 1, 9, 7, 5, 9, 4, 6, 12, 4, 7, 10, 6, 2, 2, 6, 5, 8, 3, 4, 6,~

## $ L <int> 4, 11, 3, 4, 6, 2, 7, 5, 0, 8, 5, 1, 5, 10, 10, 5, 6, 3, 9, 6, 5~

## $ week1 <int> 4, 2, 0, 1, 2, 0, 0, 3, 1, 2, 5, 3, 0, 1, 2, 1, 3, 3, 5, 2, 1, 0~

## $ week2 <int> 2, 3, 3, 0, 1, 1, 0, 2, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 1, 3, 1, 1, 3, 5, 2, 5, 2~

## $ week3 <int> 2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 0, 4, 0, 0, 2, 1, 2, 4, 2, 3, 3, 2, 0, 0, 2, 2, 3~

#please see STAT 311 course resources "Data verbs" slidedeck, "Data basics" lab
```

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```
slice_head(Fumbles, n = 5)
                                 #peek at first five rows
           team rank W L week1 week2 week3
##
## 1 Air Force
                  53 8 4
                  19 1 11
## 2
                               2
                                           2
          Akron
                  68 9 3 0
31 7 4 1
94 5 6 2
                                 3
0
1
                                           2
## 3
        Alabama
        Arizona
                                           2
## 5 Arizona St
```

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```
Fumbles %>% count(week1) #what are the values in this column and how often is each value observed?
    week1 n
        0 22
## 1
## 2
        1 36
       2 29
        3 23
## 4
        4 5
## 6
        5 4
## 7
        7 1
Fumbles %>% summarize(n=n(), #n() counts the number of rows
                     xbar = mean(week1), #find mean of values
                                       #find SD of values
                     s = sd(week1),
                     min = min(week1), #find min of values
                     max = max(week1) ) #find max of values
      n xbar
               s min max
## 1 120 1.75 1.36 0 7
```

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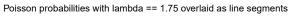
Let  $X_i$  denote the number of fumbles made by team i in week 1. We have observed  $x_1 = 4, x_2 = 2, x_3 = 0, x_4 = 1, x_5 = 2$  and so on.

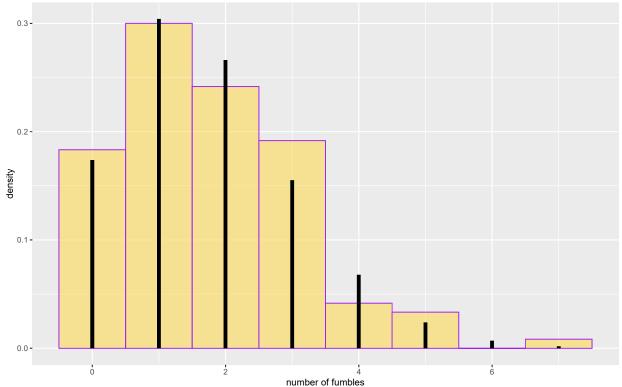
What can be said about the distribution of  $X_i$  in general?

Clearly,  $X_i$  is the number of *successes* in a given period of time, but does that automatically mean it has a Poisson distribution? Not necessarily.

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# Histogram of Week 1 Fumbles





Source: Fumbles data from fastR2 package

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#### Code to make histogram with Poisson probabilities overlaid

```
# data frame containing P(X = x) assuming X \sim Pois(lambda = 1.75)
pois_fit <- tibble(</pre>
                  num_fumbles = 0:7,
                  f = dpois(num_fumbles, lambda = 1.75)
ggplot()+
  geom_histogram(data = Fumbles,
                 mapping = aes(x = week1,
                               y= after_stat(density)),
                 fill = "gold",
                 color = "purple",
                 alpha = 0.5,
                 binwidth = 1) +
 geom_segment(data = pois_fit,
               mapping = aes( x = num_fumbles,
                              xend = num_fumbles,
                              y = 0, yend = f),
               linewidth = 2) +
 labs(x = "number of fumbles",
       title="Histogram of Week 1 Fumbles",
       subtitle =paste("Poisson probabilities with", expression(lambda==1.75), "overlaid as line segments"),
       caption="Source: Fumbles data from fastR2 package")
```

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