Geometric and Poisson Distributions

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- The discussion up to now was about bounded discrete random variables.
- We will extend to the case of unbounded discrete random variables.
- An unbounded discrete random variable has <u>uncountably many possible outcomes</u>.
- Example is $S_X = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$ or $S_X = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}$.
- Examples:
 - The number of cars crossing a bridge in a given time period.
 - The number of white blood cells created in a patient while sick.
 - The number of attempts needed before a <u>success is seen</u>.
- In all examples, there is no obvious upper bound to X, thus $X = \{1, 2, ..., \infty\}$.

Geometric Distribution Assumptions

- Let X be the random variable which is the number of attempts needed before the first success is observed.
- The attempts are assumed to be independent, with a constant probability of success p.
- The Bernoulli trials are independent, with probability p of success (of a 1).
 - -P(X=1)=p, you get a success on the first try.
 - -P(X=2)=(1-p)p, you get a fail on the first try, and success on 2nd.
 - $-P(X=3)=(1-p)^2p$, you get a fail on the first two tries, and success on 3rd.
- $S_X = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}.$
- The probability distribution of the number X of Bernoulli trials needed to get one success.

Geometric Distribution

- Let X be the random variable which is the number of attempts needed before the first success is observed. The first success occurs for the value of x.
- The attempts are assumed to be independent, with a constant probability of success p.
- Denoted $X \sim Geometric(p)$
- $f(x) = P(X = x) = (1 p)^{x-1}p$. $Q_{(x)}^{(x-1)} > 0$

- This to say that we have x-1 fails and the x-th trial is a success.

- $F(X) = P(X \le x) = 1 (1 p)^x$
- $E(X) = \frac{1}{p}$
- $\operatorname{Var}(X) = \frac{1-p}{p^2}$

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- P(X = x) = dgeom(x 1, p)
- $P(X \le x) = pgeom(x-1, p)$

• Some key features of the **geometric series**. Assume |r| < 1.

$$-g(r) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} ar^{k} = a(1-r)^{-1} = \frac{a}{1-r}.$$

$$-\frac{d}{dr}g(r) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} akr^{k-1} = a(1-r)^{-2} = \frac{a}{(1-r)^{2}}.$$

$$-\frac{d^{2}}{dr^{2}}g(r) = \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} ak(k-1)r^{k-2} = 2a(1-r)^{-3} = \frac{2a}{(1-r)^{3}}.$$

$$-g(r) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} ar^{k} = \frac{1-r^{n}}{1-r}$$

Proof for the expectation of X.

• Let X follow a geometric distribution with parameter p.

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in S_X} x f(x)$$

$$= \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x (1-p)^{x-1} p$$

$$= p \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} x (1-p)^{x-1}$$

$$= p \frac{1}{[(1-(1-p)]^2]}$$

$$= p \left(\frac{1}{p^2}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{p}$$

Example: A kidney patient is waiting for a suitable donor match. Assume you are sampling a big dataset, and the probability that any given person is match for this patient is 0.02. Assume the samples are independent.

• What is the value of p? Assume there is a random variable X, describe its meaning in words. What is the distribution of X

$$P = 0.02$$
 X is the number of kidneys observed for the first match to be found $X \sim \text{(neometric (P=0.02))}$

• What is the probability you will have to look at 10 donors before you get to the first match?

$$P(X = 10) = (1 - P)^{X-1}P = (0.98)^{9}(0.02)$$

$$dgeom(9, 0.02) \longrightarrow = 0.0167$$

• What is the probability it will take less than 15 donors before a match is made?

$$P(X < 15) = 1 - P(X < 14) = 1 - (1 - P)^{14}$$

 $P = 0.2464$

• What is the expected number of trials needed before the first match is made?

$$E(X) = \frac{1}{P} = \frac{1}{0.2} = 50 \text{ trials}$$

• What is the variance of the number of trials needed before the first match?

$$VAR(X) = \frac{1-P}{P^2} = \frac{q}{P^2}$$

$$= \frac{0.98}{0.02^2}$$

$$= 2450 + rials$$

To introduce another unbounded discrete random variable distribution.

- We now come to the <u>Poisson distribution</u>.
- The random variable X that follows a Poisson distribution can be seen as the number of events in an interval of time.
- number of events in an interval of time. • The support of X is $\mathbb{S}_X = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}$.
- We can view the time interval being subdivided into much smaller evenly spaced intervals.
- Example:
 - The number of cars crossing a bridge in a given day (24 hour period).
 - Think of dividing the 24 hours into 1 minute intervals.
 - This is the 1440 minutes in a day separated into 1 minute intervals.

Poisson distribution

• The Poisson random variable is the number of events seen across these many time intervals.

• The time subintervals are assumed to be independent.

• Furthermore, the probability of a success in each time subinterval is constant.

• Let λ denote the average number of events per time interval.

• Denoted $X \sim Poisson(\lambda)$

•
$$f(x) = P(X = x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}$$
.

•
$$E(X) = \lambda$$

•
$$Var(X) = \lambda$$

•
$$F(x) = P(X \le x) = \sum_{x_i=0}^{x} \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^{x_i}}{x_i!}$$
.

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• The pmf of the Poisson is $\underline{dpois}(x, \lambda) = \underline{P}(X=x)$.

• The cdf of the Poisson is $ppois(x, \lambda) = P(X \le x)$.

Poisson distribution.

- To formalize this concept, think of the time interval of interest is being divided into n many equally spaced intervals.
- We can think of this as dividing a day into n many intervals.
- We define the probability of an event in a given sub interval (one of the n many) is $\frac{\lambda}{n}$, where $\lambda > 0$.
- We can think of it as $p_n = \frac{\lambda}{n}$.
- p_n is the probability of an event in a time interval (out of n many).
- $p_n = \frac{\lambda}{\eta} \to 0 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$
- If the time sub intervals are assumed to be independent, then one way to think of the situation is as a binomial distribution (the number of events in a given time interval).
- $P(X = x) = f(x) = \frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} \left(\frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^x \left(1 \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n-x}$

Tools for Poisson Proof:

- $\left(1 \frac{y}{n}\right)^n \to e^{-y} \text{ as } n \to \infty.$
- $\frac{n!}{(n-x)!} \frac{1}{n^x} \to 1 \text{ as } n \to \infty.$

Tools for Expectation Proof:

$$\bullet \ e^y = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{y^i}{i!}$$

Poisson distribution.

- Assume we let $n \to \infty$ (dividing the time interval into smaller and smaller sub intervals).
- Taking the limit of a product is equal to the product of the limits.

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

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

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

$$P(X = x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}\lambda^x}{x!} \text{ as } n \to \infty.$$

$$P(X = x) = \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!} \text{ as } n \to \infty$$
.

- This is the probability mass function of the Poisson distribution.
 - The parameter is $\lambda > 0$.
- $S_X = \{0, 1, 2, 3, ...\}.$

Proof for the expectation of X.

$$E(X) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{S}_X} x f(x)$$

$$= \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \frac{e^{-\lambda} \lambda^x}{x!}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda} \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \frac{\lambda^x}{x!}$$

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

$$= e^{-\lambda} e^{\lambda} \lambda = \lambda$$

The Poisson distribution can be thought of modeling the number of events in a given time interval.

Examples:

- Number of trucks crossing a toll bridge in a given day.
- How many requests are given in a network in an hour.
- The number of users that visit a website in a week.
- How many admissions a hospital department has in a given day.

Example: The number of phone calls to a call service center follows a Poisson distribution with a expected number of 100 calls an hour.

• What is the value of λ ?

$$\gamma = 100$$

• What is the probability that 75 calls will be made in an hour?

$$P(\chi = 75) = \frac{e^{-100} 100^{75}}{75!}$$

round (cbind L), 4) =
$$4pois (75,100)$$

= 0,0015

• What is the expected value of X?

• What is the variance of X?

• What is the standard deviation of X?

$$O_{x} = JVAR(x) = JIDO = 10$$

A useful property of the Poisson distribution is that it is infinitely divisible.

- This is the notion that a random variable can be written as the sum of n many (where n can get infinitely large) independent random variables.
- With the Poisson distribution, a given Poisson random variable with parameter λ can be written as the sum of n many independent Poisson random variables where each one has parameter $\frac{\lambda}{n}$.
- This implies that the sum of independent Poisson random variables each with λ_i parameter is a Poisson random variable with parameter $\sum_i \lambda_i$.

Example: Let X represent the number of cars that cross a given bridge in an hour where the average number of cars is 50 an hour. Assume X is a Poisson random.

• What is the value of λ ?

$$\lambda = 50 \frac{\text{CARS}}{1 \text{ HR}}$$

$$\chi \sim Poisson (\lambda = 50)$$

• Let Y be a poisson random variable representing the number of cars that cross the same bridge in 2 hours. What is λ_Y ?

$$\lambda_y = 100 \frac{\text{CARS}}{2 \text{ HBS}}$$

$$\lambda_y = 100 \frac{\text{CARS}}{2 \text{ H/B}}$$
 Y ~ Poisson ($\lambda_y = (00)$

• Let Z be a poisson random variable representing the number of cars that cross the same bridge in half an hour. What is λ_Z ?

$$\lambda_{z} = 25 \frac{\text{CARS}}{\frac{1}{2} \text{HRS}}$$

$$\nearrow$$
 \sim Poisson (\searrow = 25)