Derivation of the Poisson distribution

I this note we derive the functional form of the Poisson distribution and investigate some of its properties. Consider a time t in which some number n of events may occur. Examples are the number of photons collected by a telescope or the number of decays of a large sample of radioactive nuclei. Suppose that the events are *independent*, i.e., the occurrence of one event has no influence on the probability for the occurrence of another. Furthermore, suppose that the probability of a single event in any short time interval δt is

$$P(1;\delta t) = \lambda \, \delta t \,\,, \tag{1}$$

where λ is a constant. In Section 1 we will show that the probability for n events in the time t is given by

$$P(n;\nu) = \frac{\nu^n}{n!} e^{-\nu} , \qquad (2)$$

where the parameter ν is related to λ by

$$\nu = \lambda t \,. \tag{3}$$

We will follow the convention that arguments in a probability distribution to the left of the semi-colon are random variables, that is, outcomes of a repeatable experiment, such as the number of events n. Arguments to the right of the semi-colon are parameters, i.e., constants.

The Poisson distribution is shown in Fig. 1 for several values of the parameter ν . In Section 2 we will show that the mean value $\langle n \rangle$ of the Poisson distribution is given by

$$\langle n \rangle = \nu ,$$
 (4)

and that the standard deviation σ is

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\nu} \ . \tag{5}$$

The mean ν roughly indicates the central region of the distribution, but this is not the same as the most probable value of n. Indeed n is an integer but ν in general is not. The standard deviation is a measure of the width of the distribution.

1 Derivation of the Poisson distribution

Consider the time interval t broken into small subintervals of length δt . If δt is sufficiently short then we can neglect the probability that two events will occur in it. We will find one event with probability

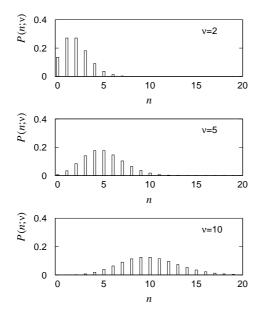


Figure 1: The Poisson distribution $P(n; \nu)$ for several values of the mean ν .

$$P(1;\delta t) = \lambda \,\delta t \tag{6}$$

and no events with probability

$$P(0; \delta t) = 1 - \lambda \, \delta t \,. \tag{7}$$

What we want to find is the probability to find n events in t. We can start by finding the probability to find zero events in t, P(0;t) and then generalize this result by induction.

Suppose we knew P(0;t). We could then ask what is the probability to find no events in the time $t + \delta t$. Since the events are independent, the probability for no events in both intervals, first none in t and then none in δt , is given by the product of the two individual probabilities. That is,

$$P(0; t + \delta t) = P(0; t)(1 - \lambda \delta t)$$
 (8)

This can be rewritten as

$$\frac{P(0;t+\delta t) - P(0;t)}{\delta t} = -\lambda P(0;t) , \qquad (9)$$

which in the limit of small δt becomes a differential equation,

$$\frac{dP(0;t)}{dt} = -\lambda P(0;t) . \tag{10}$$

Integrating to find the solution gives

$$P(0;t) = Ce^{-\lambda t} . (11)$$

For a length of time t = 0 we must have zero events, i.e., we require the boundary condition P(0;0) = 1. The constant C must therefore be 1 and we obtain

$$P(0;t) = e^{-\lambda t} . (12)$$

Now consider the case where the number of events n is not zero. The probability of finding n events in a time $t + \delta t$ is given by the sum of two terms:

$$P(n;t+\delta t) = P(n;t)(1-\lambda \delta t) + P(n-1;t)\lambda \delta t.$$
(13)

The first term gives the probability to have all n events in the first subinterval of time t and then no events in the final δt . The second term corresponds to having n-1 events in t followed by one event in the last δt . In the limit of small δt this gives a differential equation for P(n;t):

$$\frac{dP(n;t)}{dt} + \lambda P(n;t) = \lambda P(n-1;t) . \tag{14}$$

We can solve equation (14) by finding an integrating factor $\mu(t)$, i.e., a function which when multiplied by the left-hand side of the equation results in a total derivative with respect to t. That is, we want a function $\mu(t)$ such that

$$\mu(t) \left[\frac{dP(n;t)}{dt} + \lambda P(n;t) \right] = \frac{d}{dt} \left[\mu(t)P(n;t) \right] . \tag{15}$$

We can easily show that the function

$$\mu(t) = e^{\lambda t} \tag{16}$$

has the desired property and therefore we find

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left[e^{\lambda t}P(n;t)\right] = e^{\lambda t}\lambda P(n-1;t). \tag{17}$$

We can use this result, for example, with n = 1 to find

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left[e^{\lambda t} P(1;t) \right] = \lambda e^{\lambda t} P(0;t) = \lambda e^{\lambda t} e^{-\lambda t} = \lambda , \qquad (18)$$

where we substituted our previous result (12) for P(0;t). Integrating equation (18) gives

$$e^{\lambda t}P(1;t) = \int \lambda \, dt = \lambda t + C \,. \tag{19}$$

Now the probability to find one event in zero time must be zero, i.e., P(1;0) = 0 and therefore C = 0, so we find

$$P(1;t) = \lambda t e^{-\lambda t} . (20)$$

We can generalize this result to arbitrary n by induction. We assert that the probability to find n events in a time t is

$$P(n;t) = \frac{(\lambda t)^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda t} . {21}$$

We have already shown that this is true for n = 0 as well as for n = 1. Using the differential equation (17) with n + 1 on the left-hand side and substituting (21) on the right, we find

$$\frac{d}{dt}\left[e^{\lambda t}P(n+1;t)\right] = e^{\lambda t}\lambda P(n;t) = e^{\lambda t}\lambda \frac{(\lambda t)^n}{n!}e^{-\lambda t} = \lambda \frac{(\lambda t)^n}{n!}.$$
(22)

Integrating equation (22) gives

$$e^{\lambda t}P(n+1;t) = \int \lambda \frac{(\lambda t)^n}{n!} dt = \frac{(\lambda t)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} + C.$$
 (23)

Imposing the boundary condition P(n+1;0) = 0 implies C = 0 and therefore

$$P(n+1;t) = \frac{(\lambda t)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} e^{-\lambda t} . {24}$$

Thus the assertion (21) for n also holds for n+1 and the result is proved by induction.

2 Mean and standard deviation of the Poisson distribution

First we can verify that the sum of the probabilities for all n is equal to unity. Using now $\nu = \lambda t$, we find

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(n; \nu) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^n}{n!} e^{-\nu}$$

$$= e^{-\nu} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^n}{n!}$$

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

$$= 1, \qquad (25)$$

where we have identified the final sum with the Taylor expansion of e^{ν} .

The mean value (or expectation value) of a discrete random variable n is defined as

$$\langle n \rangle = \sum_{n} nP(n) , \qquad (26)$$

where P(n) is the probability to observe n and the sum extends over all possible outcomes. In the case of the Poisson distribution this is

$$\langle n \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nP(n;\nu) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n \frac{\nu^n}{n!} e^{-\nu} . \tag{27}$$

To carry out the sum note first that the n=0 term is zero and therefore

$$\langle n \rangle = e^{-\nu} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \frac{\nu^n}{n!}$$

$$= \nu e^{-\nu} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}$$

$$= \nu e^{-\nu} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^m}{m!}$$

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

$$= \nu. \tag{28}$$

Here in the third line we simply relabelled the index with the replacement m = n - 1 and then we again identified the Taylor expansion of e^{ν} .

To find the standard deviation σ of n we use the defining relation

$$\sigma^2 = \langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2 \,. \tag{29}$$

We already have $\langle n \rangle$, and we can find $\langle n^2 \rangle$ using the following trick:

$$\langle n^2 \rangle = \langle n(n-1) \rangle + \langle n \rangle . \tag{30}$$

We can find $\langle n(n-1)\rangle$ in a manner similar that used to find $\langle n\rangle$, namely,

$$\langle n(n-1)\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1) \frac{\nu^n}{n!} e^{-\nu}$$

$$= \nu^2 e^{-\nu} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^{n-2}}{(n-2)!}$$

$$= \nu^2 e^{-\nu} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^m}{m!}$$

$$= \nu^2 e^{-\nu} e^{\nu}$$

$$= \nu^2, \qquad (31)$$

where we used the fact that the n=0 and n=1 terms are zero. In the third line we relabelled the index using m=n-2 and identified the resulting series with e^{ν} . Putting this into equation (29) for σ^2 gives $\sigma^2 = \nu^2 + \nu - \nu^2 = \nu$ or

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\nu} \ . \tag{32}$$

This is the important result that the standard deviation of a Poisson distribution is equal to the square root of its mean.