

## Note on the Poisson Distribution

Here we will derive the functional form of the Poisson distribution and we will 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  $\delta t$  is

$$P(1; \delta t) = \lambda \delta t , \quad (1)$$

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

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

where the parameter  $\nu$  is related to  $\lambda$  by

$$\nu = \lambda t . \quad (3)$$

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  $\nu$ . In Section 2 we will show that the mean value  $\langle n \rangle$  of the Poisson distribution is given by

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

and that the standard deviation  $\sigma$  is

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\nu} . \quad (5)$$

The mean  $\nu$  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  $\nu$  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  $\delta t$ . If  $\delta t$  is sufficiently short then we can neglect the probability that two events will occur in it. We will find one event with probability

$$P(1; \delta t) = \lambda \delta t \quad (6)$$

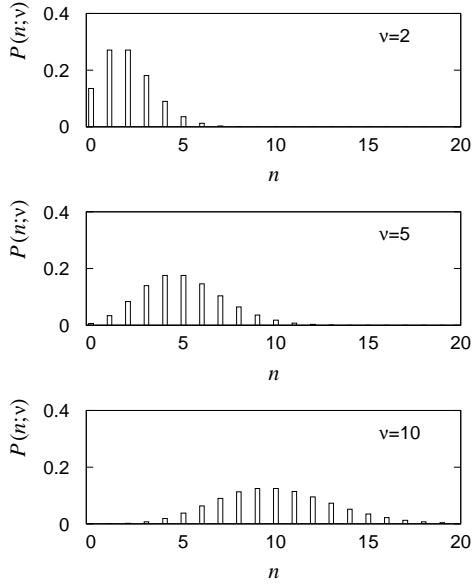


Figure 1: The Poisson distribution  $P(n; \nu)$  for several values of the mean  $\nu$ .

and no events with probability

$$P(0; \delta t) = 1 - \lambda \delta t . \quad (7)$$

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  $\delta t$ , is given by the product of the two individual probabilities. That is,

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

This can be rewritten as

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

which in the limit of small  $\delta t$  becomes a differential equation,

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

Integrating to find the solution gives

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

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

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

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:

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

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  $\delta t$ . The second term corresponds to having  $n - 1$  events in  $t$  followed by one event in the last  $\delta t$ . In the limit of small  $\delta t$  this gives a differential equation for  $P(n; t)$ :

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

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

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

We can easily show that the function

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

has the desired property and therefore we find

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Integrating equation (22) gives

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(n; \nu) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^n}{n!} e^{-\nu} \\ &= e^{-\nu} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^n}{n!} \\ &= e^{-\nu} e^{\nu} \\ &= 1 , \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

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

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

$$\langle n \rangle = \sum_n n P(n) , \quad (26)$$

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle n \rangle &= e^{-\nu} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \frac{\nu^n}{n!} \\
&= \nu e^{-\nu} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \\
&= \nu e^{-\nu} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^m}{m!} \\
&= \nu e^{-\nu} e^{\nu} \\
&= \nu .
\end{aligned} \tag{28}$$

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  $e^{\nu}$ .

To find the standard deviation  $\sigma$  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,

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle n(n-1) \rangle &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n(n-1) \frac{\nu^n}{n!} e^{-\nu} \\
&= \nu^2 e^{-\nu} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^{n-2}}{(n-2)!} \\
&= \nu^2 e^{-\nu} \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{\nu^m}{m!} \\
&= \nu^2 e^{-\nu} e^{\nu} \\
&= \nu^2 ,
\end{aligned} \tag{31}$$

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  $e^{\nu}$ . Putting this into equation (29) for  $\sigma^2$  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.