UCLA STAT 13

Introduction to Statistical Methods for the Life and Health Sciences

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> University of California, Los Angeles, Fall 2002 http://www.stat.ucla.edu/~dinov/

Chapter 7: Sampling Distributions

• Parameters and Estimates

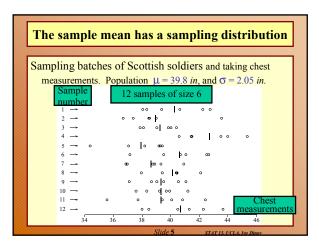
- •Sampling distributions of the sample mean
- •Central Limit Theorem (CLT)
- •Estimates that are approximately Normal
- •Standard errors of differences
- •Student's *t*-distribution

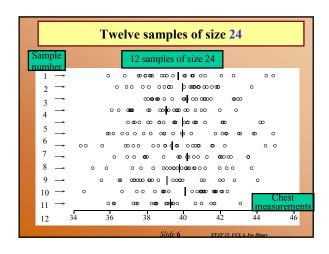
Parameters and estimates

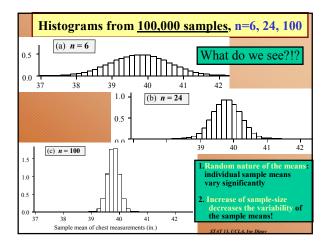
- A *parameter* is a numerical characteristic of a population or distribution
- An *estimate* is a quantity calculated from the data to <u>approximate</u> an **unknown** parameter
- Notation
 - Capital letters refer to random variables
 - Small letters refer to observed values

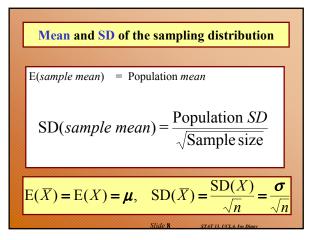
Questions

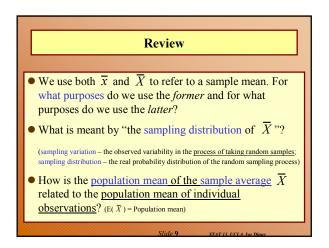
- What are two ways in which random observations arise and give examples. (random sampling from finite population – randomized scientific experiment; random process producing data.)
- What is a parameter? Give two examples of parameters. (characteristic of the data mean, 1st quartile, std.dev.)
- What is an estimate? How would you estimate the parameters you described in the previous question?
- What is the distinction between an estimate (p[^] value calculated form obs'd data to approx. a parameter) and an estimator (p[^] abstraction the the properties of the ransom process and the sample that produced the estimate)? Why is this distinction necessary? (effects of sampling variation in P[^])

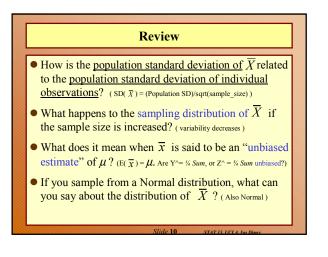


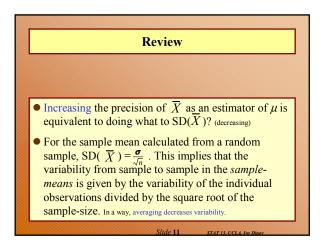


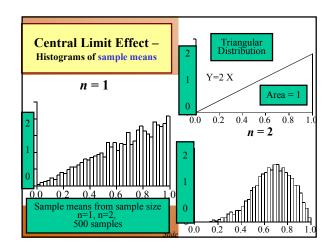


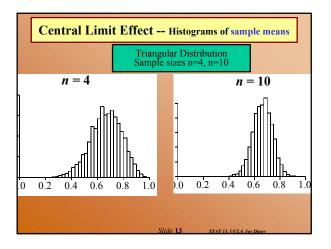


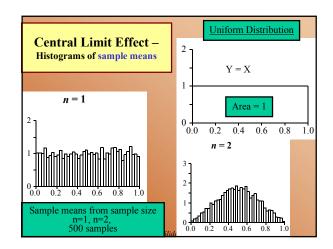


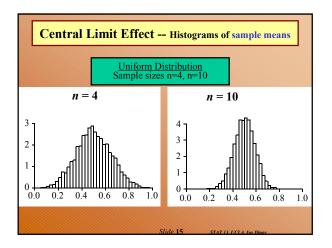


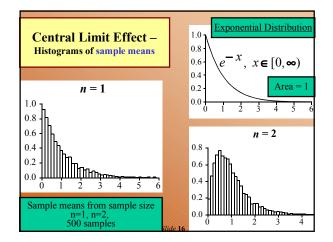


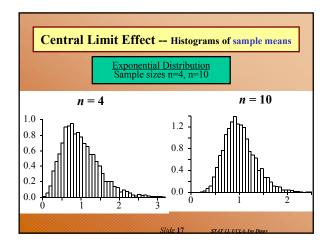


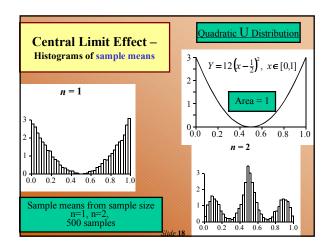


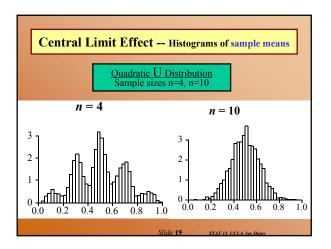


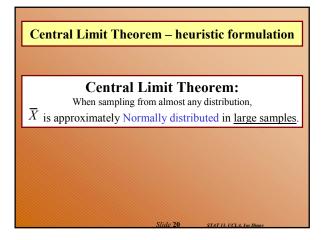












Central Limit Theorem –
theoretical formulationLet $\{X_1, X_2, ..., X_k, ...\}$ be a sequence of independent
observations from one specific random process. Let
and $E(X) = \mu$ and $SD(X) = \sigma$ and both are
finite $(0 < \sigma < \infty; |\mu| < \infty)$. If $\overline{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} X_k$ sample-avg,
 $n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} X_k$ sample-avg,
Then \overline{X} has a distribution which approaches
 $N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$, as $n \to \infty$.

Review

- What does the central limit theorem say? Why is it useful? (If the sample sizes are large, the mean in Normally distributed, as a RV)
- In what way might you expect the central limit effect to differ between <u>samples from a symmetric</u> distribution and <u>samples from a very skewed</u> <u>distribution</u>? (Larger samples for non-symmetric distributions to see CLT effects)
- What other important factor, apart from skewness, slows down the action of the central limit effect?

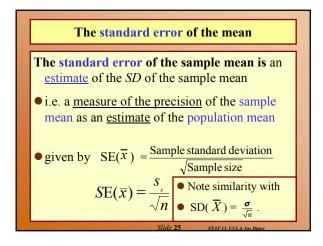
(Heavyness in the tails of the original distribution.)

Review

- When you have data from a moderate to small sample and want to use a normal approximation to the distribution of X in a calculation, what would you want to do before having any faith in the results? (30 or more for the sample-size, depending on the skewness of the distribution of X. Plot the data - non-symmetry and heavyness in the tails slows down the CLT effects).
- Take-home message: CLT is an application of statistics of paramount importance. Often, we are <u>not</u> <u>sure of the distribution of an observable process</u>. However, the CLT gives us a theoretical description of the distribution of the sample means as the samplesize increases (N(µ, σ²m)).

The standard error of the mean – remember ...

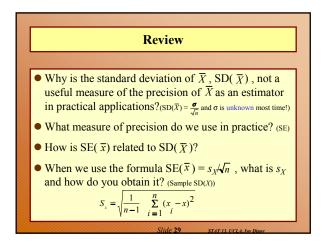
- For the sample mean calculated from a random sample, SD(\overline{X}) = $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$. This implies that the variability from sample to sample in the *sample-means* is given by the variability of the individual observations divided by the square root of the sample-size. In a way, averaging decreases variability.
- Recall that for *known* SD(X)= σ , we can express the SD(\overline{X}) = $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$. <u>How about if SD(X) is *unknown*?!?</u>

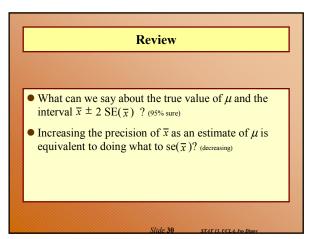


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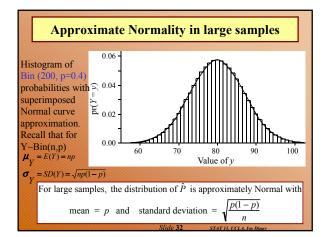
Sampling distribution of the sample proportion

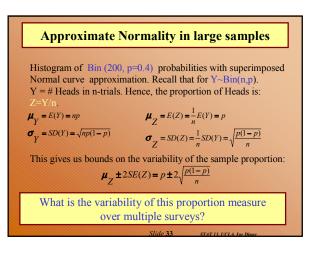
The sample proportion \hat{p} estimates the population proportion p.

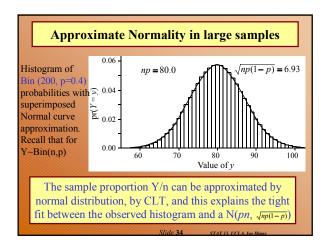
Suppose, we poll college athletes to see what percentage are using performance inducing drugs. If 25% admit to using such drugs (in a single poll) can we trust the results? What is the variability of this proportion measure (over multiple surveys)? Could Football, Water Polo, Skiing and Chess players have the same drug usage rates?

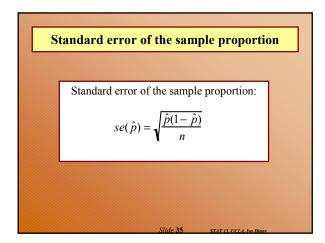
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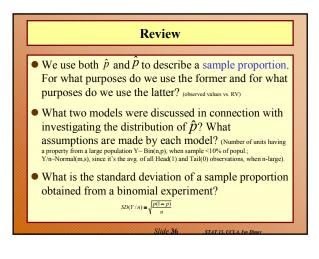
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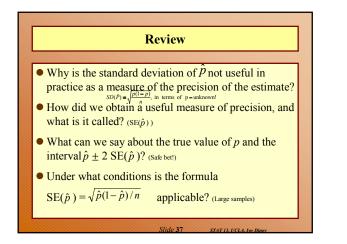


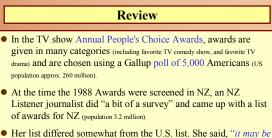




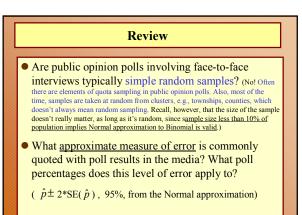


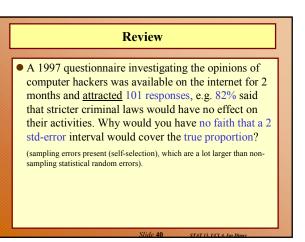


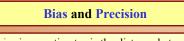




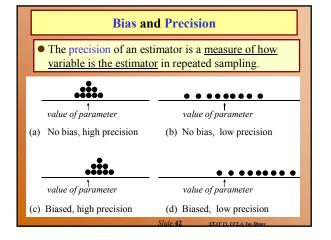
 FIGU IIST dIFFERED SOMEWHAT from the U.S. list. She said, "it may be worth noting that in both cases approximately 0.002 percent of each country's populations were surveyed." The reporter inferred that because of this fact, her survey was just as reliable as the <u>Gallup poll</u>. Do you agree? Justify your answer. (only 62 people surveyed, but that's okay. Possible bad design (out a nadow sample?)







- The bias in an estimator is the <u>distance</u> between between the <u>center</u> of the sampling distribution of the <u>estimator</u> and the <u>true value of the parameter</u> being estimated. In math terms, bias = $E(\hat{\Theta}) - \theta$, where theta $\hat{\Theta}$ is the estimator, as a RV, of the true (unknown) parameter θ .
- Example, Why is the sample mean an <u>unbiased</u> estimate for the population mean? How about ³/₄ of the sample mean? $E(\hat{\Theta}) - \boldsymbol{\mu} = E\left(\frac{3}{4n}\sum_{k=1}^{n}X_{k}\right) - \boldsymbol{\mu} = 0$ $\frac{3}{4}\boldsymbol{\mu} - \boldsymbol{\mu} = \frac{\boldsymbol{\mu}}{4} \neq 0, \text{ in general.}$



Standard error of an estimate

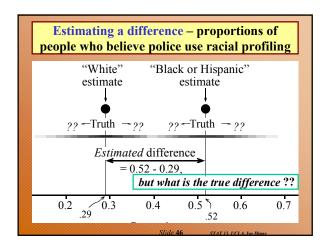
The *standard error* of any estimate $\hat{\theta}$ [denoted se($\hat{\theta}$)]

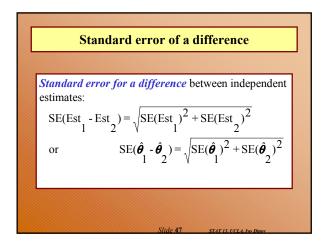
- estimates the variability of $\hat{\theta}$ values in repeated sampling and
- is a measure of the *precision* of $\hat{\theta}$

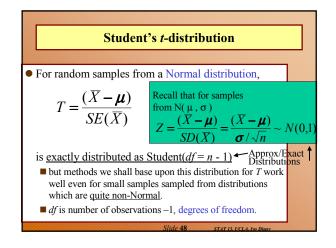
Review • What is meant by the terms parameter and estimate. • Is an estimator a RV? • What is statistical inference? (process of making conclusions or making useful statements about unknown distribution parameters based on observed data.) • What are bias and precision? • What is meant when an estimate of an unknown parameter is described as unbiased?

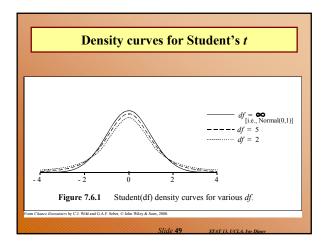
Review

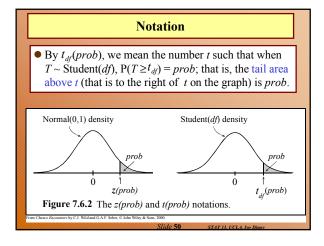
- What is the standard error of an <u>estimate</u>, and what do we use it for? (measure of precision)
- Given that an estimator of a parameter is approximately normally distributed, where can we expect the true value of the parameter to lie? (within 2SE away)
- If each of 1000 researchers independently conducted a study to estimate a parameter θ , how many researchers would you expect to catch the true value of θ in their 2-standard-error interval? (10*95=950)

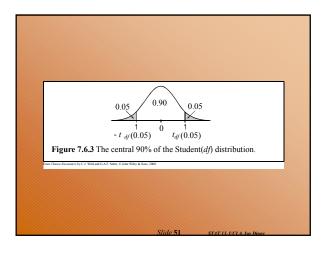


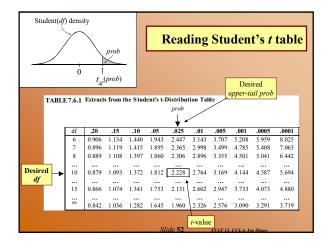


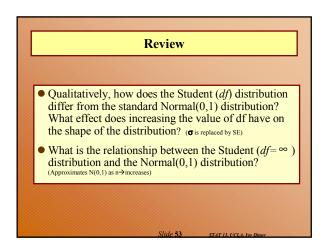


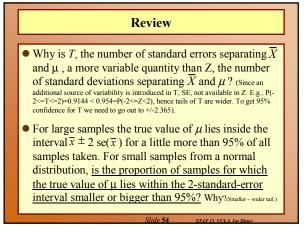






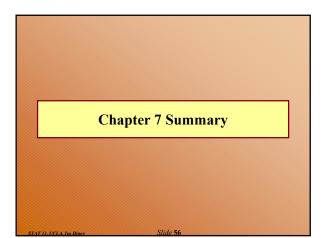






Review

- For a small Normal sample, if you want an interval to contain the true value of μ for 95 % of samples taken, should you take more or fewer than two-standard errors on either side of \bar{x} ? (more)
- Under what circumstances does mathematical theory show that the distribution of $T=(\overline{X}-\mu)/\text{SE}(\overline{X})$ is exactly Student (df=n-1)? (Normal samples)
- Why would methods derived from the theory be of little practical use if they stopped working whenever the data was not normally distributed? (In practice, we're never sure of Normality of our sampling distribution).



Sampling Distributions

- For random quantities, we use a capital letter for the random variable, and a small letter for an observed value, for example, *X* and *x*, \overline{X} and \overline{x} , \hat{P} and \hat{p} , $\hat{\Theta}$ and $\hat{\theta}$.
- In estimation, the random variables (capital letters) are used when we want to think about the effects of sampling variation, that is, about how the random process of taking a sample and calculating an estimate behaves.

Sampling distribution of \overline{X} Sample mean, \overline{X} : For a random sample of size *n* from a distribution for which $E(X) = \mu$ and $sd(X) = \sigma$, the sample mean \overline{X} has: $\mathbf{E}(\overline{X}) = \mathbf{E}(X) = \mu$, $SD(\overline{X}) = \frac{SD(X)}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ $\mathbf{E}(\overline{X}) = \mathbf{E}(X) = \mu$, $SD(\overline{X}) = \frac{SD(X)}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ If we are sampling from a Normal distribution, then $\overline{X} \sim \text{Normal}$. (exactly) $\mathbf{E}(\overline{X}) = Central Limit Theorem:$ For almost any distribution,

Central Limit Theorem: For almost any distribution, \overline{X} is **approximately** Normally distributed in large samples.

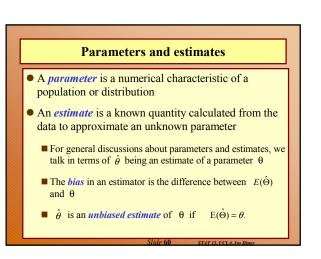
Sampling distribution of the sample proportion

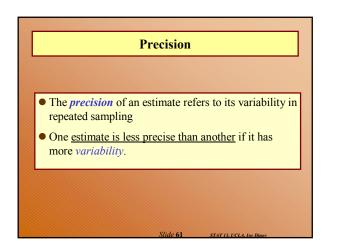
• **Sample proportion**, *P*: For a random sample of size *n* from a population in which a proportion *p* have a characteristic of interest, we have the following results about the sample proportion with that characteristic:

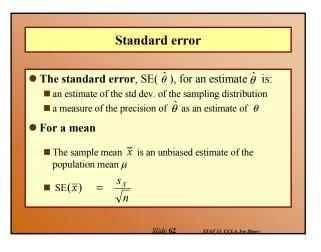
•
$$\mu_{\hat{p}} = E(\hat{P}) = p$$
 $\sigma_{\hat{p}} = sd(\hat{P}) = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}$

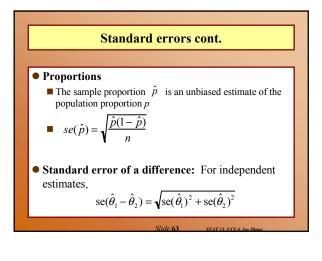
• \hat{P} is approximately Normally distributed for large *n*

(e.g., np(1-p) ≥ 10, though a more accurate rule is given in the next chapter)









	Population(s) or Distributions(s)	Sample data ↓ Estimates	
Mean	т	\overline{x}	se (\overline{x})
Proportion	р	\hat{p}	se (<i>p̂</i>)
Difference in means	$\mu_{1} - \mu_{2}$	$\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2$	se $(\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2)$
Difference in proportions	<i>p</i> ₁ - <i>p</i> ₂	$\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$	se $(\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2)$ se $(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2)$
General case	θ	$\hat{\theta}$	se $(\hat{\theta})$

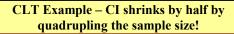
Student's *t*-distribution

- Is bell shaped and centered at zero like the Normal(0,1), but
- More variable (larger spread and fatter tails).
- As *df* becomes larger, the Student(*df*) distribution becomes more and more like the Normal(0,1) distribution.
- Student(df = ∞) and Normal(0,1) are two ways of describing the same distribution.

• For random samples from a Normal distribution, $T = (\overline{X} - \mu) / SE(\overline{X})$ is exactly distributed as Student(df = n - 1), but

methods we shall base upon this distribution for T work well even for small samples sampled from distributions which are quite non-Normal.

• By $t_{df}(prob)$, we mean the number *t* such that when $T \sim \text{Student}(df)$, $pr(T \ge t) = prob$; that is, the tail area above *t* (that is to the right of *t* on the graph) is *prob*.



- If I ask 30 of you the question "Is 5 credit hour a reasonable load for Stat13?", and say, 15 (50%) said *no*. Should we change the format of the class?
- Not really the 2SE interval is about [0.32; 0.68]. So, we • Not really – the 2SE interval is about [0.32; 0.68]. So, we have little concrete evidence of the proportion of students who think we need a change in Stat 13 format, $\hat{p} \pm 2 \times SE(\hat{p}) = 0.5 \pm 2 \times \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}} = 0.5 \pm -0.18$ • If I ask all 300 Stat 13 students and 150 say *no* (still 50%), then 250% is 100 M/s 0.50%

- then 2SE interval around 50% is: [0.44; 0.56].
- So, large sample is much more useful and this is due to CLT effects, without which, we have no clue how useful our estimate actually is ...

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