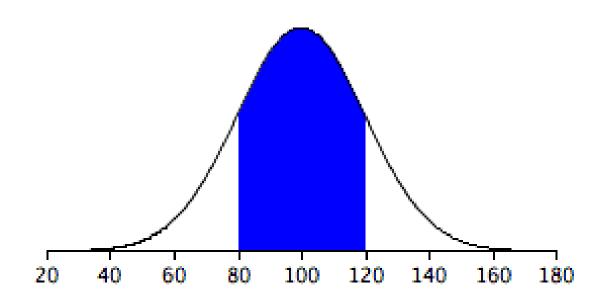
# Data and sampling distributions



### Overview

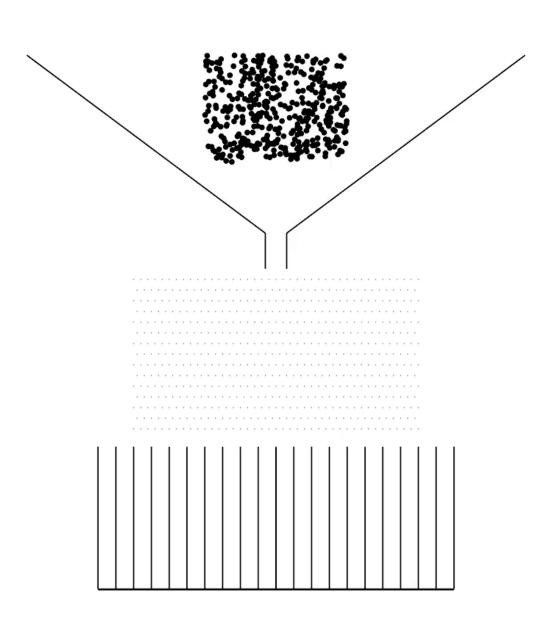
Very quick review

For loops

#### **Probability functions**

- Generating random numbers
- Probability density functions
- Cumulative distribution functions

Sampling distributions



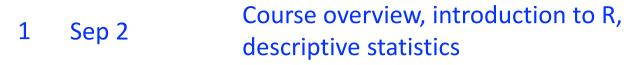
### Announcements

Change in my office hours: 3-4pm on Tuesdays and Thursdays

Homework 2 has been posted

- Due Sunday (9/18) at 11pm
- Start early on it!
  - You can do problems 1, and 2 after today's class.
- How was homework 1?

# Where we are in the plan for the semester



2 Sep 7-9 Review of central statistical concepts and exploratory analysis using R

base R resampling methods

R

**Analysis** 

We will be using some simulations to justify and validate methods we use throughout the semester

# Where we are in the plan for the semester

How would describe the pace of the class so far?

Way too slow	1 respondent	1 %
Too slow	7 respondents	6 %
About right	91 respondents	78 %
Too fast	17 respondents	15 %
Way too fast		0 %

### Quick review

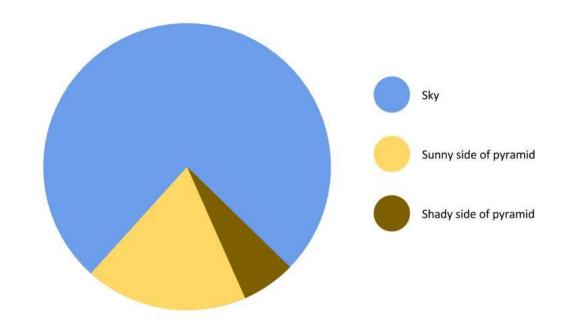
#### Basics of R

```
> my_vec <- c(5, 28, 19)
```

- > my\_vec[3]
- > my\_vec[3] <- 7

#### How to plot categorical data

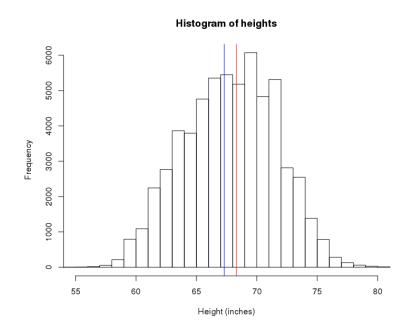
- > drinks\_table <- table(profiles\$drinks)
- > barplot(drinks\_table)
- > pie(drinks\_table)

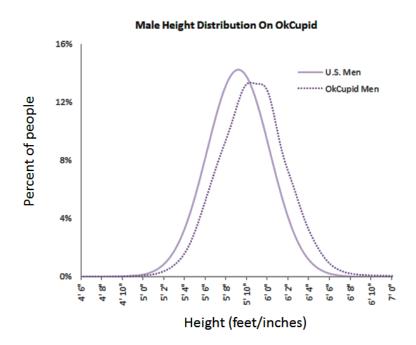


## Quick review

#### How to plot quantitative data:

- > hist(profiles\$height)
- > abline(v = 67)





### For loops

For loops are useful when you want to repeat a piece of code many times under similar conditions

The syntax for a for loop is:

```
for (i in 1:100) {
    # do something
    i is incremented by 1 each time
}
```

### For loops

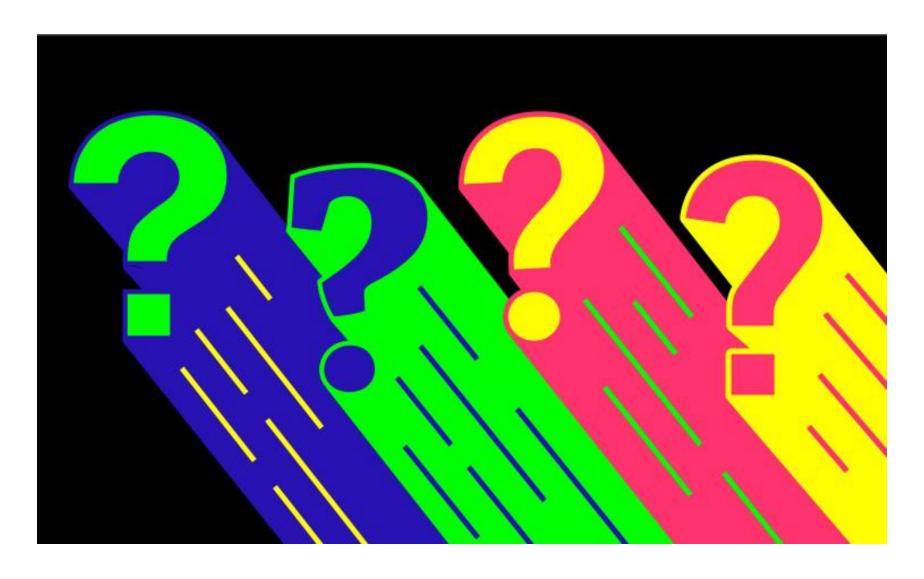
For loops are particular useful in conjunction with vectors...

```
my_results <- NULL # create an empty vector to store the results
for (i in 1:100) {
      my_results[i] <- i^2
}</pre>
```

**Try this at home!**: Use a for loop to create a vector that holds the values at multiples of 3 from 3 to 300

```
• i.e., 3, 6, 9, ..., 300
```

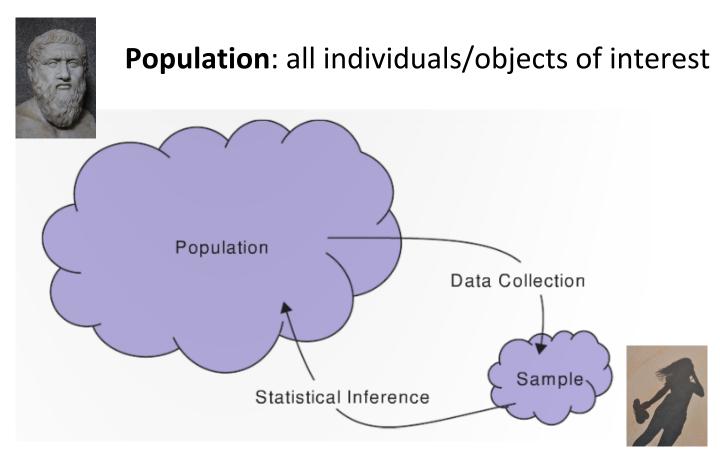
# Questions?



Review and extension of statistical concepts

### Where does data come from?



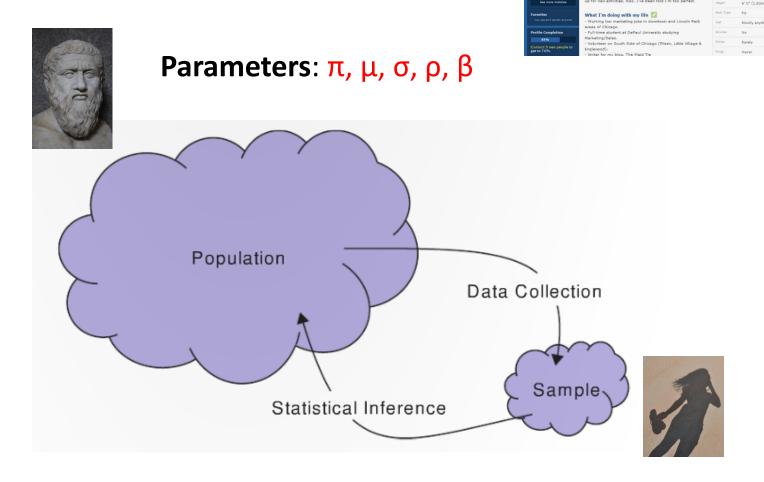


**Sample**: A subset of the population

### Where does data come from?

**Question**: Is the okcupid profiles data frame a population or a sample?

**Question**: If the OkCupid profiles data frame is a sample, what is the population?



Statistics:  $\hat{p}$ ,  $\overline{x}$ , s, r, b

### How do we get sample of data?

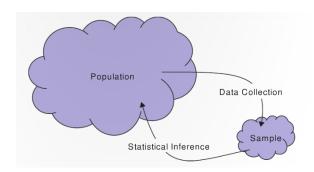
**Simple random sample**: each member in the population is equally likely to be in the sample

"Random selection"

**Q:** Why is this good?

**A:** Allows for generalizations to the population!

- No sampling bias
- Statistic (on average) equal parameter
  - E.g.,  $E[\overline{x}] = \mu$







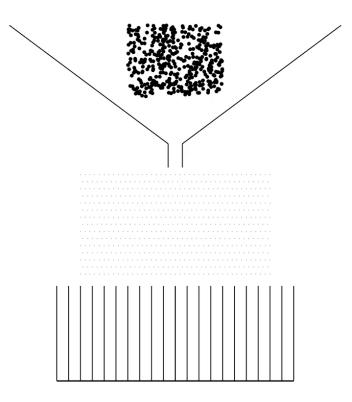
#### **Questions:**

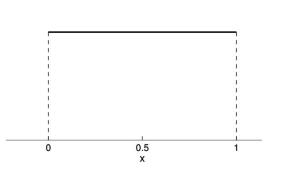
- Is the OkCupid profiles data a simple random sample?
- Would we expect sampling bias from statistics computed from the OkCupid profiles?

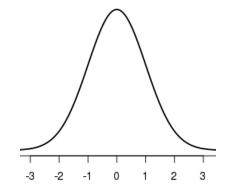
### Big picture for the week

#### We can use R to:

- Simulate randomly sampling individual data points from a population
  - E.g., random heights of each person in this classroom
- Simulate statistics calculated from many random samples; i.e., simulate *sampling distributions* 
  - E.g., suppose we took the average height of everyone in this class, and several other classes, and created a distribution of these average heights
- Use randomly generated data to assess the validity of statistical methods.
- And much more...







### Big picture for the week

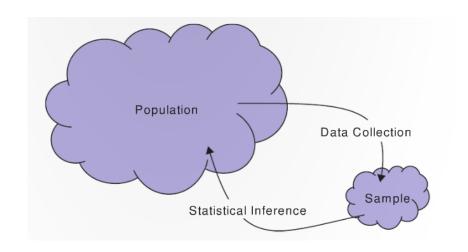
Statistics are point estimates of parameters

We can use sampling distributions (i.e., distributions of statistics) to tell us how much we can trust *any one statistic* to be a good point estimate of a parameter

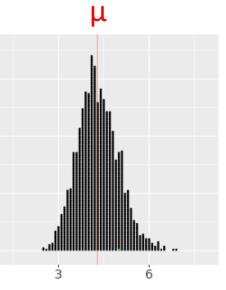
-> confidence interval

Let's starts on this now...

#### parameter: µ



statistic: X



Sample mean values  $(\overline{x})$ 

Sampling distribution of  $\overline{x}$ 

# Generating random data and probability models

To understand our data, it is often useful to be able to:

- 1. Simulate data in a way that replicates key properties of the data
- 2. Create mathematical (probability) models of our data

### Generating random data and probability models

To understand our data, it is often useful to be able to:

- 1. Simulate data in a way that replicates key properties of the data
- 2. Create mathematical (probability) models of our data

### Generating random data

R has built in functions to generate data from different distributions

All these functions start with the letter r

#### The uniform distribution

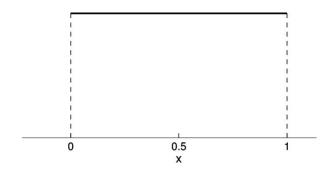
```
# generate n = 100 points from U(0, 1)
```

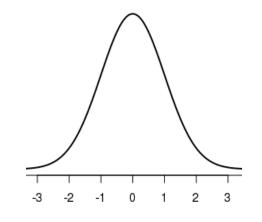
- > rand\_data <- runif(100)
- > hist(rand data)

#### The normal distribution

```
# generate n = 100 points from N(0, 1)
```

- > rand\_data <- rnorm(100)
- > hist(rand\_data)





### Generating random data

R has built in functions to generate data from different distributions

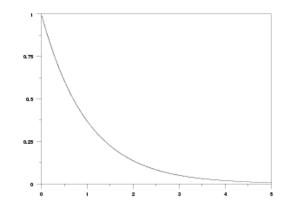
All these functions start with the letter r

#### The exponential distribution

```
# generate n = 100 points from exponential(\lambda = 1)
```

> Homework 2

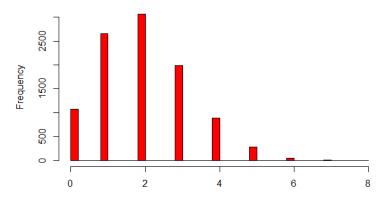
>



#### The binomial distribution

```
# generate n = 100 points from binomial(n = 8, \pi = .2)
```

- > rand\_data <- rbinom(100, 8, .2)
- > hist(rand\_data)



### Generating random data

If we want the same sequence of random numbers we can set the random number generating seed

- > set.seed(123)
- > runif(100)

Q: Why would we want the same sequence of random number?

A: Reproducibility!

## Generating random data and probability models

To understand our data, it is often useful to be able to:

- 1. Simulate data in a way that replicates key properties of the data
- 2. Create mathematical (probability) models of our data

### Density Curves

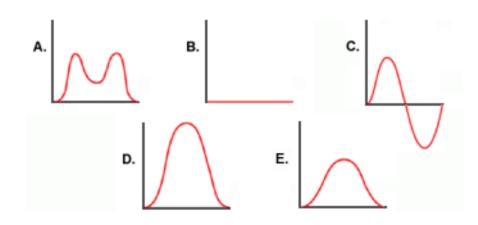
A **density curve** is a mathematical function f(x) that can be used to model data

- We can imagine density curves as histograms that have:
  - Infinitely large data sample
  - With infinitely small bins sizes
  - Normalized to have an area of 1

Density curves have two defining properties:

- 1. The total area under the curve f(x) is equal to 1
- 2. The curve is always  $\geq 0$

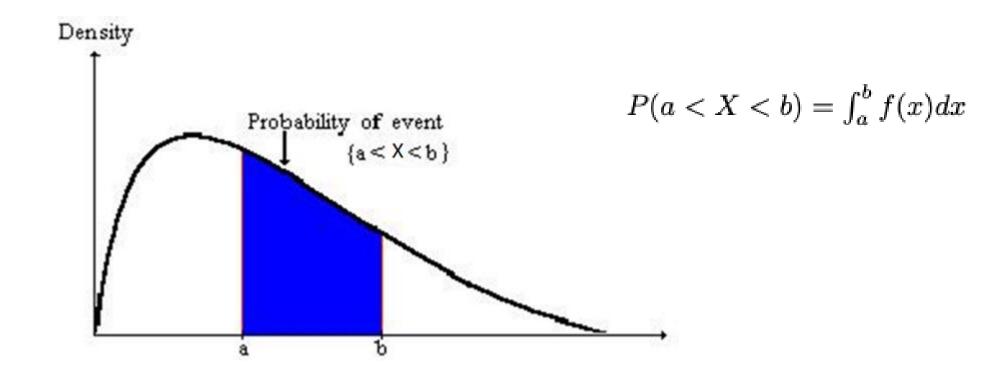
Which of these could <u>not</u> be a density curve?



### **Density Curves**

The <u>area under the density curve</u> in an interval [a, b] models the probability that a random number X will be in the interval

Pr(a < X < b) is the area under the curve from a to b



### Examples of density curves

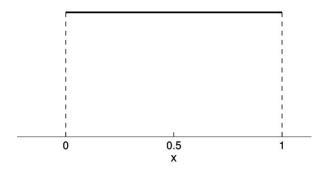
#### R has built in functions to create density curves

All these functions start with the letter d

#### The uniform distribution

- (here b = 1, a = 0)
- > x < seq(-.2, 1.2, by = .001)
- > y <- dunif(x)
- > plot(x, y, type = "l")

# $f(x) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} rac{1}{b-a} & ext{for } a \leq x \leq b, \ 0 & ext{for } x < a ext{ or } x > b. \end{array} ight.$

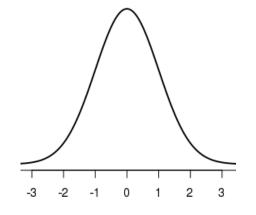


#### The normal distribution

• (here 
$$\mu = 0$$
,  $\sigma = 1$ )

$$> x < -seq(-3, 3, by = .001)$$

$$f(x,\mu,\sigma) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



### Examples of density curves

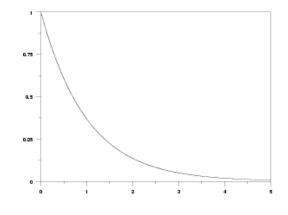
#### R has built in functions to create density curves

• All these functions start with the letter **d** 

#### The exponential distribution

- > Homework 2
- >
- >

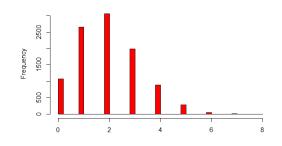
$$f(x;\lambda) = \left\{ egin{array}{ll} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & x \geq 0, \ 0 & x < 0. \end{array} 
ight.$$



#### The binomial distribution

- (actually a probably mass function)
- > x <- 0:8
- > y < -dbinom(x, 8, .2)
- > names(y) <- x
- > barplot(y)

$$f(k,n,p) \, = inom{n}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$

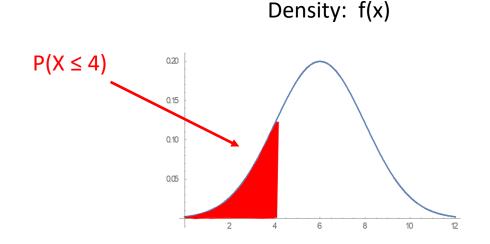


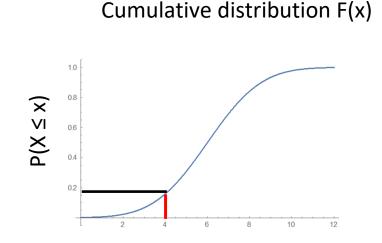
### Cumulative distribution functions

Cumulative distribution functions give the probability of getting a random value X less than or equal to a value x:  $P(X \le x)$ 

• For example, we would write the probability of getting a random number X less than 2 as:  $P(X \le 2)$ 

Cumulative distribution functions are obtained by calculating the area under a probability density function





$$P(X \le x)$$

$$= F(x)$$

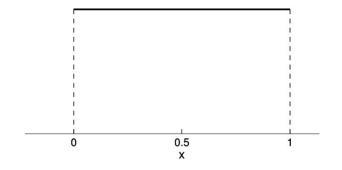
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(x) dx$$

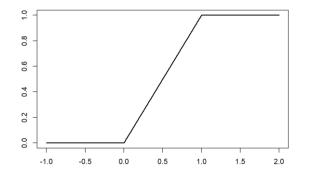
### Examples of cumulative distributions in R

R has built in functions to get probabilities from different distributions

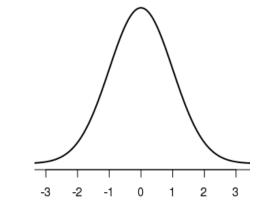
All these functions start with the letter p

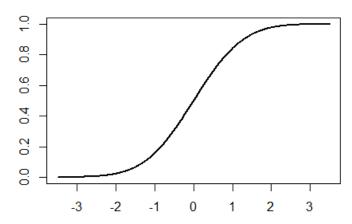
#### The uniform distribution





#### The normal distribution





### Examples of cumulative distributions in R

R has built in functions to get probabilities from different distributions

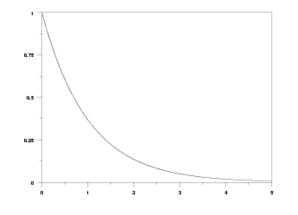
• All these functions start with the letter **p** 

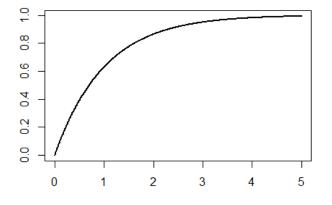
#### The exponential distribution

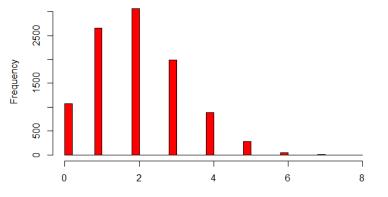
# 
$$P(X \le 2)$$
 pexp(2)

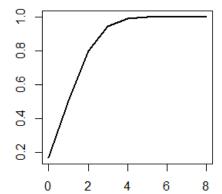
#### The binomial distribution

# 
$$P(X \le 2; n = 8, \pi = .2)$$
  
pbinom(2, 8, .2)









# Sampling distributions

### Sample statistics

Q: What is a statistic?

A: A statistic is number computed from a function on a sample of data

```
The sample mean \bar{x} (shadow of the parameter \mu) 
> rand_data <- runif(100) # generate n = 100 points from U(0, 1) 
> mean(rand_data)
```

Q: If we repeat the code above will we get the same statistic?

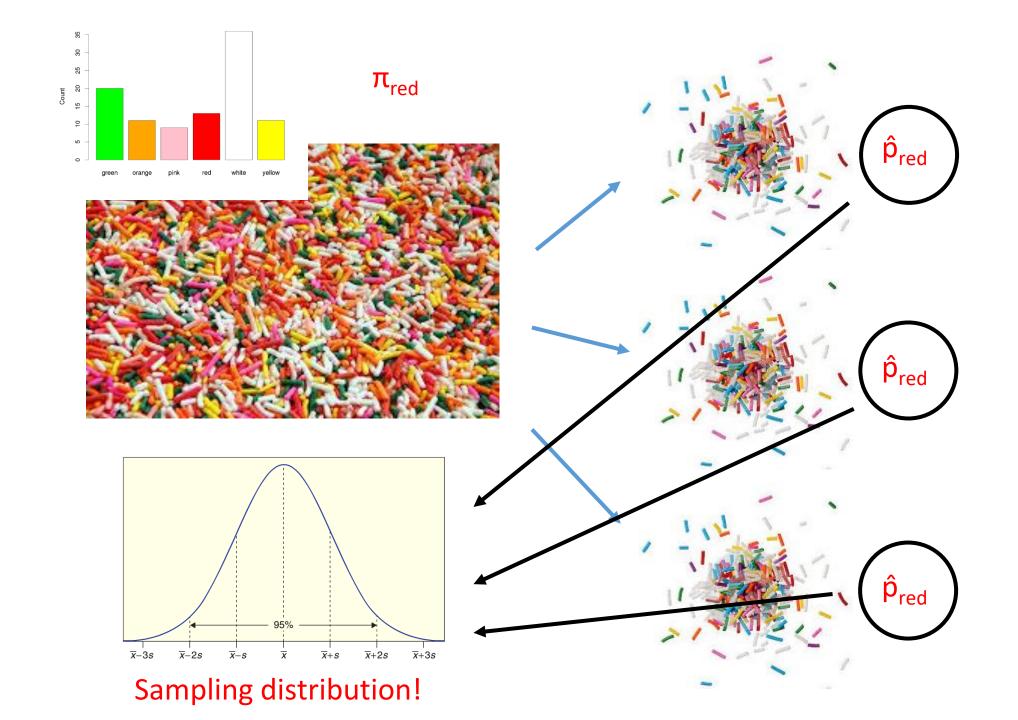
• A: unlikely

# Sampling distributions

A *sampling distribution* is a distribution of *statistics* 

Reminder: For a *single categorical variable*, the main statistic of interest is the *proportion* ( $\hat{p}$ ) in each category

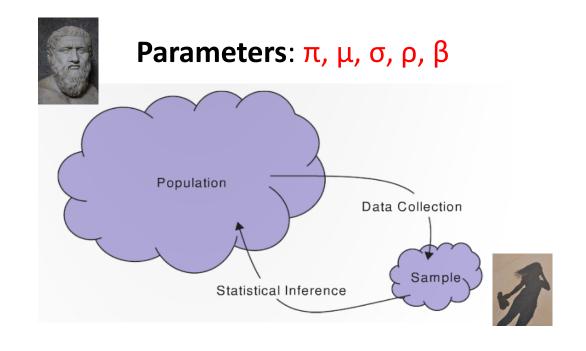
• (shadow of the parameter  $\pi$ )



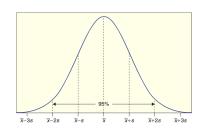
### Sampling distribution

#### Why would we be interested in the sampling distribution?

 If we knew what the sampling distribution was, then we could evaluate how much we should trust individual statistics



#### Sampling distribution



Statistics:  $\hat{p}$ ,  $\bar{x}$ , s, r, b

### Simulating sampling distributions

```
sampling dist <- NULL
for (i in 1:1000) {
      rand data <- runif(100) # generate n = 100 points from U(0, 1)
      sampling_dist[i] <- mean(rand_data) # save the mean</pre>
hist(sampling_dist)
```

### Simulating sampling distributions

Distribution of OkCupid user's heights n = 100

heights <- profiles\$height

# get one random sample of heights from 100 people height\_sample <- sample(heights, 100)

# get the mean of this sample mean(height\_sample)

### Simulating sampling distributions

Distribution of OkCupid user's heights n = 100

```
sampling_dist <- NULL

for (i in 1:1000) {
        height_sample <- sample(heights, 100) # sample 100 random heights
        sampling_dist[i] <- mean(height_sample) # save the mean
}</pre>
```

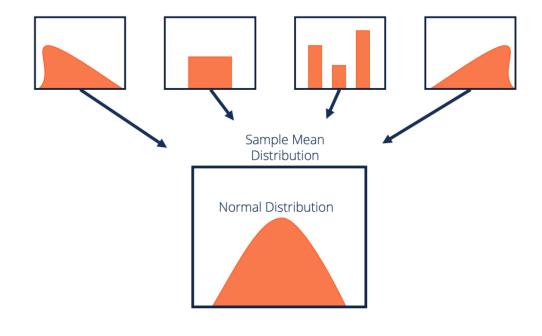
hist(sampling\_dist)

### The central limit theorem

The **central limit theorem** establishes that, in many situations, when independent random variables are summed up, their properly normalized sum tends toward a normal distribution.

Since many statistics we use are the sum of randomly data, many of our sampling distributions will be approximately normal

You will explore this more on homework 2



Statistics:  $\hat{p}$ ,  $\bar{x}$ , s, r, b

If there is extra time...

### Confidence intervals

### Point Estimate

We use the statistics from a sample as a **point estimate** for a population parameter

•  $\overline{x}$  is a point estimate for...?  $\mu$ 

A NPR/PBS NewHour/Marist poll listed Biden's approval rating at 43%

#### Symbols:

 $\pi$ : Biden's approval for all voters

p: Biden's approval for those voters in our sample

### Interval estimate based on a margin of error

An **interval estimate** give a range of plausible values for a <u>population</u> parameter

One common form of an interval estimate is:

Point estimate ± margin of error

Where the margin of error is a number that reflects the <u>precision of the</u> sample statistic as a point estimate for this parameter

## Example: Fox news poll

43% of American approve of Biden's job performance, plus or minus 3%

How do we interpret this?

Says that the <u>population parameter</u>  $(\pi)$  lies somewhere between 40% to 46%

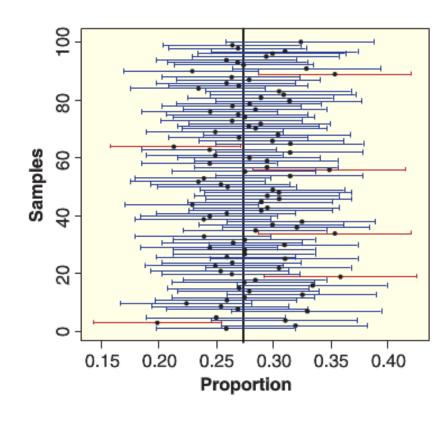
i.e., if they sampled all voters the true population proportion  $(\pi)$  would be likely be in this range

### Confidence Intervals

A confidence interval is an interval computed by a method that will contain the parameter a specified percent of times

• i.e., if the estimation were repeated many times, the interval will have the parameter x% of the time

The **confidence level** is the percent of all intervals that contain the parameter



### Think ring toss...

Parameter exists in the ideal world

We toss intervals at it

95% of those intervals capture the parameter

