Error in Estimates & Probability Distributions

For loops in the Wild

Sample Properties: Variance

How variable was that population?

$$s^{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (Y_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2}}$$

- ► Sums of Squares over n-1
- ▶ n-1 corrects for both sample size and sample bias
- $ightharpoonup \sigma^2$ if describing the population
- Units in square of measurement...

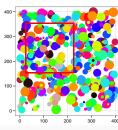
Sample Properties: Standard Deviation

$$s = \sqrt{s^2}$$

- Units the same as the measurement
- ▶ If distribution is normal, 67% of data within 1 SD
- ▶ 95% within 2 SD
- \blacktriangleright σ if describing the population

Remember Samples and Populations?

How representative of our population are the estimates from our sample? $% \begin{center} \end{center} \begin{center} \end{center}$



Remember Samples and Populations?

We've seen that we get variation in point estimates at any sample size $% \begin{center} \end{center} \begin{cent$

What does that variation look like?

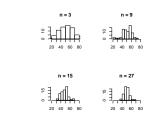
Exercise: Variation in Estimation

- Consider a population with some distribution (rnorm, runif, rgamma)
- ► Think of the mean of one sample as an individual replicate
- ► Take many (50) 'replicates' from this population of means
- ▶ What does the distribution of means look like? Use hist
- How does it depend on sample size (within replicates) or distribution type?

 $\ensuremath{\mathsf{Extra:}}$ Show the change in distributions with sample size in one figure.

Central Limit Theorem

The distribution of means converges on normality



Central Limit Theorem Simulation

Estimating Variation Around a Mean

Standard Error.

Great, so, if we can draw many replicated means from a larger population, we can the standard deviation of an estimate!

This standard deviation of the estimate of the mean is the

But for a single study, we only have one sample...

A Bootstrap Simulation Approach to Standard Error

- Our sample is representative of the entire population
 Therefore, we can resample it with replacement for 1
- simulated sample
- ▶ We use our sample size as the new sample size as well

We set the replace argument in sample = TRUE Try sampling from the bird data with replacement.

A Bootstrap Simulation Approach to Standard Error sample(bird\$Count, replace = T, size = nrow(bird))

```
## [29] 297 33 297 2 25 128 128 173 14 64 1 33
## [43] 282
```

```
sample(bird$Count, replace = T, size = nrow(bird))

## [1] 297   2 625 230   13   33   25   12   4   28 297   2
## [15]   3   1   18   28 297   1   282   15 300 148   23   2
## [29] 625 282   77   23   12   25 297   2   2   33 230 135
## [43] 77
```

Standard Error

$$SE_{\bar{Y}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

 \overline{Y} - sample mean s - sample standard deviation n - sample size

95% Confidence Interval and SE

- ► Recall that 95% of the data in a sample is within 2SD of its mean
- ➤ So, 95% of the times we sample a population, the true mean will lie within 2SE of our estimated mean
- ► This is the 95% Confidence Interval

$$\bar{Y} - 2SE \leq \mu \leq \bar{Y} + 2SE$$

Exercise: 95% Confidence Interval

$$\bar{Y} - 2SE \le \mu \le \bar{Y} + 2SE$$

- ▶ Draw 20 simulated samples with n=10 from a normal distribution of mean 0
- ► Calculate the upper and lower confidence interval for each
- $\,\blacktriangleright\,$ Compare the 95% CIs to the true value of the mean
- Extra: graph it with segments

Tip: To bind two vectors together as columns, use cbind

Exercise: 95% Confidence Interval

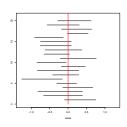
```
set.seed(697)
n <- 20
upperCivec <- rep(NA, n)
lowerCivec <- rep(NA, n)

# loop and calculate the 95% CI
for (i in 1:n) {
    samp <- rnorm(10)
    upperCivec[i] <- mean(samp) + 2 * sd(samp)/sqrt(n)
    lowerCivec[i] <- mean(samp) - 2 * sd(samp)/sqrt(n)
}</pre>
```

Exercise: 95% Confidence Interval

```
# examine the numbers
cbind(upperCIvec, lowerCIvec)[1:10, ]
        upperCIvec lowerCIvec
   [1,]
                     -0.09638
           0.75237
   [2,]
           0.39117 -0.66417
    [3.]
          0.38746 -0.81584
   Γ4.1
           0.67183 -0.14438
    [5.]
           0.23227 -0.30878
   Γ6.1
          -0.15508 -1.25684
          0.28960 -0.41992
    [8.]
           0.29285 -0.83584
    Γ9.1
          0.46890 -0.18128
## [10.]
          -0.05229 -0.84528
```

Exercise: 95% Confidence Interval



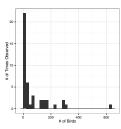
Variation in Other Estimates

- Many SEs and CIs of estimates have formulae and well understood properties
- For those that do not, we can bootstrap the SE of any estimate e.g., the median
 Bootstrapped estimates (mean of simulated replicates)
- can be used to assess bias

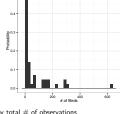
 Bootstrapping is not a panacea requires a good sample size to start

Distributions!

Frequency Distributions Make Intuitive Sense

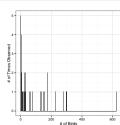


Frequencies Can be Turned Into Probabilities



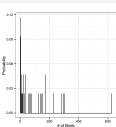
Just divide by total # of observations But - we have binned observations...

Frequencies of Individual Observations



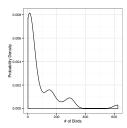
Can we turn these into probabilities?

Probabilities of Individual Measurements



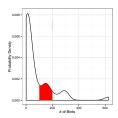
Many probabilities small, and what about the gaps?

Continuous Probability Distributions



Any individual observation has a probability density.

Probability as Integral Under the Curve



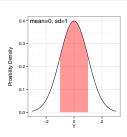
We obtain probabilities of observations between a range of values by integrating the distribution over selected values.

The Normal Distribution

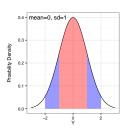


- Defined by it's mean and standard deviation.
- Y ~N(μ, σ)
- ► Single mode
- Symmetric

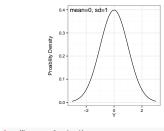
67% of Values within 1 SD



95% of Values within 2 (1.96) SD

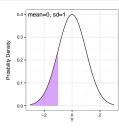


How to Get A Probability Density in R



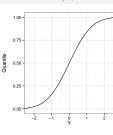
dnorm(Y, mean = 0, sd = 1)

The Probability of a Value or More Extreme Value



pnorm(Y, mean = 0, sd = 1)

The Cummulative Distribution/Quantile Function



qnorm(p, mean = 0, sd = 1)



pnrm an donorm are the inverse of one another pnorm(-1)

[1] 0.1587

qnorm(pnorm(-1))

[1] -1 qnorm(0.025)

[1] -1.96

The Lognormal Distribution



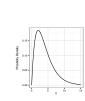
▶ Defined by the mean and standard deviation of its log. Y "LN(μ_{log}, σ_{log}) ► Generated by multiplicative

► An exponentiated normal

dlnorm(Y, meanlog = 0, sdlog = 1)

processes

The Gamma Distribution



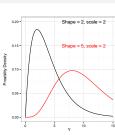
▶ Defined by number of events(shape) average time to an event (scale) ► Can also use rate (1/scale)

Y ~G(shape, scale)

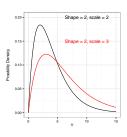
for a bus to arrive dgamma(Y, shape = 2, scale = 2)

► Think of time spent waiting

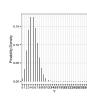
Waiting for more events



Longer average time per event

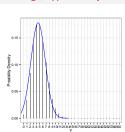


The Poisson Distribution

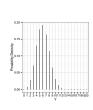


- Defined by λ the mean and variance
 Y ~ P(lambda)
- dpois(Y, lambda = 5)

When Lambda is Large, Approximately Normal



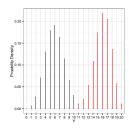
The Binomial Distribution



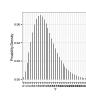
- Results from multiple coin flips
- Defined by size (# of flips) and prob (probability of heads)
- Y ~ B(size, prob)
- bounded by 0 and size

dpois(Y, size, prob)

Increasing Probability Shifts Distribution



The Negative Binomial Distribution



number of failures before n number of successes in k trials Or mean # of counts. μ , with an

Distribution of

- overdispersion parameter, size Y ~ NB(μ, size)
- dnbin(Y, mu, size)

Exercise

- Explore the distributions we have discussed
- Examine how changing parameters shifts the output of probability function
- Compare curves generated using density functions (e.g., dnorm) and large number of random draws (e.g. from rnorm)
- Overlay these in plots if you can (hist, lines, etc.)
- ▶ Challenge: graphically show integration under the different types of distribution curves