# Error in Estimates & Probability Distributions

### For loops in the Wild

## Sample Properties: Variance

How variable was that population?

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

- ► 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...

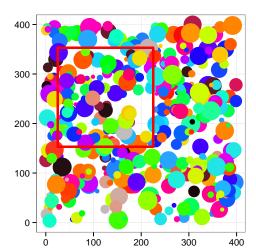
## Sample Properties: Standard Deviation

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

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

## Remember Samples and Populations?

How representative of our population are the estimates from our sample?





## Remember Samples and Populations?

We've seen that we get variation in point estimates at any sample size

What does that variation look like?

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- How does it depend on sample size (within replicates) or distribution type?

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

```
set.seed(697)
n <- 3
mvec <- rep(NA, times = 100)
# simulate sampling events!
for (i in 1:length(mvec)) {
    mvec[i] <- mean(runif(n, 0, 100))
}
hist(mvec, main = "n=3")</pre>
```

## Estimating Variation Around a Mean

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

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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))
##
   [1] 297 2 625 230 13
                        33 25
                                12 4
                                      28 297 2 12
  Γ15]
          1 18 28 297 1 282
                                              2 33 1
        3
                                15 300 148 23
## [29] 625 282 77 23 12 25 297
                                    2 33 230 135
                                                 67
                                                    18
                                2
## [43] 77
```

#### Standard Error

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

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

#### 95% Confidence Interval and SE

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- ► 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

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

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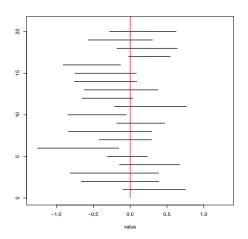
- ▶ Draw 20 simulated samples with n=10 from a normal distribution of mean 0
- Calculate the upper and lower confidence interval for each
- ▶ Compare the 95% CIs to the true value of the mean
- ► Extra: graph it with segments

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

```
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>
```

```
# examine the numbers
cbind(upperCIvec, lowerCIvec)[1:10, ]
##
       upperCIvec lowerCIvec
##
   [1,] 0.75237 -0.09638
   [2,] 0.39117 -0.66417
##
   [3,] 0.38746 -0.81584
##
##
   [4,] 0.67183 -0.14438
##
   [5,] 0.23227 -0.30878
##
   [6,] -0.15508 -1.25684
##
   [7,] 0.28960 -0.41992
##
   [8,] 0.29285 -0.83584
##
   [9,] 0.46890 -0.18128
## [10,] -0.05229 -0.84528
```



 Many SEs and CIs of estimates have formulae and well understood properties

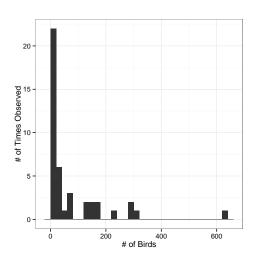
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- Bootstrapped estimates (mean of simulated replicates) can be used to assess bias

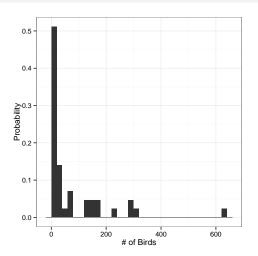
- Many SEs and CIs of estimates have formulae and well understood properties
- ► For those that do not, we can bootstrap the SE of any estimate e.g., the median
- Bootstrapped estimates (mean of simulated replicates)
   can be used to assess bias
- Bootstrapping is not a panacea requires a good sample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

## Distributions!

## Frequency Distributions Make Intuitive Sense

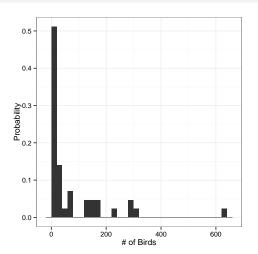


### Frequencies Can be Turned Into Probabilities



Just divide by total # of observations

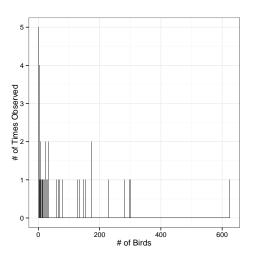
#### Frequencies Can be Turned Into Probabilities



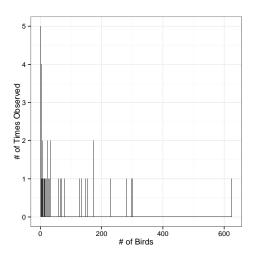
Just divide by total # of observations But - we have binned observations...



## Frequencies of Individual Observations



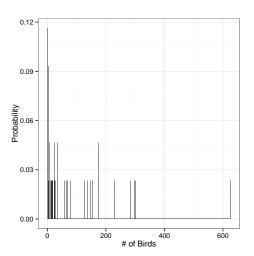
## Frequencies of Individual Observations



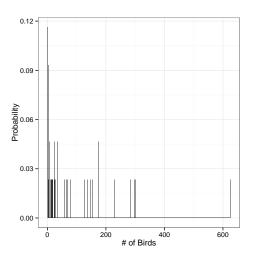
Can we turn these into probabilities?



#### Probabilities of Individual Measurements



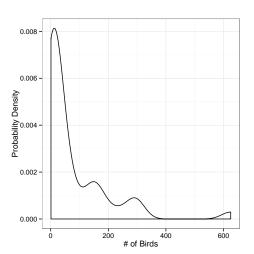
#### Probabilities of Individual Measurements



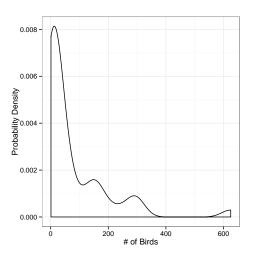
Many probabilities small, and what about the gaps?



## Continuous Probability Distributions



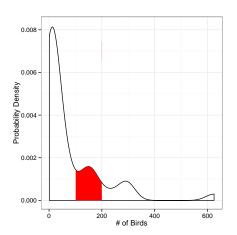
### Continuous Probability Distributions



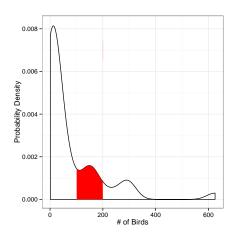
Any individual observation has a probability density.



# Probability as Integral Under the Curve



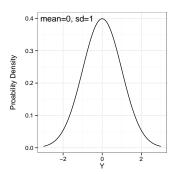
## Probability as Integral Under the Curve



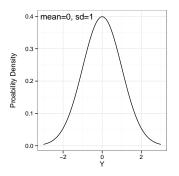
We obtain probabilities of observations between a range of values by integrating the distribution over selected values.



#### The Normal Distribution

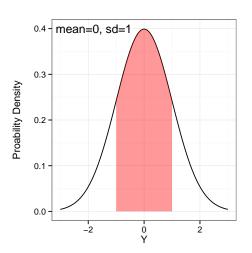


#### The Normal Distribution

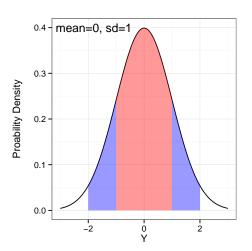


- Defined by it's mean and standard deviation.
- Y ~N(μ, σ)
- ► Single mode
- Symmetric

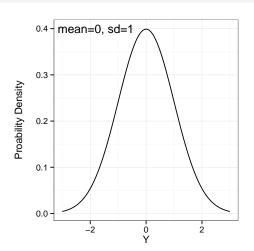
#### 67% of Values within 1 SD



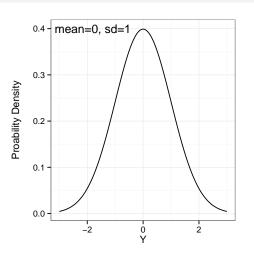
# 95% of Values within 2 (1.96) SD



# How to Get A Probability Density in R

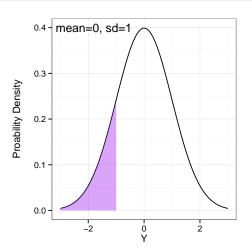


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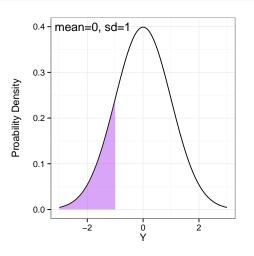


dnorm(Y, mean = 0, sd = 1)

### The Probability of a Value or More Extreme Value

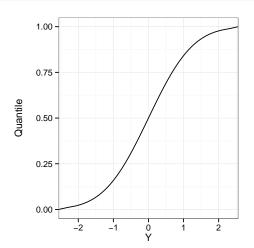


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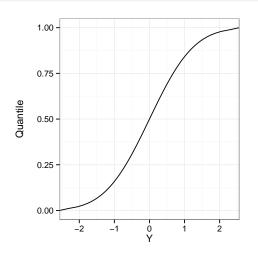


pnorm(Y, mean = 0, sd = 1)

## The Cummulative Distribution/Quantile Function



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

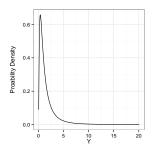


### The Cummulative Distribution/Quantile Function

pnrm an dqnorm are the inverse of one another

```
pnorm(-1)
## [1] 0.1587
qnorm(pnorm(-1))
## [1] -1
qnorm(0.025)
## [1] -1.96
```

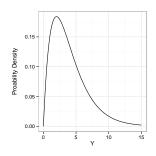
### The Lognormal Distribution



- An exponentiated normal
- Defined by the mean and standard deviation of its log.
- ightharpoonup Y ~LN( $\mu_{log}$ ,  $\sigma_{log}$ )
- Generated by multiplicative processes

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

#### The Gamma Distribution

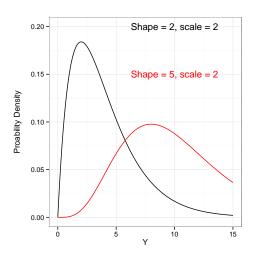


- Defined by number of events(shape) average time to an event (scale)
- ► Can also use rate (1/scale)
- Y ~G(shape, scale)
- ► Think of time spent waiting for a bus to arrive

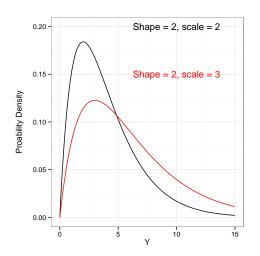
dgamma(Y, shape = 2, scale = 2)



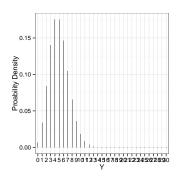
### Waiting for more events



#### Longer average time per event

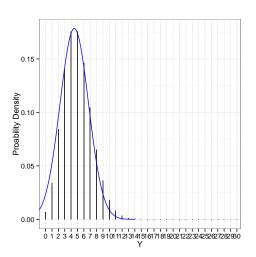


#### The Poisson Distribution

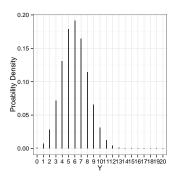


- Defined by λ the mean and variance
- Y ~ P(lambda)

# When Lambda is Large, Approximately Normal



#### The Binomial Distribution

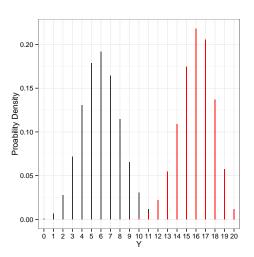


- Results from multiple coin flips
- Defined by size (# of flips) and prob (probability of heads)
- Y ~ B(size, prob)
- bounded by 0 and size

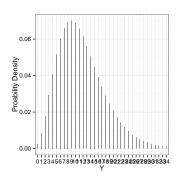
dpois(Y, size, prob)



# Increasing Probability Shifts Distribution



### The Negative Binomial Distribution



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