

# Sampling distributions part 2 (means)

Thomas Scofield

Feb. 21, 2020

## Pertinent R

The `sample()` command. You can make a container of objects and make random draws from it:

```
die = c(1,2,3,4,5,6)
sample(die, size=3, replace=TRUE) # the optional 'replace' switch affects command's behavior

## [1] 3 5 2
```

Or, you can sample (draw randomly) rows/cases from a data frame.

```
sample(iris, size=5, replace=TRUE)
```

	Sepal.Length	Sepal.Width	Petal.Length	Petal.Width	Species	orig.id
## 31	4.8	3.1	1.6	0.2	setosa	31
## 47	5.1	3.8	1.6	0.2	setosa	47
## 42	4.5	2.3	1.3	0.3	setosa	42
## 54	5.5	2.3	4.0	1.3	versicolor	54
## 146	6.7	3.0	5.2	2.3	virginica	146

There is a related command, `resample()`, which assumes you want to sample with replacement, so it doesn't require the extra switch `replace=TRUE` to make that happen.

```
resample(iris, size=5) # automatically draws with replacement
```

	Sepal.Length	Sepal.Width	Petal.Length	Petal.Width	Species	orig.id
## 19	5.7	3.8	1.7	0.3	setosa	19
## 106	7.6	3.0	6.6	2.1	virginica	106
## 38	4.9	3.6	1.4	0.1	setosa	38
## 42	4.5	2.3	1.3	0.3	setosa	42
## 2	4.9	3.0	1.4	0.2	setosa	2

## Pertinent R Markdown

At times, you will want to insert math symbols into a report. One can write  $E=mc^2$  as text, but it looks better if you enter the same thing in math mode. You indicate the start to math mode by including a dollar-sign  $\$$  in your source file, and once your equation is finished, you indicate math mode is over with another dollar sign. So, placing  $\$E=mc^2\$$  in your source (.Rmd) file results in  $E = mc^2$ . Greek letters require math mode, and what you put between the dollar signs is a backslash character  $\backslash$  followed by the name (spelled out in English) of the desired Greek letter. So, including  $\$\mu\$$  in the source file produces  $\mu$  in your document. See if you can guess what you to include in your .Rmd file in order to get the two versions of the Greek letter sigma—that is,  $\Sigma$  and  $\sigma$ . Math mode also allows you to add things like a “hat” to  $p$ , or a “bar” over an  $x$ .

- In .Rmd file:  $\hat{p}$  is rendered as  $\hat{p}$
- In .Rmd file:  $\overline{x}$  is rendered as  $\overline{x}$

## Sampling distribution for sample mean $\overline{x}$

The textbook illustrates this same concept using the data set **StatisticsPhD**, the first few rows of which are

```
head(StatisticsPhD)
```

```
##           University      Department FTGradEnrollment
## 1      Baylor University      Statistics              26
## 2      Boston University Biostatistics              39
## 3      Brown University Biostatistics              21
## 4 Carnegie Mellon University      Statistics              39
## 5 Case Western Reserve University      Statistics              11
## 6      Colorado State University      Statistics              14
```

We might calculate the mean (which can be viewed as a population mean  $\mu$ , since this data is a *census* of all Ph.D. statistics programs in the country, not merely a sample of such programs) number of full-time students enrolled, using the `mean()` command and indicating column (variable name) and data frame name in the usual way:

```
mean(~FTGradEnrollment, data=StatisticsPhD)
```

```
## [1] 53.53659
```

If, however, we want to simulate the process of computing a mean from a random sample of 10 of these Ph.D. programs, we need only indicate a different data set on which to calculate the mean—not the full **StatisticsPhD** data frame, but a random sample of 10 cases selected from it:

```
mean(~FTGradEnrollment, data=resample(StatisticsPhD,size=10))
```

```
## [1] 47
```

This command

- draws a sample of 10 schools with replacement
- calculates  $\overline{x}$ , the mean number of **FTGradEnrollment** for the schools in the sample.

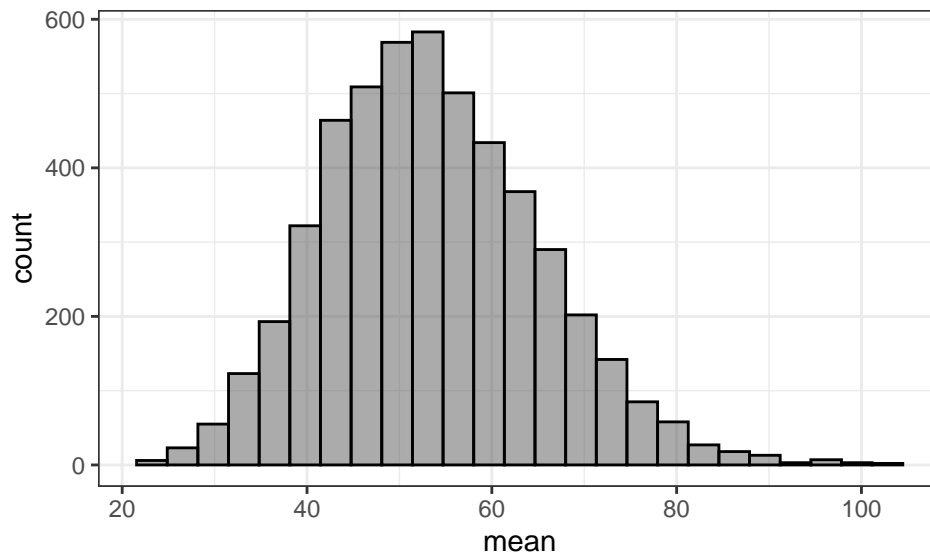
Doing it once gives you  $\overline{x}$  for a single random sample with  $n = 10$ . Do it many times, and you'll start to see the sort of values  $\overline{x}$  can take, and which ones occur more frequently, in a random sample of 10 programs. In other words, you get an idea of the sampling distribution of  $\overline{x}$  for samples of size 10 taken from this population.

```
manyXbars <- do(5000) * mean(~FTGradEnrollment, data=resample(StatisticsPhD, size=10))
head(manyXbars)
```

```
##    mean
## 1 51.6
## 2 51.6
## 3 73.6
## 4 65.1
## 5 39.3
## 6 34.8
```

Seeing that the results (stowed in the data frame **manyXbars**) have been given the column name **mean**, we will incorporate those names in a call to the `gf_histogram()` command:

```
gf_histogram(~mean, data=manyXbars, color="black")
```



### Exercise 1:

- Find an approximate standard error of the mean,  $SE_{\bar{x}}$ , for samples of size 10 from this population.
- Does it appear that  $\bar{x}$  is an unbiased estimator of  $\mu$ ? How can you tell?
- How often (give an answer in terms of *relative frequency*) is  $\bar{x}$  as large as 60?

### Exercise 2:

Repeat the work done already to generate and view an approximate sampling distribution for  $\bar{x}$ , again with sample sizes  $n = 10$ , but with the difference that you sample without replacement instead of with replacement. Are there noticeable differences between this sampling distribution and the one for samples of size  $n = 10$  taken with replacement? Does `favstats()` reveal any major differences in the two distributions?

### Exercise 3:

Now that you have looked at sampling distributions for  $\bar{x}$  both with and without replacement for samples of size  $n = 10$ , try comparing the two for samples of size  $n = 20$ . Once again apply `favstats()` to see if there are notable differences. Are the differences you noted between the two distributions at  $n = 10$  even more pronounced at  $n = 20$ ?