Point Estimates and Sampling Variability

Colby Community College

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In general, there are two sources of error: sampling error and bias.

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Example 1

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Much of statistics is focused on understanding and quantifying sampling error.

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While this method seems silly, a compute can do these steps in a short amount of time.

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| 0.867 | -0.013 | 0.876 | -0.004 | 0.883 | 0.003 |
| 0.889 | 0.009 | 0.887 | 0.007 | 0.874 | -0.006 |
| 0.896 | 0.016 | 0.898 | 0.018 | 0.874 | -0.006 |

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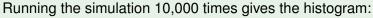
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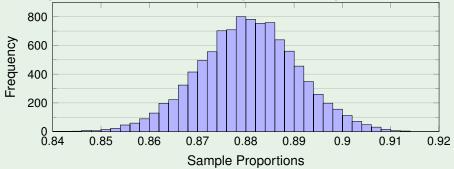
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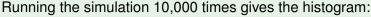
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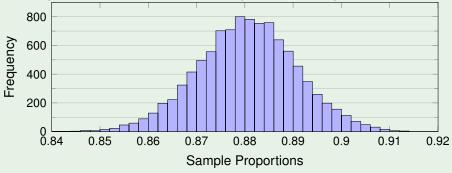
Definition

The **sampling distribution** is the distribution of sample proportions.

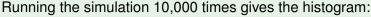


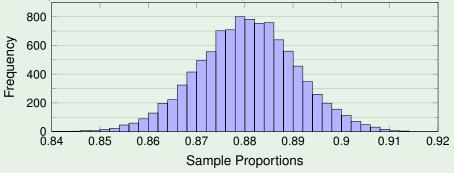






Center: The center of this distribution is $\bar{x}_{\hat{p}} = 0.8799$, which is very close to p = 0.88.

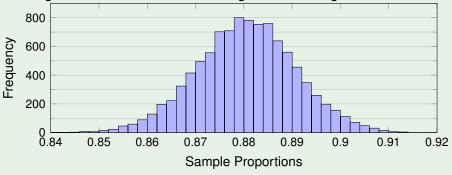




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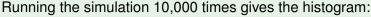
Spread : The standard deviation of this distribution is $s_{\hat{o}} = 0.0102$.

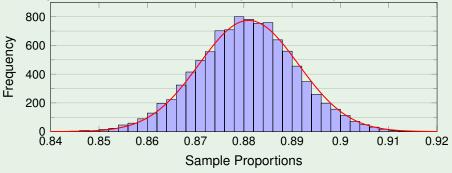
Running the simulation 10,000 times gives the histogram:



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Shape: This distribution is approximately normal.

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This highlights an important property: a bigger sample tends to provide a more precise point estimate than a smaller sample.

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Note

In real-world applications, we never actually observe the sampling distribution, yet it is useful to always think of a point estimate as coming from a hypothetical distribution.

Central Limit Theorem

When observations are independent and the sample size, n, is sufficiently large, the sample proportions \hat{p} will tend to follow a normal distribution with the following mean and standard deviation:

$$\mu_{\hat{p}} = p$$
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Applying the Central Limit Theorem gives:

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This is very close to the observed standard error, 0.0102.

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Note

If a sample is larger than 10% of the population, the methods we discuss tend to overestimate the sampling error slightly. In these cases more advanced methods are needed.

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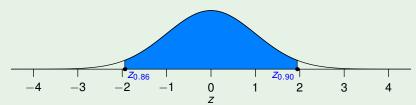
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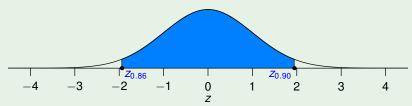


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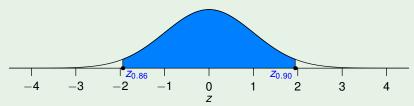
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We expect \hat{p} to be within 0.02 of 0.88 about 94.78% of the time.

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Success-Failure Conditions Since we don't actually know p, the next best thing we have is \hat{p} .

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Because $n\hat{p}$ and $n(1-\hat{p})$ are both well above 10, we can conclude that \hat{p} is a reasonable substitute for p.

When np and n(1-p) are much larger than 10, we can use \hat{p} in place of p and the Centeral Limit Theorem becomes:

$$\mu_{\hat{p}} = p \approx \hat{p}$$
 $SE_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}}$

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, $p - 0.88$, $\hat{p} = 0.887$:

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These values are the same to three decimal places, so using the substitution approximation won't make a major difference.

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 - This may be harder to see for larger sample sizes, as the variability also becomes smaller.
- When np and n(1-p) are both very large, the distributions discreteness is hardly evident, and the distribution looks much more like a normal distribution.