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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0.889	0.009	0.887	0.007	0.874	-0.006
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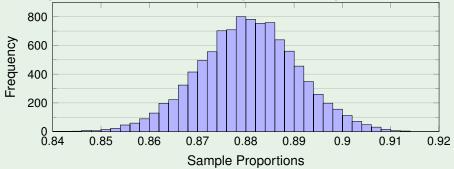
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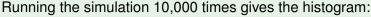
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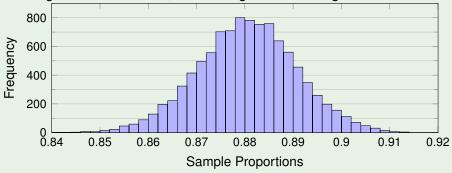
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The **sampling distribution** is the distribution of sample proportions.

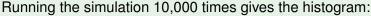
Running the simulation 10,000 times gives the histogram:

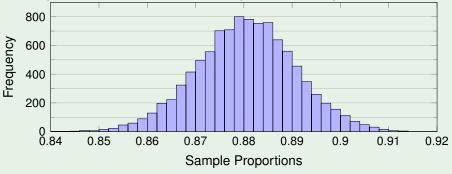






Center: The center of this distribution is $\bar{x}_{\hat{p}} = 0.8799$, which is very close to p = 0.88.

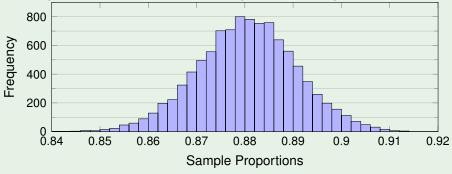




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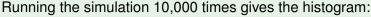
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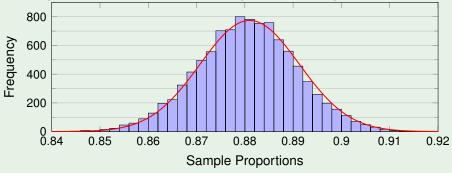
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Shape: This distribution is approximately normal.

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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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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:

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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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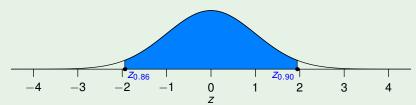
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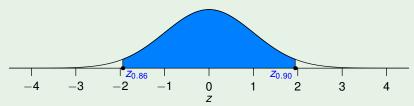


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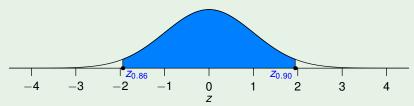
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We expect \hat{p} to be within 0.02 of 0.88 about 94.78% of the time.

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$$n\hat{p} = 1000 \cdot 0.887 = 887 \ge 10 \checkmark$$

 $n(1 - \hat{p}) = 1000(1 - 0.887) = 1000 \cdot 0.113$

We do not actually know the population proportion unless we conduct a full census of the entire population.

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