Gov 50: 17. Sums and Means in Large Samples

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Fall 2018

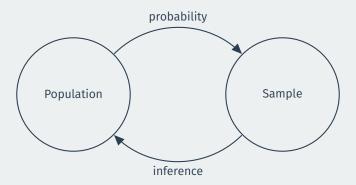
- 1. Today's agenda
- 2. Sample means
- 3. Normal distribution
- 4. Central limit theorem

1/ Today's agenda

- HW 4 due Thursday.
- Groups have been determined for Harvard College students.
 - Paragraph describing data and research question due 11/21
- Midterm 2 next Thursday
 - Review session on Tuesday.

- Last time: defined random variables.
- This time: connect them to data more carefully.
- What happens to our sample means as our samples get big?
 - Law of large numbers
 - Central limit theorem

Learning about populations



- **Probability**: formalize the uncertainty about how our data came to be.
- Inference: learning about the population from a set of data.

2/ Sample means

- fulton.csv: data on all registered voters in Fulton County, GA in 1994.
- Data on the entire population is a **census**

Name	Description
turnout	did person vote (1) or not (0) in 1994?
black	is this person black (1) or not (0)?
sex	is this person a woman (1) or not (0)?
age	age
dem	is this person registered as a Democrat (1) or not (0)?
rep	is this person registered as a Republican (1) or not (0)?
urban	registered in a city (1) or not (0)?

fulton <- read.csv("data/fulton.csv") head(fulton)</pre>

##		turnout	black	sex	age	dem	rep	urban
##	1	Θ	Θ	1	19	0	0	Θ
##	2	Θ	Θ	Θ	35	0	0	Θ
##	3	Θ	1	Θ	36	0	0	1
##	4	1	Θ	0	27	0	0	1
##	5	1	1	1	79	1	0	1
##	6	1	Θ	1	42	1	0	Θ

• In real data, we will have a set of *n* measurements on a variable:

$$X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$$

- \blacktriangleright X₁ is the age of the first randomly selected registered voter.
- \blacktriangleright X_2 is the age of the second randomly selected registered voter, etc.
- Empirical analyses: sums or means of these *n* measurements
 - Almost all statistical procedures involve a sum/mean.
 - What are the properties of these sums and means?
 - Can the sample mean of age tell us anything about the population distribution of age?
- Asymptotics: what can we learn as n gets big?

• If X_1 and X_2 are r.v.s, then $X_1 + X_2$ is a r.v.

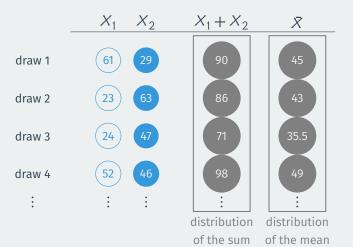
• Has a mean $\mathbb{E}[X_1 + X_2]$ and a variance $\mathbb{V}[X_1 + X_2]$

• The **sample mean** is a function of sums and so it is a r.v. too:

$$\overline{X} = \frac{X_1 + X_2}{2}$$

This is the average age of two randomly selected respondents.

Distribution of sums/means



• Often work with **independent and identically distributed** r.v.s, X_1, \ldots, X_n

- Random sample of n respondents on a survey question.
- Written "i.i.d."
- Independent: value that X_i takes doesn't affect distribution of X_i
- Identically distributed: distribution of X_i is the same for all i

$$\mathbb{E}(X_1) = \mathbb{E}(X_2) = \dots = \mathbb{E}(X_n) = \mu$$

$$\mathbb{V}(X_1) = \mathbb{V}(X_2) = \dots = \mathbb{V}(X_n) = \sigma^2$$

Distribution of the sample mean

• Sample mean of i.i.d. random variables:

$$\overline{X}_n = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

• \overline{X}_n is a random variable, what is its distribution?

- What is the expectation of this distribution, $\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}_n]$?
- What is the variance of this distribution, $\mathbb{V}[X_n]$?
- These will help us know where we should expect the sample mean to be.
- Fulton County data:
 - The average age in a one random sample is different than the average age in another random sample.
 - Will the average age in the sample be close to the population age?

Properties of the sample mean

Mean and variance of the sample mean

Suppose that $X_1, ..., X_n$ are i.i.d. r.v.s with $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = \mu$ and $\mathbb{V}[X_i] = \sigma^2$. Then:

$$\mathbb{E}[\overline{X}_n] = \mu \qquad \mathbb{V}[\overline{X}_n] = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

- Key insights:
 - Sample mean is on average equal to the population mean
 - Variance of X_n depends on the population variance of X_i and the sample size
- Standard deviation of the sample mean is called its **standard error**:

$$SE = \sqrt{\mathbb{W}[\overline{X}_n]} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Law of Large Numbers

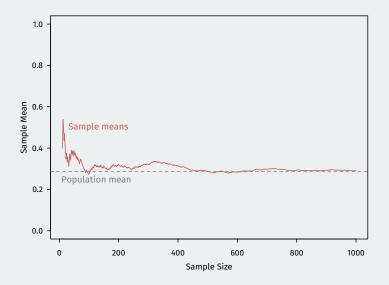
Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. random variables with mean μ and finite variance σ^2 . Then, \overline{X}_n converges to μ as n gets large.

- Intuition: The probability of \overline{X}_n being "far away" from μ goes to 0 as n gets big.
- The distribution of sample mean "collapses" to population mean.

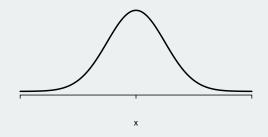
LLN by simulation in R

- Draw a random sample of 1000 from Fulton County data.
- Compare the sample average of Democratic registration as we include more of this sample.
- Like drawing random samples of size 1, 2, 3, 5, ..., 999, 1000.

```
dem.mean <- mean(fulton$dem)
sims <- 1000
# draw a random sample of row numbers (with replacement)
samp <- sample(1:nrow(fulton), size = sims, replace = TRUE)
dem.samp <- fulton$dem[samp]
# calculate the mean of the first i values
samp.means <- rep(NA, times = sims)
for (i in 1:sims) {
    samp.means[i] <- sum(dem.samp[1:i]) / i
</pre>
```



3/ Normal distribution

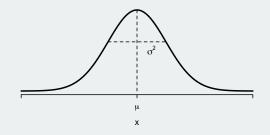


- The normal distribution is the classic "bell-shaped" curve.
 - Extremely ubiquitous in statistics.
 - "Sums and means of random variables tend to follow a normal distribution"

• Three key properties:

- **Unimodal**: one peak at the mean.
- **Symmetric** around the mean.
- **Everywhere positive**: any real value can possibly occur.

Normal distribution



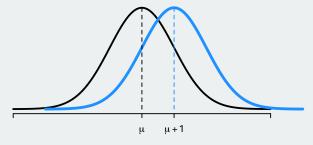
A normal distribution can be affect by two values:

- mean/expected value usually written as μ
- **variance** written as σ^2 (standard deviation is σ)
- Written $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

Standard normal distribution: mean 0 and standard deviation 1.

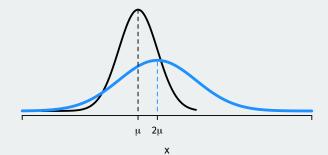
Reentering and scaling the normal

- How do transformations of a normal work?
- Let $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and c be a constant.
- If Z = X + c, then $Z \sim N(\mu + c, \sigma^2)$.
- Intuition: adding a constant to a normal shifts the distribution by that constant.



Recentering and scaling the normal

- Let $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and c be a constant.
- If Z = cX, then $Z \sim N(c\mu, (c\sigma)^2)$.
- Intuition: multiplying a normal by a constant scales the mean and the variance.



• These two facts imply the **z-score** of a normal variable is a standard normal:

$$z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1)$$

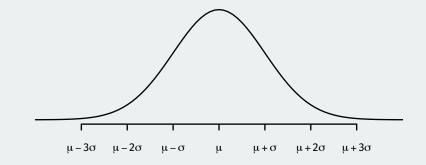
- Subtract the mean and divide by the SD \rightsquigarrow standard normal.
- *z*-score measures how many SDs away from the mean a value of *X* is.

4/ Central limit theorem

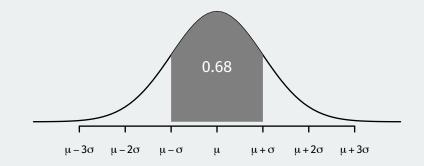
Central limit theorem

Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be i.i.d. r.v.s from a distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 . Then, \overline{X}_n will be approximately distributed $N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ in large samples.

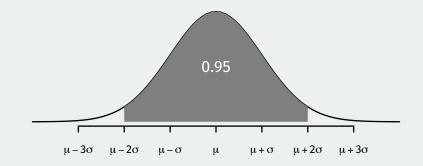
- Approximation is better as *n* goes up.
- "Sample means tend to be normally distributed as samples get large."
- \rightsquigarrow we know how far away X_n will be from its mean.



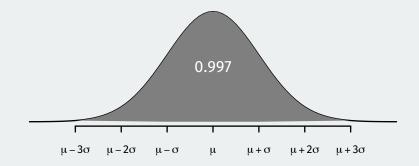
• If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then:



If X ~ N(μ, σ²), then:
 ≥ 68% of the distribution of X is within 1 SD of the mean.

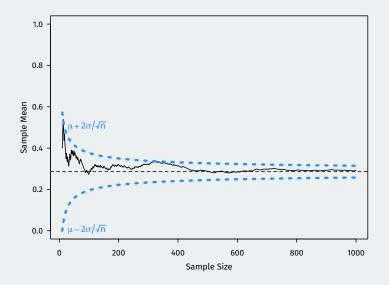


- If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then:
 - \blacktriangleright \approx 68% of the distribution of X is within 1 SD of the mean.
 - > \approx 95% of the distribution of X is within 2 SDs of the mean.



- If $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then:
 - \blacktriangleright \approx 68% of the distribution of X is within 1 SD of the mean.
 - > \approx 95% of the distribution of X is within 2 SDs of the mean.
 - > \approx 99.7% of the distribution of X is within 3 SDs of the mean.

- By CLT, sample mean \approx normal with mean μ and SD $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$. By empirical rule, sample mean will be within $2 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ of the population mean 95% of the time.



- 1. Draw a sample of size 1000 from the Fulton county population.
- 2. Calculate the sample mean of Democratic registration (dem) for that sample.
- 3. Save the sample mean.
- 4. Repeat steps 1-3 a large number of times.

CLT in action

get the values of "dem" for sample
dem.sample <- fulton\$dem[samp.ind]</pre>

```
## record mean of this sample
dem.means[i] <- mean(dem.sample)</pre>
```

mean and sd of the sample means from each
repeated sample
mean(dem.means)

[1] 0.286

sd(dem.means)

[1] 0.0142

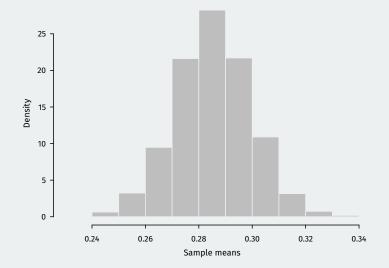
compare to what the CLT predicts from population
mean(fulton\$dem)

[1] 0.286

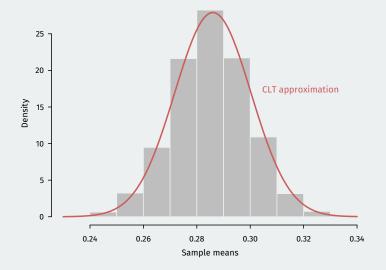
sd(fulton\$dem)/sqrt(n)

[1] 0.0143

Histogram of sample means



Histogram of sample means



- We usually only 1 sample, so we'll only get 1 sample mean.
- Why do we care about LLN/CLT?
 - CLT gives us assurances our 1 sample mean will won't be too far from population mean.
 - CLT will also help us create measure of uncertainty for our estimates.

- Today: learning about samples given population information
- Next: Learning about population values from the sample.