

# Math 161 Lecture 2

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September 8, 2007

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## Lecture 2

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## Chapter 2: Samples, Good and Bad

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## Overview

- We wish to obtain information about a **population** by choosing a **sample** and gathering information from the **individuals** which make up the sample.
- Expectation (or hope!): The sample is representative of the entire population.
- Choose sample with care: Use chance!

## First: How not to Sample

- **Convenience Sampling**: Sample consists of individuals which are easiest to reach.
- Problem: Sample not representative of population of interest.
- Example: Ontario welfare reform in 1995– reduced benefits resulted in reduced welfare ranks. A 1996 telephone poll of people who had gone off welfare found that 62% of these people listed finding a job as their reason for no longer collecting welfare. Aha! claimed the government, 62% of those previously on welfare are now working thanks to the reforms.

## First: How not to Sample

- **Voluntary Response Sample**: Sample consists of individuals who elect to respond to a question/study.
- Problem: People with strong feelings about the issue tend to respond– sample not representative of population of interest.
- Examples:
  - RateMyProfessors.com
  - B.C. Treaty Referendum of 2002

- Convenience Sampling and Voluntary Response Sampling introduce **bias** into a statistical study.
- **Bias**: The systematic favoring of one outcome over another.
- Example: Evaluate a professor by asking all failing students if they were satisfied with the professor's teaching.

## Avoiding Bias: Simple Random Samples

- Use chance to select a sample from the population of interest
- **Simple Random Sample (or SRS)**: An SRS of size  $n$  is a sample of  $n$  individuals chosen from a population in such a way that every sample of size  $n$  has the same chance of being selected.
- **Selecting an SRS**: To select an SRS of size  $n$ :
  - Label each individual in the population with a unique number.
  - Randomly draw  $n$  numbers from the collection of numbers representing the population.
  - The  $n$  individuals with labels matching the numbers drawn form the sample.

## Selecting an SRS: Table of Random Digits

- **Table of Random Digits**: A table made up of digits from 0 to 9, each entry in the list equally likely to be any of the digits 0 through 9, each entry independent of the others.
- See Table A on page 550 of text
- Example: Choose an SRS of size 5 from the class using line 122 of Table A.

- More practical (and modern) method of choosing an SRS: Use computer software.
- Some web-based random number generators:
  - <http://bcs.whfreeman.com/scc6e> and click on 'Statistical Applets', then click on 'Simple Random Sample' (Java required).
  - <http://www.randomizer.org/form.htm>
- Example: Choose an SRS of size 5 from the class.

## Chapter 3: What Do Samples Tell Us?

### Putting our SRS to Work

- We use an SRS as a snapshot of the entire population.
- We wish to use facts about our SRS to make estimates about the entire population.

## Putting our SRS to Work: Example

- **Example** (from first day): What proportion (or percentage) of Americans believe there is solid evidence that the earth is warming?
- Take an SRS of 1708 adult Americans and ask them the question.
- We find that 1315 of the 1708 people surveyed believe the earth is warming.
- So we *estimate* that

$$\frac{1315}{1708} = 0.769 = 77\%$$

of the entire population believes the earth is warming.

## Parameters and Statistics

- Need terminology to distinguish between the quantities used to describe the entire population and those used to describe the sample.
- **Parameter**: Number (usually unknown) which describes the entire population.
- **Statistic**: Number (known) which describes a sample.

## Parameters and Statistics: Example

- **Example**:
  - Let  $p$  = true (but unknown) proportion of Americans who believe there is solid evidence that the earth is warming.
  - $p$  is a **parameter**.
  - Let  $\hat{p}$  = proportion of our sample of 1708 adult Americans who believe there is solid evidence that the earth is warming.
  - $\hat{p}$  is a sample **statistic**. ( $\hat{p}$  is read as “ $p$  hat”).
- Notice the notation: The “hat” denotes the statistic used to estimate the corresponding parameter. For example, if  $c$  is some parameter, then  $\hat{c}$  would be the corresponding statistic used to estimate  $c$ .

- We expect that an SRS from a population avoids **bias** and gives a **statistic** which is a good estimate for the corresponding population **parameter**.
- If we take a second SRS and calculate the same statistic, it is unlikely that its value will be exactly the same as the first, but we expect it to be close.
- If we continue this, taking many SRS's and calculate statistics, will the results all be close or quite spread out?

## Variability Demo from Text

Simplified Example: Suppose we have a population of 300,000,000 of which half 150,000,000 are males, other half females.

- Let  $p$  = male proportion of the population, so  $p = 1/2 = 0.5$
- Repeatedly take SRS's of size  $n = 100$  and for each sample determine  $\hat{p}$  = male proportion of the sample.
- Plot the results on a histogram:

<See Figure 3.1 on p.36 of text>

## Variability Demo from Text

Same Example, only this time we take SRS's of size  $n = 2527$ , and again  $\hat{p}$  = male proportion of the sample:

<See Figure 3.2 on p.36 of text>

- Notice in both examples most values of  $\hat{p}$  are centered around the true value of  $p = 0.5$
- The  $\hat{p}$  values from the  $n = 100$  sample size are more spread out compared to those of the  $n = 2527$  sample size.
- In general, increasing the sample size reduces the variability.

## Bias and Variability in a Nutshell

- **Bias:** Consistent, repeated deviation of the sample statistic from the population parameter in the same direction when we take many samples.
- To reduce bias use **random sampling**.
- **Variability:** How spread out the values of the sample statistics are when many samples are taken.
- To reduce variability of an SRS use a larger sample size.

## Bias and Variability in Pictures

<See Figure 3.2 on p.36 of text>

- **Back to our Example:** Recall our example which stated that 77% of adult Americans believe there is solid evidence that the earth is warming.
- We were told that the survey was “accurate to within 3% nineteen times out of twenty”.
- This is called a **confidence statement**.
- What does this mean?

## Confidence Statement: Translation

- First,  $\frac{19}{20} = 0.95 = 95\%$ , so “nineteen times out of twenty” means 95%.
- “the survey was accurate to within 3% nineteen times out of twenty”

means

“if we repeated this survey over and over, 95% of the samples would give a sample statistic within 3 percentage points of the true (unknown) value of the population parameter”

- The 3% in this case is called the **margin of error**, and depends on the sample size.
- The 95% is called the **confidence level** and tells us how much we can trust the result of a single sample.

## Margin of Error

- Increasing the sample size reduces the margin of error.
- How does sample size translate into margin of error?
- Rule of thumb: If estimating a population proportion  $p$  using a sample proportion  $\hat{p}$  from a SRS of size  $n$ , and assuming a 95% confidence level, the margin of error is approximately  $1/\sqrt{n}$ .
- Example: In our earth warming example, the sample size was 1708, so we expect the margin of error to be

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1708}} = 0.024 = 2.4\%$$

Not exactly 3%, but close!

## Margin of Error: Example

Once again, consider the study of the proportion of Americans who believe there is solid evidence that the earth is warming. Assuming a 95% confidence level, suppose we wish the margin of error to be only 1%. How large a sample is required?