Confidence Intervals (One Sample)

8.1, 8.2.1, 8.2.2, 8.4.1

Learning Objectives

At the end of this unit, students should be able to:

- 1. Derive the X% confidence interval for the mean of a population when the sample standard deviation is known.
- 2. Identify the center and the length of a confidence interval for the mean.
- *3. Properly interpret confidence intervals and identify common misinterpretations.
 - 4. Compute confidence intervals for the mean of a variable of interest in a given dataset.
 - 5. Find the sample size necessary to ensure that a resulting confidence interval has width of at most w.
 - 6. Derive the X% confidence interval for the mean of a population when the sample standard deviation is unknown.
 - 7. Describe why the (pre-calculated) confidence interval endpoints are random (for all CIs).
 - 8. Describe the t-distribution, its properties, its parameter, and its use in confidence interval calculations. Use R to calculate critical values/percentiles of a t-distribution.
 - 9. State the normal approximation of a binomial distribution.
 - 10. Derive, calculate, and interpret the X% confidence interval for a population proportion.
 - 11. Derive, calculate, and interpret the X% confidence interval for a population variance.

Mean (SD known)

Let's start with a simple example. Suppose that we have a simple random sample of *n* measurements from a normal population, and that the population standard deviation is known.

Standardizing the sample mean by first subtracting its expected value and then dividing by its standard deviation yields the standard normal variable

$$Z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\sigma / m} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

How big does our sample need to be if the underlying population is normally distributed? N 2/

Because the area under the standard normal curve between –1.96 and 1.96 is 0.95, we know:

$$P(-1.96 \le Z \le 1.9b) = 0.95 \iff P(-1.9b \le \frac{x-u}{\sigma/m} \le 1.9b) = 0.95$$

 $\Leftrightarrow P(-1.9b = x-u \le 1.9b = 0.95)$

This is equivalent to:

$$P(\overline{X}-1.91) = 0.95$$

$$random \qquad Fixed$$

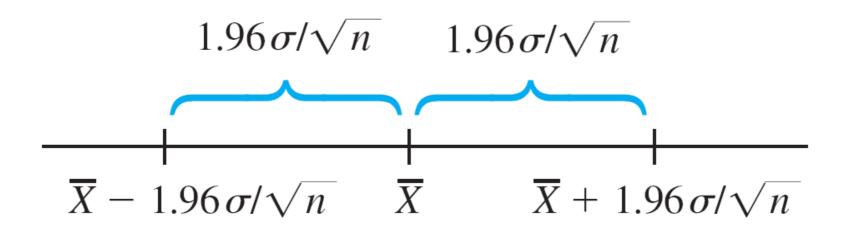
The interval

Is called the 95% confidence interval for the mean.

This interval varies from sample to sample, as the sample mean varies. So, the interval itself is a random interval.

The CI interval is centered at \underline{X} and extends to each side of X.

The interval's width is 2(1.%) which is not random; only the location of the interval (its midpoint X) is random.



As we showed, for a given sample, the CI can be expressed as

11

A concise expression for the interval is

where the left endpoint is the lower limit and the right endpoint is the upper limit.

(3,5)

"We are 95% confident that the true parameter is in this interval."

What does that mean??

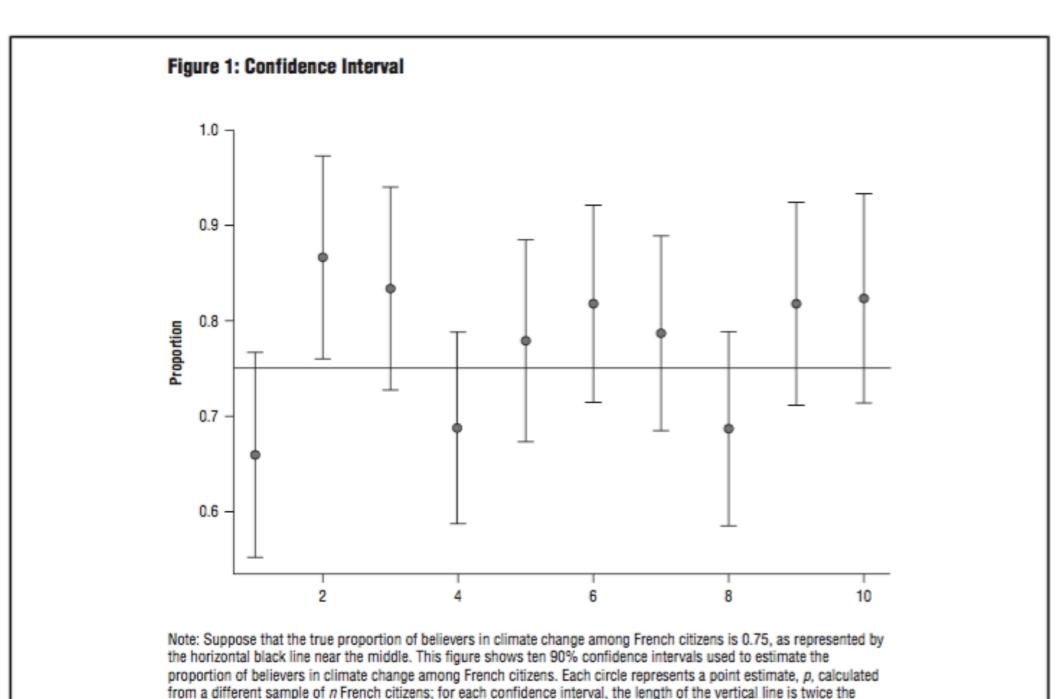
If we repeatedly took samples and calc. CIs, 95% would

cover u.

A correct interpretation of "95% confidence" relies on the long-run relative frequency interpretation of probability.

In repeated sampling, 95% of the confidence intervals obtained from all samples will actually contain. The other 5% of the intervals will not.

*The confidence level is <u>not a statement about any</u>
<u>particular interval</u> instead it pertains to what would
happen if a very large number of like intervals were to be
constructed using the same CI formula.

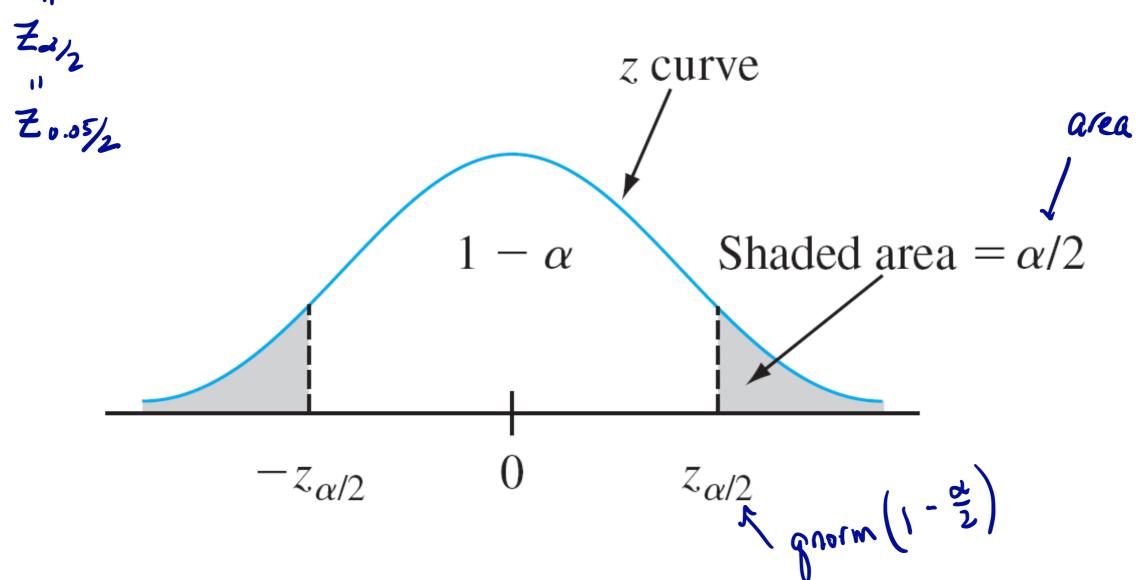


margin of error, E, for that interval. Notice that the second interval fails to cover the true proportion. For the 90% confidence interval procedure, it is expected that about one in every ten intervals will fail to cover the true proportion.

Show them this! http://www.ejwagenmakers.com/inpress/
HoekstraEtAIPBR.pdf

Other Levels of Confidence Significance by Wpothesis | Probability of 1 — a is achieved by using Za/2 in place of

 $Z_{1025} = 1.96$



Other Levels of Confidence

A 100(1 – α)% confidence interval for the mean when the value of σ is known is given by:

Or, equivalently, by:

Example: A sample of 40 units is selected and diameter measured for each one. The sample mean diameter is 5.426 mm, and the standard deviation of measurements is 0.1 mm. $\sqrt{x} = 5.426$. $\sqrt{x} = 6.1$

(a) Calculate a confidence interval for true average hole diameter using a confidence level of 90%.)

using a confidence level of 90%.

$$Z_{3/2} = Z_{0.0/2} = Z_{0.05} = 1.64, \qquad \left(5.42b - 1.44 \left(\frac{0.1}{140}\right), 5.46 + 1.64 \left(\frac{0.1}{140}\right)\right)$$

$$= \left(5.4, 5.452\right)$$

(b) What about the 99% confidence interval?

$$Z_{2} = 2.57$$
 (5.385, 5.467)

(e) What are the advantages and disadvantages to a wider confidence interval?

Sample Size Computation

For a desired confidence level and interval width, we can determine the necessary sample size.

Example: For a given computer model, memory fetch response time is normally distributed with standard deviation of 25 milliseconds. A new computer has been purchased, and we wish to estimate the true average response time. What sample size is necessary to ensure that the resulting 95% CI has a width of (at most) 10 units?

$$10 = W = 2 \left(1.96 \right) \left(\frac{25}{50} \right) \Rightarrow n \approx 96.04 \Rightarrow n = 97$$

Large Sample Confidence Interval for the Mean

A difficulty in using our previous equation for confidence intervals is that it uses the value of σ which will <u>rarely be known</u>. Also, we may want a CI for a mean from <u>some other non-normal distribution</u>.

$$E(s) = \sigma$$

$$P(-Z_{d/2} \leq Z \leq Z_{d/2}) = 1 - \alpha, \quad Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma / m} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

Large Sample Confidence Interval for the Mean

In this instance, we need to work with the **sample standard deviation** *s*. Remember from our first lesson that the standard deviation is calculated as:

$$S = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

With this, we instead work with the standardized random variable:

m variable:
$$Z = \frac{X - u}{s/s} \sim N(0,1)$$

Previously, there was randomness only in the numerator of Z by virtue of the estimator \underline{x} .

In the new standardized variable, both _____ and ____ sample to another.

When n is large the substitution of s for σ adds little extra variability, so nothing needs to change.

When *n* is smaller, the distribution of this new variable should be wider than the normal to reflect the extra uncertainty. (We talk more about this in a bit.)

Large Sample CI:

 $\left\{P\left(-\mathcal{Z}_{d/2} \leq \mathcal{Z}\right) \leq \mathcal{Z}_{d/2}\right\} = 1 - \alpha$

If *n* is sufficiently large (n > 30), the standardized random variable

$$Z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{s/r_0} \sim N(0,1)$$

has approximately a standard normal distribution. This implies that

is a large-sample confidence interval for with confidence level approximately $100(1-\alpha)$ %. This formula is valid regardless of the population distribution for sufficiently large n.

	n >= 30	n < 30
Underlying normal distribution	σ known	σ known
	σunknown (previous slide)	σunknown
Underlying non-normal distribution	σ known	σknown
	σunknown (previous slide)	σunknown

	n >= 30	n < 30
Underlying normal distribution	σknown	σknown
	σunknown	σunknown
Underlying non-normal distribution	σknown	σknown
	σunknown	σunknown

	n >= 30	n < 30
Underlying normal distribution	σknown	σknown
	σunknown	σunknown
Underlying non-normal distribution	σknown	σknown
	σunknown	σunknown

Small Sample Interval for the Mean

The CLT cannot be invoked when n is small, and we need to do something else when n < 30.

When n < 30 and the underlying distribution is normal, we have a solution!

t-Distribution

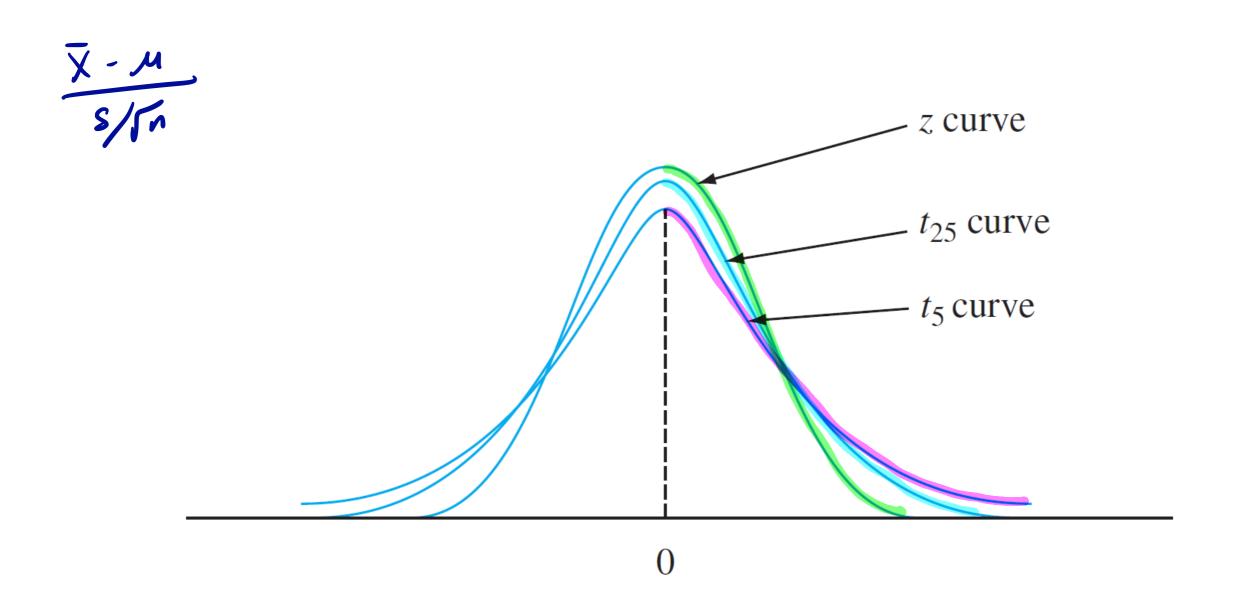
The results on which large sample inferences are based introduces a new family of probability distributions called *t* distributions.

When $\frac{\overline{x}}{x}$ is the mean of a random sample of size $\frac{n}{n}$ from a **normal distribution** with mean $\underline{\mu}$, the <u>random variable</u>

has a probability distribution called a \underline{t} Distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom (df).

$$P(T \leq t) = Pt(t, df)$$

t-Distribution



Properties of the t-Distribution

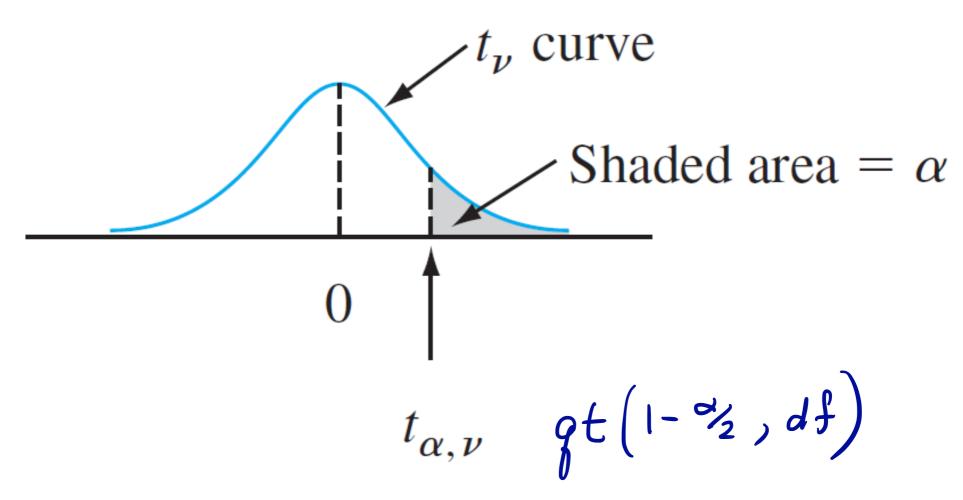
Let t_{v} denote the t distribution with v df.

- **1.** Each t_v curve is bell-shaped and centered at 0.
- **2.** Each t_v curve is more spread out than the standard normal (z) curve.
- **3.** As $\hat{\mathbf{v}}$ increases, the spread of the corresponding $t_{\mathbf{v}}$ curve decreases.
- **4.** As $v \rightarrow \infty$ the sequence of t_v curves approaches the standard normal curve (so the z curve is the t curve with $df = \infty$)

Edh

Properties of the t-Distribution

Let $t_{\alpha,\nu}$ = the number on the measurement axis for which the area under the t curve with ν df to the right of $t_{\alpha,\nu}$ is ; $t_{\alpha,\nu}$ is called a t critical value.



For example, $t_{.05,6}$ is the t critical value that captures an upper-tail area of .05 under the t curve with 6 df.

Finding t-Values

The probabilities of *t* curves are found in a similar way as the normal curve.

Example: obtain $t_{.05,15}$

$$S = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i} (x_i - \overline{x})^2$$

The t-Confidence Interval

Let \underline{x} and \underline{s} be the sample mean and sample standard deviation computed from the results of a random sample from a <u>normal population</u> with mean μ . Then a $100(1-\alpha)\%$ *t*-confidence interval for the mean μ is

$$\bar{\chi} \pm t_{3/2}, n-1 \frac{3}{\sqrt{n}}$$

or, more compactly:

The t-Confidence Interval

Example: Suppose that the GPA measurements for 23 students follow a normal distribution. The sample mean is 3.146. The sample standard deviation is 0.308. Calculate a 90% CI for the mean GPA.

$$d = 0.1$$

$$t_{0/2}, n-1 = t_{0.05, 22} = 1.717$$

$$CT : 3.146 \pm 1.717 \left(\frac{0.308}{\sqrt{23}} \right) = (3.036, 3.256)$$

	n >= 30	n < 30
Underlying normal distribution	σknown	σknown
	σunknown	σ unknown 🗸
Underlying non-normal distribution	σknown	σknown
	σunknown	σunknown

		n >= 30	n < 30	
Underlying normal distribution	nal	σknown	σknown	
		σunknown	σunknown	Special Cases
Underlying non-normal distribution	normal	σknown	σknown	/ /
		σunknown	σunknown	

Special Cases

When n < 30 and the underlying distribution is unknown, we have to:

- Make a specific assumption about the form of the population distribution and derive a CI based on that assumption.
- 2. Use other methods (such as bootstrapping) to make reasonable confidence intervals.

Confidence Interval for Population Proportion Let p denote the proportion of "successes" in a population

(e.g., individuals who graduated from college, computers that do not need warranty service, etc.). A random sample of *n* individuals is selected, and *X* is the number of successes in the sample.

Then, X can be modeled as a **Binomial rv** with mean np and

$$Var(X) = nP(1-P)$$

If both $np \ge 10$ and $n(1-p) \ge 10$, X has approximately a normal distribution $\chi \sim \chi (p) \sim \chi (p)$

$$\mathcal{F}(-z_{n_{1}} \leq z \leq z_{n_{1}}) = 1 - 2$$

$$\mathcal{F}(-z_{n_{2}} \leq z \leq z_{n_{1}}) = 1 - 2$$

$$\mathcal{F}(-z_{n_{2}} \leq z \leq z_{n_{2}}) = 1 - 2$$

$$\mathcal{F}(-z_{n_{2}} \leq z \leq z_{n_{2}}) = 1 - 2$$

$$\mathcal{F}(-z_{n_{2}} \leq z \leq z_{n_{2}}) = 1 - 2$$

$$\mathcal{F}(-z_{n_{2}} \leq z \leq z_{n_{2}}) = 1 - 2$$

$$\mathcal{F}(-z_{n_{2}} \leq z \leq z_{n_{2}}) = 1 - 2$$

Population Proportion

The estimator of *p* is: 2 2

This estimator is approximately normally distributed and:

$$E(\hat{p}) = E(\frac{x}{n}) = \frac{1}{n}E(x) = \frac{1}{n}\cdot P = p$$

 $Var(\hat{p}) = Var(\frac{x}{n}) = \frac{1}{n^2}Var(x) = \frac{np(1-p)}{n^2} = \frac{p(1-p)}{n}$

Standardizing the estimator yields:

Standardizing the estimator yields:

$$Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{p(1-p)} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1), \text{ for } np > 10$$
Thus, the Cl is:
$$(\hat{p} - Z_{0/2}) = \frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}, \hat{p} + Z_{0/2} = \frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n}$$

$$(\Sigma)$$
35

Confidence Interval for Population Proportion

Example: The EPA considers indoor radon levels above 4 picocuries per liter (pCi/L) of air to be high enough to warrant amelioration efforts. Tests in a sample of 200 homes found 127 (63.5%) of these sampled households to have indoor radon levels above 4 pCi/L. Calculate the 99% confidence interval for the proportional of homes with indoor radon levels above 4 pCi/L.

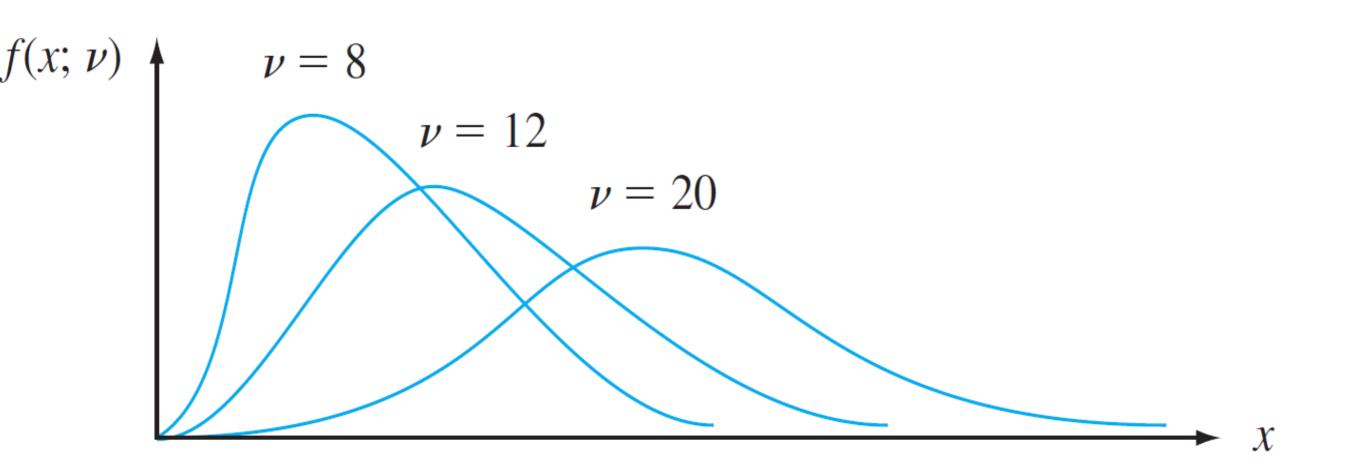
The Chi-Squared Distribution

Definition: Let *v* be a positive integer. The random variable *X* has a **chi-squared distribution** with parameter *v* if the pdf of *X*

$$f(x; \nu) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^{\nu/2} \Gamma(\nu/2)} x^{(\nu/2)-1} e^{-x/2} & x \ge 0\\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

The parameter is called the **number of degrees of freedom** (df) of X. The symbol χ^2 is often used in place of "chi-squared."

The Chi-Squared Distribution



Confidence Intervals for Variance

Let $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ be a random sample from a **normal distribution** with parameters μ and σ^2 . Then the r.v.

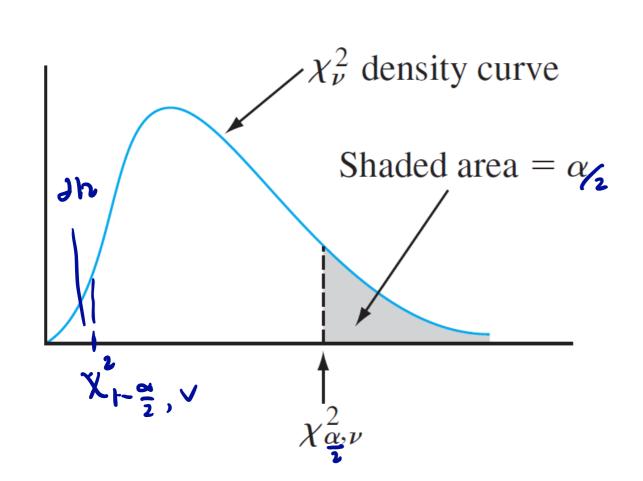
$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2}{\sigma^2} = \frac{(n-1) S^2}{\sigma^2}$$

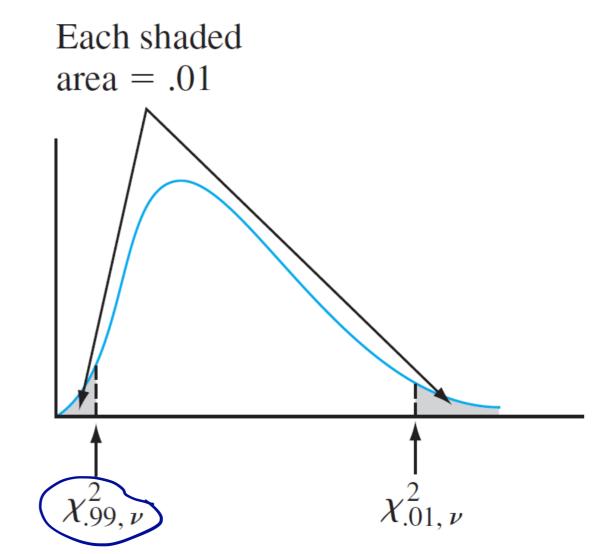
has a <u>chi-squared</u> ($\frac{\chi^2}{}$) probability distribution with n-1 df.

(In this class, we don't consider the case where the data is not normally distributed.)

Confidence Intervals for Variance

The chi-squared distribution is *not symmetric*, so these tables contain values of x^2 both for α near 0 and 1.





Confidence Intervals for Variance

As a consequence:
$$P\left(\chi_{1-\frac{d}{2},n-1}^{2} \leq \frac{(n-1)s^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \leq \chi_{\frac{d}{2},n-1}^{2}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

Or, equivalently: The (1-2)×100% CI is

$$\left(\frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{42},n-1},\frac{(n-1)s^2}{\chi^2_{1-\frac{1}{2},n-1}}\right)$$

Thus we have a confidence interval for the variance. Taking square roots gives a CI for the standard deviation.

Confidence Intervals for Variance

The data on breakdown voltage of electrically stressed circuits are shown below.

The breakdown voltage is approximately normally distributed. $s^2 = 137,324.3$ and

$$n = 17$$

