

Topic 5: Confidence Intervals

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Outline

1. Confidence Intervals

2. Normal Confidence Intervals



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- Say we saw a fish in a specific spot in a lake.
- To catch a fish, we could simply throw a spear right where we saw our last fish.
- But... is that really the most efficient way to catch a fish?
- Wouldn't it be better to cast a net, somewhere around where we saw our last fish, to try and increase our odds of catching at least one fish?



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- Constructing a single estimate from a single estimator (constructed from a single sample) is like throwing a spear - our estimate is a single value, which we hope is pretty close to the true value of the population parameter.
- So, what's the analog of casting a net in estimation?

Confidence Intervals



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- To make things more mathematical, suppose we have an i.i.d. sample $\vec{Y} := \{Y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ from a population with parameter θ .
- Previously, we constructed **point estimators** $\widehat{\theta}_n$ which, in the language of our textbook, are rules we can use to generate numerical estimates of θ .
- We'll now turn our attention to <u>interval estimators</u> (often referred to as <u>confidence intervals</u>), which we hope will cover the true value of θ .



 As the name suggests, an interval estimator is a random interval. That is, it is an interval of the form

$$\left[\widehat{\theta}_{\mathsf{L}}\;,\;\widehat{\theta}_{\mathsf{U}}\right]$$

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where $\widehat{\theta}_L$ and $\widehat{\theta}_U$ are random variables.

- Note that the endpoints of a confidence interval are random.
 - The lower endpoint, $\widehat{\theta}_l$, is often referred to as the **lower confidence limit** and the upper endpoint, $\widehat{\theta}_{u}$, is often referred to as the **upper confidence limit**.



• As I mentioned at the start of this discussion, we want to have some degree of certainty that the interval $[\widehat{\theta}_L, \widehat{\theta}_U]$ covers the true value of θ .

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- Since our interval is random, it makes sense to talk about the coverage probability (aka confidence coefficient), defined to be

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• So, for example, a <u>95% confidence interval</u> (i.e. a confidence interval with 95% coverage probability) is one such that

$$\mathbb{P}(\widehat{\theta}_{L} \leq \theta \leq \widehat{\theta}_{U}) = 0.95$$

i.e. an interval $[\widehat{\theta}_L \ , \ \widehat{\theta}_U]$ that we are 95% certain covers the true value of θ .



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- As a somewhat more concrete example, let's return to our problem of trying to estimate the true average weight of a randomly-selected DSH cat.
- Assuming Y_1, \dots, Y_n denotes an i.i.d. sample of cat weights following some distribution with unknown parameter μ , a $(1-\alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for μ is an interval $[\widehat{\mu}_L, \widehat{\mu}_U]$ such that

$$\mathbb{P}(\widehat{\mu}_{\mathsf{L}} \le \mu \le \widehat{\mu}_{\mathsf{U}}) = 1 - \alpha$$

where 1 $-\alpha$ denotes the coverage probability. (The reason why we use (1 $-\alpha$) will become clear next week, after we discuss Hypothesis Testing.)



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- Alright, but this is an (effectively) useless interval! But, this highlights something important: there is a tradeoff between coverage probability and the width of our confidence interval. Higher coverage probabilities necessitate larger and larger confidence intervals this is why it's not really practical to construct a 100% confidence interval.



Confidence Intervals

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- Alright, so let's start constructing confidence intervals!
- I'm going to break our considerations into two: first we'll talk about constructing confidence intervals assuming a normally-distributed population, and then we'll relax the normality assumption and discuss ways to construct confidence intervals for more general distributions.

Normal Confidence Intervals



First Goal

Goal

Given $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \overset{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ for an unknown $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ but a known $\sigma^2 > 0$, we want to construct a $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for μ .



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 - Again, it's an unbiased and consistent estimator for μ , as well as a sufficient statistic for μ .
- Of course, there's no guarantee that for any particlar sample, \overline{Y}_n will be exactly equal to μ (hence why we're trying to construct intervals now!)
- But, consistency more or less tells us that \overline{Y}_n will probably be quite *close* to the true value of μ .



• So, it makes sense to construct our interval by taking \overline{Y}_n (which, again, will likely be very close to the true value of μ), and adding and subtracting some **margin of error** (think of it like padding).



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- In other words, we'll take our interval to be

$$\overline{Y}_n \pm \text{m.e.} = \left[\overline{Y}_n - \text{m.e.} \; , \; \overline{Y}_n + \text{m.e}\right]$$

where "m.e." stands for margin of error (i.e. the half-width of our confidence interval).



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where "m.e." stands for margin of error (i.e. the half-width of our confidence interval).

• Since we're constructing a $(1-\alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval, we want

$$\mathbb{P}(\overline{Y}_n - \text{m.e.} \le \mu \le \overline{Y}_n + \text{m.e.}) = 1 - \alpha$$



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- $\mathbb{P}(\overline{Y}_n \text{m.e.} \le \mu) = \mathbb{P}(\overline{Y}_n \le \mu + \text{m.e.})$



- So, our problem essentially boils down to finding the appropriate value of m.e. such that the above equation holds.
- Let's try and simplify our probability on the LHS a bit. I find it useful to consider each inequality separately.
- $\mathbb{P}(\overline{Y}_n \text{m.e.} < \mu) = \mathbb{P}(\overline{Y}_n < \mu + \text{m.e.})$
- $\mathbb{P}(\mu < \overline{Y}_n + \text{m.e.}) = \mathbb{P}(\overline{Y}_n > \mu \text{m.e.})$



- So, our problem essentially boils down to finding the appropriate value of m.e. such that the above equation holds.
- Let's try and simplify our probability on the LHS a bit. I find it useful to consider each inequality separately.
- $\mathbb{P}(\overline{\mathsf{Y}}_{\mathsf{n}} \mathsf{m.e.} \leq \mu) = \mathbb{P}(\overline{\mathsf{Y}}_{\mathsf{n}} \leq \mu + \mathsf{m.e.})$
- $\mathbb{P}(\mu \leq \overline{Y}_n + \text{m.e.}) = \mathbb{P}(\overline{Y}_n \geq \mu \text{m.e.})$
- So, what we have is

$$\mathbb{P}(\overline{\mathsf{Y}}_{\mathsf{n}} - \mathsf{m.e.} \leq \mu \leq \overline{\mathsf{Y}}_{\mathsf{n}} + \mathsf{m.e.}) = \mathbb{P}(\mu - \mathsf{m.e.} \leq \overline{\mathsf{Y}}_{\mathsf{n}} \leq \mu + \mathsf{m.e.})$$



 Again, we are trying to select m.e. such that this whole probability equals 1 $-\alpha$:

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• Now, we know that $\overline{Y}_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$. So, it seems tempting to standardize the RHS!





$$\mathbb{P}(\mu - \mathsf{m.e.} \leq \overline{\mathsf{Y}}_{\mathsf{n}} \leq \mu + \mathsf{m.e.})$$



$$\mathbb{P}(\mu - \mathsf{m.e.} \leq \overline{\mathsf{Y}}_{\mathsf{n}} \leq \mu + \mathsf{m.e.}) = \mathbb{P}\left(-\frac{\mathsf{m.e.}}{\sigma/\sqrt{\mathsf{n}}} \leq \frac{\mathsf{Y}_{\mathsf{n}} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{\mathsf{n}}} \leq \frac{\mathsf{m.e.}}{\sigma/\sqrt{\mathsf{n}}}\right)$$



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• That is:

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• So, our margin of error must satisfy

$$2\Phi\left(\frac{\text{m.e.}}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) - 1 = 1 - \alpha \implies \text{m.e.} = \Phi^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right) \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$





Theorem (CI for μ ; Known Variance)

Given $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \overset{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ where $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ is unknown but $\sigma^2 > 0$ is known, a $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for μ is given by

$$\begin{split} \overline{Y}_n & \pm \Phi^{-1} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \\ & = \left[\overline{Y}_n - \Phi^{-1} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \;,\; \overline{Y}_n + \Phi^{-1} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right] \end{split}$$



Example

The weight of a croissant from *Le Gaucho* (in grams) is normally distributed about some unknown mean μ and known standard deviation 2 grams. An i.i.d. sample of 8 croissants from *Le Gaucho* is taken, and their weights (in grams) are as follows:

- (a) Construct a 90% confidence interval for μ , based on the data that was collected. You may leave your answer in terms of $\Phi^-(\cdot)$, the inverse of the standard normal CDF.
- (b) Would a 80% confidence interval for μ be wider or narrower than the interval you constructed in part (a)?



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- Now, a 90% confidence interval is equivalent to a (1 0.1) \times 100% confidence interval, meaning we plug $\alpha=$ 0.1 into our CI formula from above:

$$\overline{y}_n \pm \Phi^{-1} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{68.3375 \pm \Phi^{-1} (0.95) \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt{8}}}{68.3375 \pm \Phi^{-1} (0.95) \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt{8}}}$$



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• With a computer software, we can compute this to be [67.17441, 69.50059] - that is, we are 95% confident that the true averag weight of a *Le Gaucho* croissant is between 67.17441 grams and 69.50059 grams (notice the wording of our conclusion!)



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- Since an 80% coverage probability is *less* than a 95% coverage probability, we expect an 80% confidence interval to be narrower than a 95% confidence interval.



- For part (b), we need only to remember our discussion from earlier, about the relationship between the width of a CI and our coverage probability.
- Higher coverage probabilities necessitate wider intervals.
- Since an 80% coverage probability is *less* than a 95% coverage probability, we expect an 80% confidence interval to be narrower than a 95% confidence interval.
- If you're curious, you can construct an 80% confidence interval which you should find to be around [67.43131, 69.24369], which is indeed narrower than our interval from part (a).



Goal

Given $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \overset{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ for an unknown $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and an unknown $\sigma^2 > 0$, we want to construct a $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for μ .



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• Re-using some of the work we did in the previous case (where σ^2 was known), we have

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mu - \mathsf{m.e.} \leq \overline{\mathsf{Y}}_{\mathsf{n}} \leq \mu + \mathsf{m.e.}\right) = \mathsf{1} - \alpha$$



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- But, even though this is true, this fact doesn't really help us in practice since the value of σ is unknown!
- So, here's our clever idea let's replace σ with a "good" estimator for it - namely, S_n (the sample standard deviation).



• This works out well, because

$$\left(rac{\overline{\mathsf{Y}}_{\mathsf{n}}-\mu}{\mathsf{S}_{\mathsf{n}}/\sqrt{\mathsf{n}}}
ight)\sim \mathsf{t}_{\mathsf{n}-\mathsf{1}}$$

by our "Modified Standardization Result" from our lecture on multivariate transformations involving the normal distribution.



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Second Goal

• So:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mu - \text{m.e.} \leq \overline{Y}_n \leq \mu + \text{m.e.}) = \mathbb{P}\left(-\frac{\text{m.e.}}{S_n/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{Y_n - \mu}{S_n/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\text{m.e.}}{S_n/\sqrt{n}}\right)$$
$$= F_{t_{n-1}}^{-1}\left(\frac{\text{m.e.}}{S_n/\sqrt{n}}\right) - F_{t_{n-1}}^{-1}\left(-\frac{\text{m.e.}}{S_n/\sqrt{n}}\right)$$



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$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\mu-\text{m.e.} \leq \overline{Y}_n \leq \mu + \text{m.e.}) &= \mathbb{P}\left(-\frac{\text{m.e.}}{S_n/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\overline{Y}_n - \mu}{S_n/\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\text{m.e.}}{S_n/\sqrt{n}}\right) \\ &= F_{t_{n-1}}^{-1}\left(\frac{\text{m.e.}}{S_n/\sqrt{n}}\right) - F_{t_{n-1}}^{-1}\left(-\frac{\text{m.e.}}{S_n/\sqrt{n}}\right) \\ &= 2F_{t_{n-1}}^{-1}\left(\frac{\text{m.e.}}{S_n/\sqrt{n}}\right) - 1 \end{split}$$

• Thus, our margin of error must satisfy

$$2F_{t_{n-1}}\left(\frac{\text{m.e.}}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) - 1 = 1 - \alpha \implies \text{m.e.} = F_{t_{n-1}}^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right) \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$





Theorem (CI for μ ; Unknown Variance)

Given $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \overset{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ where both $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma^2 > 0$ are unknown, a $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval for μ is given by

$$\begin{split} \overline{Y}_n \pm F_{t_{n-1}}^{-1} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \cdot \frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}} \\ &= \left[\overline{Y}_n - F_{t_{n-1}} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \cdot \frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}} , \ \overline{Y}_n + F_{t_{n-1}} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2} \right) \cdot \frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}} \right] \end{split}$$



Example

Assume the same setup as the previous croissant example, except now assume that σ^2 is unknown. Construct a 95% CI for μ , the true average weight of a *Le Gaucho* croissant.



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• We still have $\overline{y}_n = 68.3375$ g. We also have $s_8 = 3.518903$. Therefore, plugging into our formula from the previous slide, our CI is

$$68.3375 \pm F_{t_7}^{-1}(0.95) \cdot \frac{3.518903}{\sqrt{8}}$$

which, using a computer software, amounts to around [65.98042, 70.69458].

Asymptotic Confidence Intervals for the Mean



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- That is, we know that regardless of our population distribution (assuming finite mean and variance).

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- That is, we know that regardless of our population distribution (assuming finite mean and variance),

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{\mathsf{Y}}_n - \mu)}{\sigma} \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{N}(\mathsf{O}, \mathsf{1})$$

 You'll work through some problems relating to this on the next (and final!) homework.



Interpreting Confidence Intervals

• One interpretation of an $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval [a, b] is: "we are $(1 - \alpha) \times 100\%$ certain that the interval [a, b] contains the true value of θ ."



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- One interpretation of an $(1 \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval [a, b] is: "we are $(1 \alpha) \times 100\%$ certain that the interval [a, b] contains the true value of θ ."
 - So, for example, a 95% CI for a population mean μ can be interpreted as an interval that we are 95% certain covers the true value of μ .



Interpreting Confidence Intervals

- One interpretation of an $(1 \alpha) \times 100\%$ confidence interval [a, b] is: "we are $(1 \alpha) \times 100\%$ certain that the interval [a, b] contains the true value of θ ."
 - So, for example, a 95% CI for a population mean μ can be interpreted as an interval that we are 95% certain covers the true value of μ .
- There is another interesting way to interpret CIs: If the same procedure was used many times, each individual interval would either contain or fail to contain the true value of θ , but the percentage of all intervals that capture θ would be very close to $(1-\alpha) \times 100\%$. (This is the wording taken from the textbook.) Let's see this in action by way of a live demo.