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A shortcoming of this type of estimator is that it provides no information about how precise or reliable the estimate is.

An alternative type of estimate is an **interval estimate**, which instead of a single value provides a range of values.

We will cover three approaches to constructing interval estimates:

- The classical or *frequentist* approach which produces a **confidence interval**
 - The Bayesian approach which produces a **credible interval**
 - The bootstrap procedure which produces a **bootstrap confidence interval**
-

Confidence Intervals

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The classical or frequentist approach then constructs a **confidence interval** in such a way that, regardless of the actual value of the target parameter, if we took a great many samples and constructed a confidence interval for each sample, the percentage of them that actually contain the parameter value would approach

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$$100(1 - \alpha)\% \quad \text{or} \quad 95\% \quad \text{if} \quad \alpha = .05$$

Of course, we actually construct only one interval, and we never know whether it contains the parameter or not.

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One often hears a 95% confidence interval described as "the true parameter value falls into this interval with probability .95, but this is really not a correct statement since the true parameter value is not assumed to be a random variable in the frequentist approach.

One of the criticisms of the frequentist approach is that it produces interval estimates that are difficult to describe correctly.

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We will confine our discussion to the most common special cases.

Classical Large Sample (sigma known)

Case 1: Sampling from a normal population where we either know the actual population standard deviation, or have a large enough sample (at least 30, preferably 50 or more) so that we can reliably estimate it from the sample.

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It might seem unusual to know the standard deviation but not the mean of an underlying normal population, but this situation arises in the case of standardized measures such as IQ and SAT.

This is called a "large sample" or "sigma known" confidence interval because we treat the population standard deviation as a known quantity.

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The actual code for producing the value of $F(x)$ is:

- = $NORMDIST(x, \mu, \sigma, TRUE)$ for a spreadsheet
- $pnorm(x, \mu, \sigma)$ for R

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Either method produces $F(x) = P(X \leq x)$ for a $N(\mu, \sigma)$ distribution.

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Either method produces x with the property that $F(x) = P(X \leq x) = p$ for a $N(\mu, \sigma)$ distribution.

Example

Find the value x with the property that a normal random variable with mean $\mu = 100$ and standard deviation $\sigma = 15$ takes a value less than or equal to x with probability $p = 0.05$.

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Using either of the **inverse CDF** functions:

- $x = \text{NORMINV}(.05, 100, 15)$ for a spreadsheet
- $x = \text{qnorm}(.05, 100, 15)$ for R

we find that $x = 75.33$.

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As a check, entering $=\text{NORMDIST}(75.33, 100, 15)$ or $\text{pnorm}(75.33, 100, 15)$ should produce $p = .05$.

Example

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- $x = \text{NORMINV}(.98, 500, 100)$ for a spreadsheet
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we find that $x = 705$.

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Using either of the **inverse CDF** functions:

- $x = \text{NORMINV}(.98, 500, 100)$ for a spreadsheet
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we find that $x = 705$.

As a check, entering $=\text{NORMDIST}(705, 500, 100)$ or $\text{pnorm}(705, 500, 100)$ should produce $p = .98$.

Classical Large Sample (sigma known)

Suppose we have a sample X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n from a normal population with **unknown** mean μ and **known** standard deviation σ .

Now we present a procedure for constructing an interval estimate (L, U) for the (unknown) mean μ .

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Suppose we want an interval (L, U) that contains the true value μ with probability $1 - \alpha$.

The correct interpretation of this is that if we took a large number of samples and constructed an interval (L, U) for each sample, we would get many different intervals, and on average $100(1 - \alpha)$ percent of them would contain μ , that is,

$$P(L \leq \mu \leq U) = 1 - \alpha$$

Classical Large Sample (sigma known)

First we choose the level of confidence we want. Let's say this is 95%. Solve the following equation to get α :

$$100(1 - \alpha) = 95 \quad \text{or} \quad 1 - \frac{95}{100} = .05 = \alpha$$

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Now we compute the endpoints (L, U) of the $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence interval using:

- The α value derived from the level of confidence
- \bar{x} , the sample mean
- σ the **known** population standard deviation.
- The sample size n

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Recall that in this situation, the sample mean has a normal distribution:

$$\bar{x} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

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Now we compute the endpoints (L, U) of the $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ confidence interval using:

- $L = \text{NORMINV}(\alpha/2, \bar{x}, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$ or
 $L = \text{qnorm}(\alpha/2, \bar{x}, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$
- $U = \text{NORMINV}(1 - \alpha/2, \bar{x}, \sigma/\sqrt{n})$ or
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Notice that once the values of α , n and σ are determined, L and U depend only on \bar{x} .

Example

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In this case, $\alpha = .05$, $n = 100$, $\bar{x} = 507$, and we assume that σ is known to be 100 because the SAT is standardized to have this value.

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A random sample of 100 students in a large school district are given the SAT. If the average score is 507, construct a 95% confidence interval for the mean SAT score in this school district.

In this case, $\alpha = .05$, $n = 100$, $\bar{x} = 507$, and we assume that σ is known to be 100 because the SAT is standardized to have this value.

Then:

$$L = \text{NORMINV}(.025, 507, 10)$$

$$\text{or } L = \text{qnorm}(.025, 507, 10) = 487.4$$

and

$$U = \text{NORMINV}(.975, 507, 10)$$

$$\text{or } U = \text{qnorm}(.975, 507, 10) = 526.6$$

Example

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In this case, $\alpha = .01$, $n = 100$, $\bar{x} = 507$, and we assume that σ is known to be 100 because the SAT is standardized to have this value.

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A random sample of 100 students in a large school district are given the SAT. If the average score is 507, construct a 99% confidence interval for the mean SAT score in this school district.

In this case, $\alpha = .01$, $n = 100$, $\bar{x} = 507$, and we assume that σ is known to be 100 because the SAT is standardized to have this value.

Then:

$$L = \text{NORMINV}(.005, 507, 10)$$

$$\text{or } L = \text{qnorm}(.005, 507, 10) = 481.24$$

and

$$U = \text{NORMINV}(.995, 507, 10)$$

$$\text{or } U = \text{qnorm}(.995, 507, 10) = 532.76$$

Example

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In this case, $\alpha = .10$, $n = 100$, $\bar{x} = 507$, and we assume that σ is known to be 100 because the SAT is standardized to have this value.

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In this case, $\alpha = .10$, $n = 100$, $\bar{x} = 507$, and we assume that σ is known to be 100 because the SAT is standardized to have this value.

Then:

$$L = NORMINV(.05, 507, 10)$$

$$\text{or } L = qnorm(.005, 507, 10) = 490.55$$

and

$$U = NORMINV(.95, 507, 10)$$

$$\text{or } U = qnorm(.995, 507, 10) = 523.44$$

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Generally the higher the level of confidence, the wider the interval. For the preceding examples,

90% confidence $(L,U)=(490.5,523.4)$

95% confidence $(L,U)=(487.4,526.6)$

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90% confidence (L,U)=(490.5,523.4)

95% confidence (L,U)=(487.4,526.6)

99% confidence (L,U)=(481.2,532.8)

Notice that our confidence interval is interval centered at \bar{x} that would contain $100(1 - \alpha)$ percent of the area under a normal curve with mean \bar{x} and standard deviation σ/\sqrt{n} .

Example - R Simulations

There is an R program that simulates the behavior of classical large sample confidence intervals from the notes and handouts section of the web page. The link is named:

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You can also download it and open it from the file menu in R, or run R in batch mode and specify it as input.