## Chapter 9

## Confidence Intervals

In the preceding chapter, we examined the maximum likelihood method for estimating the parameters of a statistical population, using a random sample from that population. For example, if we have a sample from a population with a normal distribution, we can estimate the parameter $\mu$ of this population using the sample mean $\bar{Y}$. We will now examine a common method for characterizing the precision of these estimates, known as confidence intervals. Given an estimate $\bar{Y}$ of $\mu$, say, we will learn how to calculate an interval that will contain the true population $\mu$ with a certain probability. A narrow interval indicates the parameter $\mu$ is reliably estimated, while a broad one indicates substantial uncertainty as to its value.

### 9.1 Preliminaries to confidence intervals

We now discuss some material that is essential for the construction of confidence intervals and later in hypothesis testing. We first review some results from Chapter 8 on parameter estimation for the normal distribution, then derive some new results. We then examine some distributions associated with sampling from the normal distributions, not surprisingly called sampling distributions.

### 9.1.1 Parameters and estimates

Confidence intervals are based on estimates of population parameters, such as $\mu$ and $\sigma^{2}$ for populations with a normal distribution. Our previous results
on parameter estimation suggest that $\bar{Y}$ and $s^{2}$ are reasonable estimators of $\mu$ and $\sigma^{2}$. The sample standard deviation $s=\sqrt{s^{2}}$ is typically used to estimate the population standard deviation $\sigma$.

We also want to estimate the variance and standard deviation of the sample mean $\bar{Y}$. Recall that for a random sample $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots Y_{n}$ with any distribution,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Var}[\bar{Y}]=\frac{\operatorname{Var}\left[Y_{i}\right]}{n} \tag{9.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\operatorname{Var}\left[Y_{i}\right]$ is the variance of $Y_{i}$ (Chapter 7). For a random sample where the observations are normal, this translates to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Var}[\bar{Y}]=\frac{\sigma^{2}}{n} \tag{9.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

because $\operatorname{Var}\left[Y_{i}\right]=\sigma^{2}$ for the normal. If we use $s^{2}$ to estimate $\sigma^{2}$, we can therefore estimate $\operatorname{Var}[\bar{Y}]$ using $s^{2} / n$ and $\sigma / \sqrt{n}$ using $s / \sqrt{n}$.

The table below summarizes the different parameters, their estimators, and common terminology for these quantities:

Table 9.1: Parameters and their estimators

| Parameter | Estimator | Terminology |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| $\mu$ | $\bar{Y}$ | Sample mean |
| $\sigma^{2}$ | $s^{2}$ | Sample variance |
| $\sigma$ | $s$ | Sample standard deviation |
| $\frac{\sigma^{2}}{n}$ | $\frac{s^{2}}{n}$ | Sample variance of the mean |
| $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ | $\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ | Standard error of the mean |

Recall that the term standard error always refers to the standard deviation of a statistic, such as $\bar{Y}$. The term standard deviation used without qualification usually means the standard deviation $s$ of items in a random sample from a population.

### 9.1.2 Sampling distributions

In this section, we will first examine the probability distribution of the estimator $\bar{Y}$. We then examine the distributions of some quantities involving $\bar{Y}$ and the sample variance $s^{2}$, known as sampling distributions. These sampling distributions will be used to construct confidence intervals and also play an important role in hypothesis testing (Chapter 10).

## Distribution of $\bar{Y}$

Suppose we have a random sample $Y_{1}, Y_{2}, \ldots, Y_{n}$ from a statistical population with a normal distribution, in particular that $Y_{i} \sim N\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$ and are independent of each other. It can be shown that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\bar{Y} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^{2}}{n}\right) \tag{9.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the sample mean of normal observations also has a normal distribution with the same mean $\mu$, but with variance equal to $\sigma^{2} / n$, not $\sigma^{2}(\operatorname{Mood}$ et al. 1974).

Note that the distribution of $\bar{Y}$ will be approximately normal for any distribution provided $n$ is large, thanks to the central limit theorem (see Chapter 7). Thus, for large sample sizes we have $\bar{Y} \sim N(E[Y], \operatorname{Var}[Y] / n)$ for any probability distribution. This result has important statistical implications. Confidence intervals and hypothesis testing procedures often assume that $\bar{Y}$ is normally distributed, and this will be approximately true if $n$ is sufficiently large. These statistical procedures are therefore robust to departures from normality in the data for large $n$.

We also learned earlier that if $Y \sim N\left(\mu, \sigma^{2}\right)$, then the transformed variable $(Y-\mu) / \sigma$ has a standard normal distribution, or $(Y-\mu) / \sigma=Z \sim$ $N(0,1)$. Combining these two results, we find that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{\sqrt{\sigma^{2} / n}}=\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \sim N(0,1) \tag{9.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the quantity $\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$ has a standard normal distribution. We will use this sampling distribution to obtain a confidence interval for $\mu$, for the case where $\sigma^{2}$ is known from other information.

We will also need to find certain intervals with a specified probability using the standard normal distribution, in order to construct confidence intervals. In general, we will need to find a positive value $c$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[-c_{\alpha}<Z<c_{\alpha}\right]=1-\alpha \tag{9.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

for this purpose, where typically $\alpha=0.05$ or 0.01 . The values of $c_{\alpha}$ that satisfy this probability are often called critical values, a term that also applies to other probability distributions. We use the notation $c_{\alpha}$ because
this quantity depends on the value of $\alpha$. To find $c_{\alpha}$, we first express this probability in terms of Table Z. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
P\left[-c_{\alpha}<Z<c_{\alpha}\right] & =P\left[Z<c_{\alpha}\right]-P\left[Z<-c_{\alpha}\right]  \tag{9.6}\\
& =P\left[Z<c_{\alpha}\right]-\left(1-P\left[Z<c_{\alpha}\right]\right)  \tag{9.7}\\
& =2 P\left[Z<c_{\alpha}\right]-1 \tag{9.8}
\end{align*}
$$

If we set $2 P\left[Z<c_{\alpha}\right]-1=1-\alpha$ and rearrange, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[Z<c_{\alpha}\right]=(2-\alpha) / 2=1-\alpha / 2 . \tag{9.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, we examine Table Z for a value of $c_{\alpha}$ such that $P\left[Z<c_{\alpha}\right]=$ $1-\alpha / 2$. For $\alpha=0.05$, we would look for $c_{0.05}$ such that $P\left[Z<c_{0.05}\right]=$ $1-0.05 / 2=0.975$ and find that $c_{0.05}=1.96$ is the answer. Similarly, for $\alpha=0.01$ we seek $c_{0.01}$ such that $P\left[Z<c_{0.01}\right]=1-0.01 / 2=0.995$. There is no value in Table Z that gives quite this probability, although we can see 2.57 and 2.58 are close. The exact answer is $c_{0.01}=2.576$.

## $t$ distribution

Another important sampling distribution is the $t$ distribution. This distribution has a single parameter, called the degrees of freedom, that governs the shape of the distribution. It can be shown that the quantity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{s / \sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1} \tag{9.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Mood et al. 1974). Here the symbol ' $t_{n-1}$ ' stands for the $t$ distribution with $n-1$ degrees of freedom, where $n$ is the sample size in $\bar{Y}$. Degrees of freedom is often abbreviated as ' $d f$ '.

The $t$ distribution resembles the standard normal distribution in being bell-shaped, except that it has more probability in the tails and less in the center of the distribution (Fig. 9.1). Roughly speaking, the $t$ distribution has heavier tails than the normal because $\bar{Y}$ and $s$ are both random quantities in Eq. 9.10, making their ratio more variable than for Eq. 9.4 where only $\bar{Y}$ is random. However, as $n \rightarrow \infty$ the $t$ distribution does approach the standard normal distribution. We will use this sampling distribution to obtain a confidence interval for $\mu$, when $\sigma^{2}$ is estimated using the sample variance $s^{2}$.

What is the origin of the term degrees of freedom? Recall that the sample standard deviation $s$ is obtained from the sample variance, calculated using the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
s^{2}=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)^{2}}{n-1} \tag{9.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Notice that the sample variance $s^{2}$ is composed of terms of the form $Y_{i}-\bar{Y}$. Although there are $n$ of these terms, they also sum to zero $\left(\sum_{i}^{n}\left(Y_{i}-\bar{Y}\right)=0\right)$. This implies that if $n-1$ terms are known, we can always determine the remaining term because of this relationship, implying there are really only $n-1$ free, independent terms in $s^{2}(\operatorname{Mood}$ et al. 1974). Hence the name degrees of freedom.


Figure 9.1: Plot of the $t$ distribution for different degrees of freedom

Table T gives the quantiles of the $t$ distribution for different values of the degrees of freedom and the cumulative probability $p$. We will also need to find intervals of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[-c_{\alpha, d f}<T<c_{\alpha, d f}\right]=1-\alpha, \tag{9.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $c_{\alpha, d f}$ is a positive number, $T$ has a $t$ distribution, for $\alpha=0.05$ or 0.01 . We use the notation $c_{\alpha, d f}$ because this quantity will depend on both $\alpha$ and
the degrees of freedom. We proceed as before by expressing this probability in terms of Table T. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
P\left[-c_{\alpha, d f}<T<c_{\alpha, d f}\right] & =P\left[T<c_{\alpha, d f}\right]-P\left[T<-c_{\alpha, d f}\right]  \tag{9.13}\\
& =P\left[T<c_{\alpha, d f}\right]-\left(1-P\left[T<c_{\alpha, d f}\right]\right)  \tag{9.14}\\
& =2 P\left[T<c_{\alpha, d f}\right]-1 \tag{9.15}
\end{align*}
$$

If we set $2 P\left[T<c_{\alpha, d f}\right]-1=1-\alpha$ and rearrange, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
2\left(1-P\left[T<c_{\alpha, d f}\right]\right)=\alpha \tag{9.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Because $P\left[T<c_{\alpha, d f}\right]$ is essentially $p$ for this table, we simply look across the row corresponding to $2(1-p)$ at the top and find the column corresponding to $\alpha$. For $\alpha=0.05$, we see that for $d f=10$ the answer is $c_{0.05,10}=2.228$. For $\alpha=0.01$ and $d f=10$, the answer is $c_{0.01,10}=3.169$.

## $\chi^{2}$ distribution

One other common sampling distribution is the $\chi^{2}$ (chi-square) distribution, which also has a parameter called the degrees of freedom. It can be shown that the quantity

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \sim \chi_{n-1}^{2} \tag{9.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Mood et al. 1974). Here the symbol ' $\chi_{n-1}^{2}$ ' stands for a $\chi^{2}$ distribution with $n-1$ degrees of freedom. The degrees of freedom parameter controls the shape of the $\chi^{2}$ distribution (Fig. 9.2). The $\chi^{2}$ distribution is only defined for positive values, because $s^{2}$ is always positive, and its distribution shifts to the right (large values become more likely) as $n$ and the degrees of freedom increases. We will use this sampling distribution to obtain a confidence interval for $\sigma^{2}$ and $\sigma$.

Table C gives the quantiles of the $\chi^{2}$ distribution for different values of the degrees of freedom and the cumulative probability $p$. We will need to find the probabilities for certain intervals, but this is more complicated with the $\chi^{2}$ distribution because it is asymmetrical, unlike the normal or $t$ distributions. In this case, we want to find two positive numbers $c_{\alpha / 2, d f}$ and $c_{1-\alpha / 2, d f}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[c_{\alpha / 2, d f}<X<c_{1-\alpha / 2, d f}\right]=1-\alpha, \tag{9.18}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 9.2: Plot of the $\chi^{2}$ distribution for different degrees of freedom
where $X$ has a $\chi^{2}$ distribution and $\alpha=0.05$ or $\alpha=0.01$. The subscripts $\alpha / 2$ and $1-\alpha / 2$ for $c$ essentially correspond to values of $p$ in Table C. This gives the correct probability because

$$
\begin{align*}
P\left[c_{\alpha / 2, d f}<X<c_{1-\alpha / 2, d f}\right] & =P\left[X<c_{1-\alpha / 2, d f}\right]-P\left[X<c_{\alpha / 2, d f}\right]  \tag{9.19}\\
& =1-\alpha / 2-\alpha / 2=1-\alpha . \tag{9.20}
\end{align*}
$$

To see how these values are obtained from Table C, suppose that $\alpha=0.05$ and $d f=10$. To find $c_{\alpha / 2, d f}=c_{0.05 / 2,10}=c_{0.025,10}$, we look in the column for $p=0.025$ and row for $d f=10$, and obtain $c_{0.025,10}=3.247$. To find $c_{1-\alpha / 2, d f}=c_{1-0.05 / 2,10}=c_{0.975,10}$, we look in the column for $p=0.975$ and row for $d f=10$, and obtain $c_{0.975,10}=20.483$.

Now suppose that $\alpha=0.01$. Using the same technique, we find that $c_{\alpha / 2, d f}=c_{0.01 / 2,10}=c_{0.005,10}=2.156$, and $c_{1-\alpha / 2, d f}=c_{1-0.01 / 2,10}=c_{0.995,10}=$ 25.188.

### 9.2 Confidence intervals

We now have the information needed to calculate confidence intervals. We will begin with a simple but unrealistic case, finding a confidence interval for
$\mu$ when $\sigma^{2}$ is known through other means. This case is unrealistic because $\sigma^{2}$ is almost always estimated from the data, but the calculations are simple and illustrate a general method for finding confidence intervals. We then turn to finding a confidence intervals for $\mu$, and then $\sigma^{2}$, where all parameters are estimated from the data.

### 9.2.1 Confidence intervals for $\mu$ when $\sigma^{2}$ is known

We will use the fact that the quantity $\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$ has a standard normal distribution to find a confidence interval for $\mu$. Suppose that $\alpha$ is given and we have found $c_{\alpha}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[-c_{\alpha}<Z<c_{\alpha}\right]=1-\alpha . \tag{9.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

(see previous section). Substituting $\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$ for $Z$ we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[-c_{\alpha}<\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}<c_{\alpha}\right]=1-\alpha . \tag{9.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Multiplying both sides by $\sigma / \sqrt{n}$ gives you

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[-c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}<\bar{Y}-\mu<c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]=1-\alpha \tag{9.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

Multiplying all parts inside the brackets by -1 reverses the signs and inequalities to give

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}>\mu-\bar{Y}>-c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]=1-\alpha . \tag{9.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now add to $\bar{Y}$ to all parts inside the brackets to give

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[\bar{Y}+c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}>\mu>\bar{Y}-c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]=1-\alpha \tag{9.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

or equivalently

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[\bar{Y}-c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}<\mu<\bar{Y}+c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right]=1-\alpha \tag{9.26}
\end{equation*}
$$

We call the terms $\bar{Y}-c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ and $\bar{Y}+c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ the lower and upper $100(1-\alpha) \%$ confidence limits for $\mu$ (Mood et al. 1974). Confidence intervals are often
reported in the form $\left(\bar{Y}-c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{Y}+c_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$. Note that the center of the confidence interval is at $\bar{Y}$, our estimate of $\mu$. This interval would be expected to include the true value of $\mu$ with a probability of $1-\alpha$, because this was the probability set in Eq. 9.21.

It is common practice to set $\alpha=0.05$, which corresponds to a $100(1-$ $0.05) \%=95 \%$ confidence interval. For this case, we would have $c_{\alpha}=c_{0.05}=$ 1.96 (see previous section). Therefore, the $95 \%$ confidence interval would be

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\bar{Y}-1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{Y}+1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) . \tag{9.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

We would expect this interval to include the true $\mu$ with a probability of 0.95 , or $95 \%$ of the time. However, it follows that the interval will miss $\mu$ with a probability of 0.05 , or $5 \%$ of the time. This is an important feature of confidence intervals - they will often but not always enclose the true parameter value for the population, with the probability set by $\alpha$.

If we wanted to be more certain of including $\mu$, we could choose a smaller $\alpha$, say $\alpha=0.01$, which corresponds to a $100(1-0.01) \%=99 \%$ confidence interval. Here we have $c_{\alpha}=c_{0.01}=2.576$, and so the $99 \%$ confidence interval would be

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\bar{Y}-2.576 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{Y}+2.576 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) . \tag{9.28}
\end{equation*}
$$

A $99 \%$ confidence interval will necessarily be broader than a $95 \%$ one, because it is constructed to have a higher probability of including $\mu$.

## Confidence intervals - sample calculation

Suppose we have a sample of $n=10$ elytra from female T. dubius beetles (see Chapter 3 for a description of these data), yielding the values listed below:
5.05 .15 .25 .94 .85 .54 .85 .15 .05 .1

For this sample, we calculate that $\bar{Y}=5.150$. Suppose we have a priori knowledge that $\sigma=0.3$, although that would be rare in practice. We will calculate a $95 \%$ and $99 \%$ confidence interval for $\mu$.

The formula for a $95 \%$ confidence interval is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\bar{Y}-1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{Y}+1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \tag{9.29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting $n=10, \bar{Y}=5.150$, and $\sigma=0.3$ in the above formula, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(5.150-1.96 \frac{0.3}{\sqrt{10}}, 5.150+1.96 \frac{0.3}{\sqrt{10}}\right) \tag{9.30}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(5.150-0.186,5.150+0.186), \tag{9.31}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(4.964,5.336) \tag{9.32}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, the $95 \%$ confidence interval for $\mu$ is $(4.964,5.336)$.
For a $99 \%$ confidence interval, we use the formula

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\bar{Y}-2.576 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{Y}+2.576 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) . \tag{9.33}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting as before, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(5.150-2.576 \frac{0.3}{\sqrt{10}}, 5.150+2.576 \frac{0.3}{\sqrt{10}}\right) \tag{9.34}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(5.150-0.244,5.150+0.244) \tag{9.35}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(4.906,5.394) . \tag{9.36}
\end{equation*}
$$

The $99 \%$ confidence interval is therefore (4.906, 5.394). Note that the $99 \%$ confidence interval is broader than the $95 \%$ one, because its lower limit is lower and upper limit higher.

### 9.2.2 Confidence intervals for $\mu$ when $\sigma^{2}$ is estimated

Confidence intervals for $\mu$ can also be derived when $\sigma^{2}$ is estimated using the sample variance $s^{2}$, as will usually be the case in practice. We will make use of the fact that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{s / \sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1} \tag{9.37}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using Table T, we can find a value of $c_{\alpha, n-1}$ for $n-1$ degrees of freedom such that the following equation is true:

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[-c_{\alpha, n-1}<\frac{\bar{Y}-\mu}{s / \sqrt{n}}<c_{\alpha, n-1}\right]=1-\alpha . \tag{9.38}
\end{equation*}
$$

Rearranging this equation using the same procedures as before, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[\bar{Y}-c_{\alpha, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}<\mu<\bar{Y}+c_{\alpha, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right]=1-\alpha \tag{9.39}
\end{equation*}
$$

The terms $\bar{Y}-c_{\alpha, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ and $\bar{Y}+c_{\alpha, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ are the lower and upper $100(1-\alpha) \%$ confidence limits for $\mu$ (Mood et al. 1974). The interval would be reported in the form $\left(\bar{Y}-c_{\alpha, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{Y}+c_{\alpha, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$. The center of the confidence interval is located at $\bar{Y}$, the estimate of $\mu$.

For example, if we let $\alpha=0.05$ this corresponds to a $95 \%$ confidence interval of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\bar{Y}-c_{0.05, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{Y}+c_{0.05, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \tag{9.40}
\end{equation*}
$$

The value of $c_{0.05, n-1}$ would need to be determined from Table $T$, using the column for $2(1-p)=\alpha=0.05$ and the row for $n-1$ degrees freedom.

For $\alpha=0.01$, we obtain a $99 \%$ confidence interval of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\bar{Y}-c_{0.01, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{Y}+c_{0.01, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \tag{9.41}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this case, we would use the column for $2(1-p)=\alpha=0.01$ to find the value of $c_{0.01, n-1}$, using $n-1$ degrees freedom.

## Confidence interval for $\mu$ - sample calculation

We return to the elytra data set, for which we previously calculated that $\bar{Y}=5.150, s^{2}=0.109$, and $s=0.331$ for $n=10$. We will calculate $95 \%$ and $99 \%$ confidence intervals for $\mu$.

The formula for a $95 \%$ confidence interval is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\bar{Y}-c_{0.05, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{Y}+c_{0.05, n-1} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right) . \tag{9.42}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $n=10$, we have $d f=n-1=10-1=9$. For a $95 \%$ confidence interval, we therefore look up $c_{0.05, n-1}=c_{0.05,9}$ using the column for $2(1-p)=0.05$ in Table T, choosing the value for 9 degrees of freedom. We obtain $c_{0.05,9}=$ 2.262. Substituting $n=10, \bar{Y}=5.150, s=0.331$, and $c_{0.05,9}=2.262$ in the above formula, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(5.150-2.262 \frac{0.331}{\sqrt{10}}, 5.150+2.262 \frac{0.331}{\sqrt{10}}\right) \tag{9.43}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(5.150-0.237,5.150+0.237), \tag{9.44}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(4.913,5.387) \tag{9.45}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, the $95 \%$ confidence interval for $\mu$ is $(4.913,5.387)$. For a $99 \%$ confidence interval, we find $c_{0.01, n-1}=c_{0.01,9}$ for $2(1-p)=0.01$ and 9 degrees of freedom in Table T, obtaining $c_{0.01,9}=3.250$. Substituting this value in the above formula, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(5.150-3.250 \frac{0.331}{\sqrt{10}}, 5.150+3.250 \frac{0.331}{\sqrt{10}}\right) \tag{9.46}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(5.150-0.340,5.150+0.340), \tag{9.47}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(4.810,5.490) \tag{9.48}
\end{equation*}
$$

The $99 \%$ confidence interval is therefore $(4.810,5.490)$, and as expected is broader than the $95 \%$ one.

### 9.2.3 Confidence intervals for $\sigma^{2}$ and $\sigma$

Confidence intervals for $\sigma^{2}$ and $\sigma$ can also be derived, using the fact that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \sim \chi_{n-1}^{2} \tag{9.49}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using Table C for the $\chi^{2}$ distribution, we can find values $c_{\alpha / 2, n-1}$ and $c_{1-\alpha / 2, n-1}$ for $n-1$ degrees of freedom such that the following equation is true:

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[c_{\alpha / 2, n-1}<\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{\sigma^{2}}<c_{1-\alpha / 2, n-1}\right]=1-\alpha . \tag{9.50}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now rearrange this equation to obtain a confidential interval for $\sigma^{2}$. If we take the inverse of all the inside terms, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[\frac{1}{c_{\alpha / 2, n-1}}>\frac{\sigma^{2}}{(n-1) s^{2}}>\frac{1}{c_{1-\alpha / 2, n-1}}\right]=1-\alpha . \tag{9.51}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that taking the inverse changes the direction of the inequality signs. Multiplying each term by $(n-1) s^{2}$ we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{\alpha / 2, n-1}}>\sigma^{2}>\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{1-\alpha / 2, n-1}}\right]=1-\alpha \tag{9.52}
\end{equation*}
$$

or equivalently

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left[\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{1-\alpha / 2, n-1}}<\sigma^{2}<\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{\alpha / 2, n-1}}\right]=1-\alpha . \tag{9.53}
\end{equation*}
$$

The terms $\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{1-\alpha / 2, n-1}}$ and $\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{\alpha / 2, n-1}}$ are the lower and upper $100(1-\alpha) \%$ confidence limits for $\sigma^{2}$, and the interval $\left(\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{1-\alpha / 2, n-1}}, \frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{\alpha / 2, n-1}}\right)$ is a $100(1-\alpha) \%$ confidence interval for $\sigma^{2}$ (Mood et al. 1974). The confidence interval for $\sigma^{2}$ is not symmetrical around the value $s^{2}$, our estimate of $\sigma^{2}$.

For a $95 \%$ confidence interval with $\alpha=0.05$, the confidence interval formula is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{0.975, n-1}}, \frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{0.025, n-1}}\right) \tag{9.54}
\end{equation*}
$$

To find $c_{0.025, n-1}$, we look across the top row of Table C and find the column corresponding to $p=0.025$, then look for the row corresponding to $n-1$ degrees of fredom. To find $c_{0.975, n-1}$, we use the column corresponding to $p=0.975$, again looking for the row with $n-1$ degrees of freedom.

For a $99 \%$ confidence interval with $\alpha=0.01$, the confidence interval formula is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{0.995, n-1}}, \frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{0.005, n-1}}\right) \tag{9.55}
\end{equation*}
$$

To find $c_{0.005, n-1}$, we use the column corresponding to $p=0.005$, while the column for $c_{0.995, n-1}$ corresponds to $p=0.995$. We again use the entries corresponding to $n-1$ degrees of freedom.

We can also obtain a confidence interval for $\sigma=\sqrt{\sigma^{2}}$ by taking the square root of the above confidence limits. In particular, a confidence interval for $\sigma$ would be $\left(\sqrt{\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{1-\alpha / 2, n-1}}}, \sqrt{\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{\alpha / 2, n-1}}}\right)$.

## Confidence interval for $\sigma^{2}$ and $\sigma$ - sample calculation

Recall the elytra data set, for which $\bar{Y}=5.150$ and $s^{2}=0.109$ for $n=10$. Calculate a $95 \%$ and $99 \%$ confidence interval for $\sigma^{2}$ and then $\sigma$.

The formula for a $95 \%$ confidence interval is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{0.975, n-1}}, \frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{0.025, n-1}}\right) \tag{9.56}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $n=10$, we have $d f=n-1=10-1=9$.
For a $95 \%$ confidence interval, with $\alpha=0.05$, we find from Table C that $c_{0.025, n-1}=c_{0.025,9}=2.700$, and $c_{0.975, n-1}=c_{0.975,9}=19.023$. Substituting $n=10, s^{2}=0.110, c_{0.025,9}=2.700$ and $c_{0.975,9}=19.023$ in the above formula, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{(10-1) 0.109}{19.023}, \frac{(10-1) 0.109}{2.700}\right) \tag{9.57}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(0.052,0.363) \tag{9.58}
\end{equation*}
$$

So, the $95 \%$ confidence interval for $\sigma^{2}$ is $(0.052,0.363)$. To obtain a $95 \%$ confidence interval for $\sigma$ we simply take the square root of these values, or $(\sqrt{0.052}, \sqrt{0.363}$, to obtain $(0.228,0.603)$.

For a $99 \%$ confidence interval, the formula is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{0.995, n-1}}, \frac{(n-1) s^{2}}{c_{0.005, n-1}}\right) \tag{9.59}
\end{equation*}
$$

We use Table C to find $c_{0.005, n-1}=c_{0.005,9}=1.735$, and $c_{0.995, n-1}=c_{0.995,9}=$ 23.589. Substituting these values in the above formula, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\frac{(10-1) 0.109}{23.589}, \frac{(10-1) 0.109}{1.735}\right) \tag{9.60}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
(0.042,0.565) \tag{9.61}
\end{equation*}
$$

The $99 \%$ confidence interval of $\sigma^{2}$ is therefore ( $0.042,0.565$ ). To obtain a $99 \%$ confidence interval for $\sigma$, we take the square root and obtain $(0.205,0.752)$. Note that the $99 \%$ intervals are wider than the corresponding $95 \%$ ones.

### 9.2.4 Confidence intervals - SAS demo

These same calculations can be readily accomplished using proc univariate in SAS (SAS Institute Inc. 2016). We obtain $95 \%$ confidence intervals by including the option cibasic in the proc univariate line of the program.
$99 \%$ confidence intervals may be obtained by specifying alpha=0.01 in the proc univariate line. See SAS program and Fig. 9.3-9.6 below. Similar to our earlier calculations, the $95 \%$ confidence interval was $(4.913,5.387)$ for $\mu$, $(0.052,0.365)$ for $\sigma^{2}$, and $(0.228,0.604)$ for $\sigma$. The $99 \%$ confidence intervals can be found further in the output.

### 9.2.5 Confidence interval size

Confidence intervals are a method of characterizing the precision of parameter estimates, with narrower intervals generally indicating a population parameter like $\mu$ is better estimated. How then can an investigator reduce the size of these confidence intervals? The simplest way is to increase the sample size $n$ on which the estimate is based. This reduces the size of confidence intervals for $\mu$ because it reduces the magnitude of the quantity $c_{\alpha, n-1} s / \sqrt{n}$, which determines the width of the interval (see Eq. 9.26). Most of this effect is through the $\sqrt{n}$ term here, but $c_{\alpha, n-1}$ also becomes smaller for larger $n$. Increasing the sample size $n$ also reduces the size of the confidence intervals for $\sigma^{2}$ and $\sigma$, although the mechanism is more complex in this case.

```
* Confidence_intervals.sas;
title 'Confidence intervals for elytra data';
data elytra;
    input length;
    datalines;
5.0
5.1
5.2
5.9
4.8
5.5
4.8
5.1
5.0
5.1
;
run;
* Print data set;
proc print data=elytra;
run;
* Generate 95% confidence intervals and plots;
title2 "95% confidence intervals";
proc univariate cibasic data=elytra;
    var length;
    histogram length / vscale=count normal;
    qqplot length / normal;
run;
* Generate 99% confidence intervals;
title2 "99% confidence intervals";
proc univariate cibasic alpha = 0.01 data=elytra;
    var length;
run;
quit;
```


## Confidence intervals for elytra data

| Obs | length |
| ---: | ---: |
| $\mathbf{1}$ | 5.0 |
| $\mathbf{2}$ | 5.1 |
| $\mathbf{3}$ | 5.2 |
| $\mathbf{4}$ | 5.9 |
| $\mathbf{5}$ | 4.8 |
| $\mathbf{6}$ | 5.5 |
| $\mathbf{7}$ | 4.8 |
| $\mathbf{8}$ | 5.1 |
| $\mathbf{9}$ | 5.0 |
| $\mathbf{1 0}$ | 5.1 |

Figure 9.3: confidence_intervals.sas - proc print

## Confidence intervals for elytra data 95\% confidence intervals

## The UNIVARIATE Procedure <br> Variable: length

| Moments |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | :--- | ---: |
| N | 10 | Sum Weights | 10 |
| Mean | 5.15 | Sum Observations | 51.5 |
| Std Deviation | 0.33082389 | Variance | 0.10944444 |
| Skewness | 1.42698649 | Kurtosis | 2.26518149 |
| Uncorrected SS | 266.21 | Corrected SS | 0.985 |
| Coeff Variation | 6.4237648 | Std Error Mean | 0.1046157 |


| Basic Statistical Measures |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Location |  | Variability |  |
| Mean | 5.150000 | Std Deviation | 0.33082 |
| Median | 5.100000 | Variance | 0.10944 |
| Mode | 5.100000 | Range | 1.10000 |
|  |  | Interquartile Range | 0.20000 |


| Basic Confidence Limits Assuming Normality |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Parameter | Estimate | $95 \%$ Confidence Limits |  |
| Mean | 5.15000 | 4.91334 | 5.38666 |
| Std Deviation | 0.33082 | 0.22755 | 0.60396 |
| Variance | 0.10944 | 0.05178 | 0.36476 |

Figure 9.4: confidence_intervals.sas - proc univariate

## Confidence intervals for elytra data 99\% confidence intervals

The UNIVARIATE Procedure
Variable: length

| Moments |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| N | 10 | Sum Weights | 10 |
| Mean | 5.15 | Sum Observations | 51.5 |
| Std Deviation | 0.33082389 | Variance | 0.10944444 |
| Skewness | 1.42698649 | Kurtosis | 2.26518149 |
| Uncorrected SS | 266.21 | Corrected SS | 0.985 |
| Coeff Variation | 6.4237648 | Std Error Mean | 0.1046157 |


| Basic Statistical Measures |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Location |  | Variability |  |
| Mean | 5.150000 | Std Deviation | 0.33082 |
| Median | 5.100000 | Variance | 0.10944 |
| Mode | 5.100000 | Range | 1.10000 |
|  |  | Interquartile Range | 0.20000 |


| Basic Confidence Limits Assuming Normality |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Parameter | Estimate | $99 \%$ Confidence Limits |  |
| Mean | 5.15000 | 4.81002 | 5.48998 |
| Std Deviation | 0.33082 | 0.20434 | 0.75349 |
| Variance | 0.10944 | 0.04176 | 0.56775 |

Figure 9.5: confidence_intervals.sas - proc univariate

Confidence intervals for elytra data 95\% confidence intervals

The UNIVARIATE Procedure


Figure 9.6: confidence_intervals.sas - proc univariate

### 9.3 References

Mood, A. M., Graybill, F. A. \& Boes, D. C. (1974) Introduction to the Theory of Statistics. McGraw-Hill, Inc., New York, NY.
SAS Institute Inc. (2016) Base SAS 9.4 Procedures Guide, Sixth Edition. SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC.

### 9.4 Problems

1. Ten adult female Daphnia ambigua (Lei and Armitage 1980) were cultured under laboratory conditions, and their longevity (days) determined. The following data were obtained.
$\begin{array}{lllllllll}28 & 4 & 22 & 21 & 17 & 21 & 22 & 26 & 15\end{array} 19$
(a) Find $\bar{Y}, s^{2}$, and $s$ for these data, then calculate a $95 \%$ confidence interval for $\mu, \sigma^{2}$ and then $\sigma$. Show all your calculations.
(b) Find a $99 \%$ confidence interval for $\mu, \sigma^{2}$ and then $\sigma$. Show your calculations.
(c) Use SAS to find the same confidence intervals as in parts a and b. List the confidence intervals and test results below. Attach your SAS program(s) and output.
2. A study was conducted to measure the population growth rate of a laboratory culture of nematodes. A hundred nematodes were each added to 8 petri dishes of a new growth media, and the number of offspring counted one generation later. The number of offspring divided by the initial number of organisms (100) provides an estimate of $\lambda$, the finite growth rate of the population. It is customary to log-transform the values of $\lambda$ in such studies, yielding $r=\ln (\lambda)$. The following values of $r$ were obtained:

### 2.10 .81 .81 .90 .81 .70 .51 .6

(a) Find $\bar{Y}, s^{2}$, and $s$ for these data, then calculate a $95 \%$ confidence interval for $\mu, \sigma^{2}$ and then $\sigma$. Show all your calculations.
(b) Find a $99 \%$ confidence interval for $\mu, \sigma^{2}$ and then $\sigma$. Show your calculations.
(c) Use SAS to find the same confidence intervals as in parts a and b. List the confidence intervals and test results below. Attach your SAS program(s) and output.

