

Part (D): Sampling distributions and confidence intervals

(Reading: Wild & Seber, Chapters 6,7, Freund, Chapters 8,11)

13 Sampling distributions

13.1 Introduction

Suppose we want to estimate the expected (mean) yield (μ) of a certain plant variety. We grow 100 plants and measure their yields:

Data: x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{100}

We can estimate μ by

$$\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{100} \sum_{i=1}^{100} x_i$$

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Suppose that in our experiment

$$\bar{x} = 1.56, \quad s^2 = \frac{1}{99} \left\{ \sum x_i^2 - \frac{(\sum x_i)^2}{100} \right\} = 0.26.$$

Then clearly $\hat{\mu} = 1.56\text{kg}$. But, how accurate is this as an estimate of μ ?

To quantify the 'accuracy' of $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x}$ as an estimate of μ we require a **probability model**.

Model assumptions

We assume that each measured yield is the outcome of a random experiment such that:

- (A) The outcome of each experiment is independent of all other experiments.
- (B) The probability distribution for the result of each experiment is the same for all experiments.

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Recall that (A) and (B) imply that the data represent a realisation of independent, identically distributed (i.i.d) random variables

$$X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$$

where X_k is the outcome of the k^{th} experiment, $n =$ sample size (= 100 here).

The probability model consists of:

- The variables $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ which are called a **random sample**, and
- The common distribution of $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ which is called the **population distribution**:

$$\mu = E(X) = \text{population mean}$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\text{var}(X)} = \text{population standard deviation.}$$

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An important distinction:

Before we carry out the experiment we don't know what the measured yields will be. Therefore they are **random variables** X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n (**UPPER CASE**).

After the experiment we obtain actual **observed values** x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n (**lower case**).

Now, since X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are random variables, then

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

is also a random variable.

The value $\bar{x} = 1.56\text{kg}$ observed in our plant-yield experiment is a realisation of the r.v. \bar{X} .

Each time we conduct the experiment (i.e. grow 100 plants and measure yield) we will obtain a different observed value \bar{x} .

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Simulation study:

Suppose the population distribution is $N(5, 4)$ and the sample size is $n = 25$. Then the sample mean (as a r.v.) is

$$\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n}(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{25})$$

where $X_i \sim N(5, 4)$ (i.i.d).

Now, we can generate (using a computer) a realisation (sample)

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{25}$$

and calculate \bar{x} .

Repeat this many times to generate many different realisations and build up a picture of the distribution of \bar{X} .

If we can understand the distribution of \bar{X} then we can begin to quantify how accurate \bar{x} is likely to be as an estimate of the population mean.

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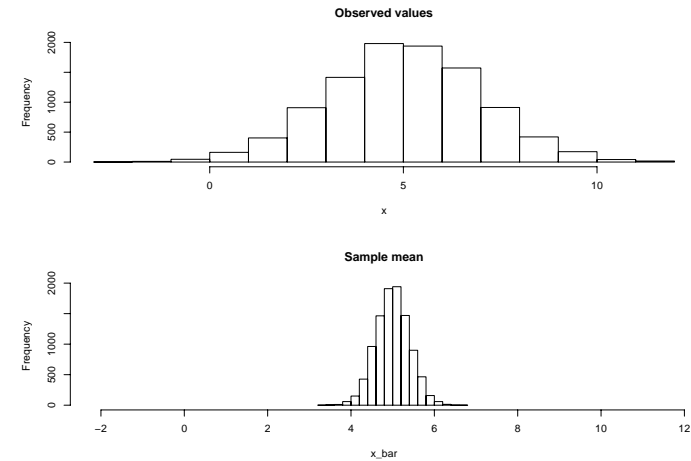
14 The distribution of \bar{X} and the Central Limit Theorem

Again, let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n be a random sample of size n . The population distribution is not completely specified, but we assume that X has

$$E(X) = \mu; \quad \text{var}(X) = \sigma^2 \quad (\text{both finite}).$$

What can we say about the distribution of $\bar{X} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$?

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Notice that:

- values of \bar{x} cluster around the population mean, 5
- values of \bar{x} are less variable than individual observations.

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14.1 Mean and variance of \bar{X}

We have the following results:

$$\begin{aligned} E(\bar{X}) &= E\left\{\frac{1}{n}(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n)\right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{n}\{E(X_1) + E(X_2) + \dots + E(X_n)\} \\ &= \frac{1}{n}(\mu + \mu + \dots + \mu) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \times n\mu = \mu \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow The average of \bar{X} over many experiments is the 'true' population mean.

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{var}(\bar{X}) &= \text{var} \left\{ \frac{1}{n} (X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \{ \text{var}(X_1) + \text{var}(X_2) + \dots + \text{var}(X_n) \} \quad (X_i \text{'s independent}) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \times n\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n} \end{aligned}$$

⇒ The variance of \bar{X} is inversely proportional to the sample size n .

$$\left[\text{s.d. of } \bar{X} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right]$$

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14.2 The Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

(Reading: Wild & Seber, 7.2, Freund, 8.2)

Although we have not specified exactly the population distribution (X), we can say a lot more about the distribution of \bar{X} .

Theorem (CLT):

The distribution of \bar{X} (the sample mean as a r.v.) is **approximately Normal** with mean μ and variance $\frac{\sigma^2}{n}$ [⇒ s.d. = $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$].

Remarks:

- i) If the population is $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ then $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$ exactly.
- ii) Otherwise the quality of the approximation increases with the sample size n .

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We illustrate this result with a [simulation study](#):

Case 1

Population distribution is $U(0, 1)$. [Recall $E(X) = 0.5$, $\text{var}(X) = \frac{1}{12}$.]

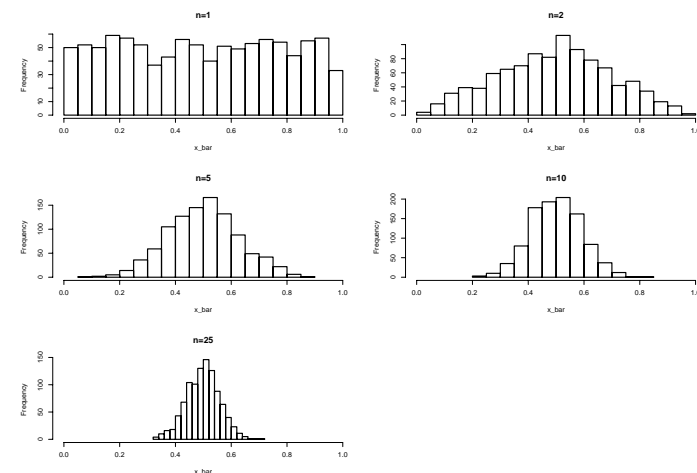
Simulate random sample X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n .

Look at distribution of \bar{X} by forming a histogram from 1000 such samples of size n .

Do this for $n = 1, 2, 5, 10, 25$.

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Sample mean of $U(0, 1)$ distribution

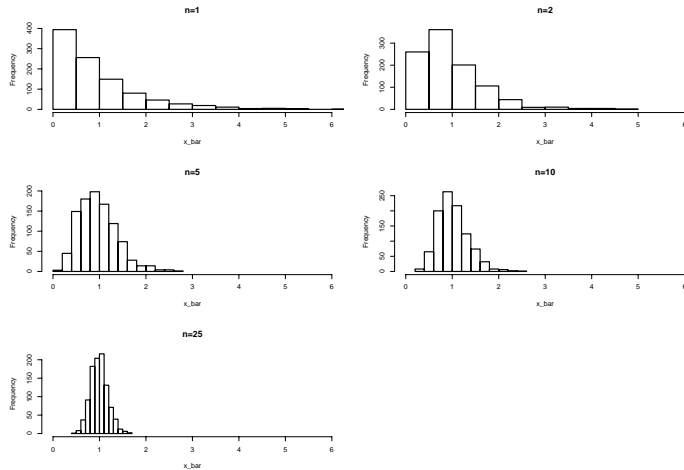


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Case 2

Same as before with population distribution $\text{Exp}(1)$. [$E(X) = 1, \text{var}(X) = 1$]

Sample mean of $\text{Exp}(1)$ distribution



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Note how the histograms of the sample mean appear to look 'Normal' as n increases.

iii) The CLT also tells us what the distribution of $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ looks like:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n X_i = n\bar{X} \overset{\text{approx}}{\sim} N(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$$

[To see this, recall that $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$].

Example

The weight of a certain variety of apple (in grams) has a distribution with mean $\mu = 150$ and variance $\sigma^2 = 100$. A box is packed with 40 randomly selected apples. What is the probability that the total weight of apples exceeds 6.1 kg?

Solution...

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Application (Normal approximation to binomial)

Show that if the r.v. $X \sim \text{bin}(n, p)$, then

$$X \overset{\text{approx}}{\sim} N(np, np(1-p))$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof...

Example

A gambler plays 99 times at roulette and always bets on red. What is the probability that he wins at least 50 times?

[Roulette: $P(\text{red}) = \frac{18}{37} = 0.4865$]

Solution...

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15 Constructing confidence intervals

Let X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n denote a random sample (i.i.d.) from a population with **unknown** mean μ . We assume for the moment that the population variance σ^2 is **known**.

From the CLT we know that

$$\bar{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

which implies that

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

The left hand side is a random variable, given as a function of the data and involving the unknown parameter μ .

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We can use it as a 'pivotal' quantity to derive the probability statement

$$P\left(\bar{X} - z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

where $z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}$ is the 'percentage' point of the $N(0, 1)$ distribution such that

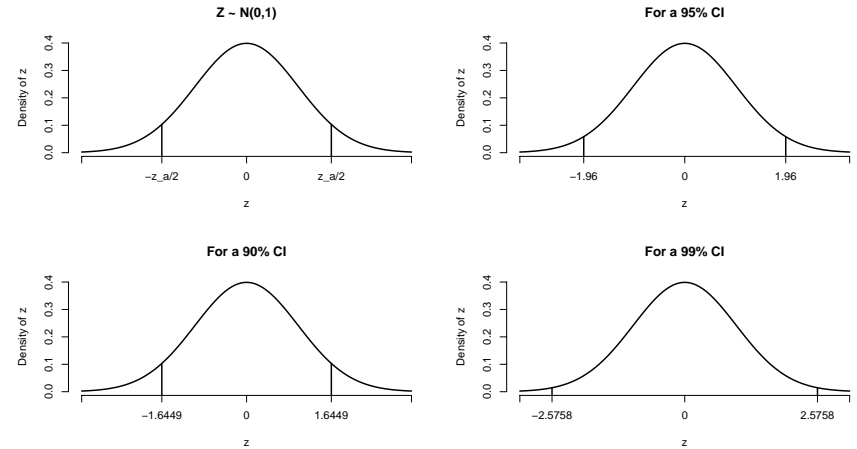
$$P(Z > z_{\alpha/2}) = 1 - \Phi(z_{\alpha/2}) = \frac{\alpha}{2}.$$

For example, $z_{0.025} = 1.96$, since

$$P(Z > 1.96) = 1 - \Phi(1.96) = 0.025.$$

(Table 5, Lindley & Scott, p.35, also see picture).

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In the case of $z_{0.025}$ we say that there is a $(1 - \alpha)100\% = 95\%$ chance that the **random interval**

$$\left(\bar{X} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{X} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

'covers' or contains the true population mean μ .

We call the above interval a 95% **confidence interval** (C.I) for the mean μ .

[Note that in general, and for different $z_{\alpha/2}$, we can determine appropriate $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ confidence intervals.]

For a particular realisation (i.e. a set of observations)

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$$

we say that the interval

$$\left(\bar{x} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

is the **observed 95% CI**.

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A subtle but important point:

Given a particular realisation it would be wrong to state that

$$P\left(\bar{x} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{x} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 0.95$$

No random variables involved!

We really mean:

The interval $\left(\bar{x} - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$ is a realisation from a population of intervals, 95% of which contain the true value μ .

Or:

If we obtain a large number of such intervals (with a different independent sample each time), we expect 95% of them to contain the true value of μ .

Therefore we are fairly confident that a single such interval contains μ .

(But if we have been 'unlucky', then it doesn't contain μ .)

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Simulation study

Recall our simulation study for the case of $n = 25$, $X \sim N(5, 2^2)$.

Let's look at the 95% CIs over 10 realisations. (We suppose that we don't know $\mu = 5$, but we do know $\sigma^2 = 4$.) Then given the sample mean \bar{X} we obtain

$$\left(\bar{X} - 1.96 \frac{2}{5}, \bar{X} + 1.96 \frac{2}{5} \right)$$

as our 95% CI. [Roughly $(\bar{X} - 0.8, \bar{X} + 0.8)$]

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Example

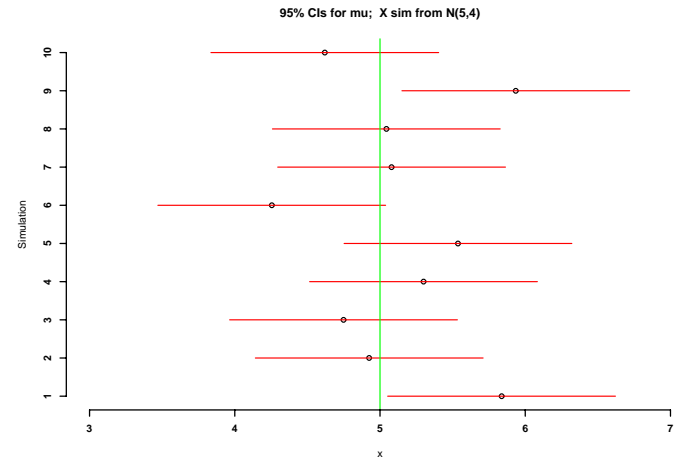
The times (in seconds) of a certain chemical reaction is known to be distributed as $N(\mu, 0.5^2)$, where μ is unknown. The times of a random sample of 10 such reactions are measured to be:

3.9, 4.7, 6.1, 5.2, 5.4, 4.8, 4.5, 5.0, 4.7, 4.9

Calculate 50%, 90% and 99% CIs for μ .

Solution...

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Here we have been 'unlucky' twice, as 2 out of the 10 CIs do not contain the true value of $\mu = 5$.

In the long run we would find that $\frac{1}{20}$ of the realisations (CIs) did not contain μ .

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16 Constructing CIs when σ is unknown

In many practical situations we don't know the population variance σ^2 . However, given the observations x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , we can calculate the sample variance

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{(n-1)} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 - \frac{1}{n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \right)^2 \right\}.$$

and the standard deviation $s = \sqrt{s^2}$.

We can use s instead of σ to construct a CI, using the following distribution.

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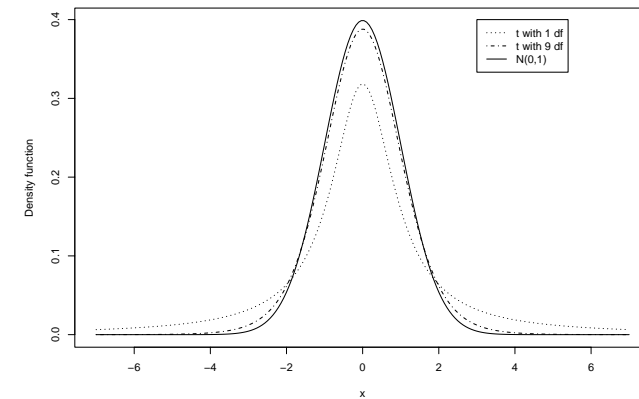
The t_ν distribution

The t distribution (or *Student's t* – named after the pseudonym 'Student' that W.S. Gosset used) is a continuous distribution, with shape similar to that of the $N(0, 1)$ distribution.

The distribution is characterised by a parameter ν , called the *degrees of freedom* of the distribution, and we denote it by t_ν .

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Its probability density function is plotted in the graph below.



Remarks

1. The t distribution is symmetric around zero, with longer tails than the $N(0, 1)$.
2. As $\nu \rightarrow \infty$, the t distribution approaches the $N(0, 1)$ distribution.
3. The values of its cdf are tabulated (e.g. see NCST p42–45).

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Theorem:

If the population distribution is $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and the sample size is n , then

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}.$$

This is the **t -distribution with $n - 1$ degrees of freedom**. As before, \bar{X} and S denote the sample mean and sample s.d. and n is the sample size.

Remark:

This result holds approximately for non-normal distributions. This is important because in practice we can never know that the data come from (exactly) a Normal population.

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To calculate a CI for μ (e.g. a 95% CI) from \bar{X} and S we need to find t such that

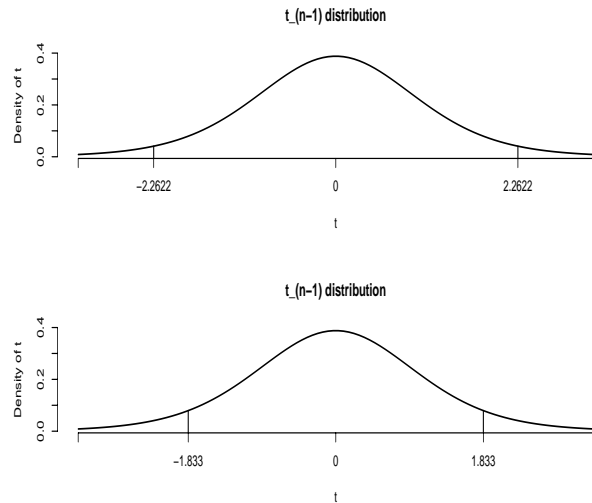
$$P\left(-t < \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} < t\right) = 0.95$$
$$\Leftrightarrow P\left(\bar{X} - t\frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} < \mu < \bar{X} + t\frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 0.95$$

where t is 'percentage' the point of the t_{n-1} distribution such that

$$P(T > t) = 0.025, \quad \text{with } T \sim t_{n-1}.$$

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We usually denote this point by $t_{n-1,0.025}$.



These values can be obtained from Table 10 (Lindley & Scott, p.45)

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Note: The percentage points decrease as ν (no. of degrees of freedom) increases (t -distribution becomes narrower).

Also, as $\nu \rightarrow \infty$, t -distribution approaches the Normal distribution.

Example

Recall the chemical reaction times example. Data:

3.9, 4.7, 6.1, 5.2, 5.4, 4.8, 4.5, 5.0, 4.7, 4.9

Suppose we don't know σ^2 . Find a 90% CI for the population mean μ .

Solution...

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Example

Return to the plant-yield example. Here we had 100 measured yields with sample mean $\bar{x} = 1.56$ and sample variance $s^2 = 0.26$.

We can quantify the accuracy of our estimate $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} = 1.56$ by calculating e.g. a 95% CI for μ as

$$\left(1.56 - t_{99,0.025} \frac{s}{\sqrt{100}}, 1.56 + t_{99,0.025} \frac{s}{\sqrt{100}} \right)$$

Now $t_{99,0.025} \approx 2.0$, $s = \sqrt{0.26} = 0.51$.

Therefore our 95% CI is

$$(1.458, 1.662)$$

'We are 95% confident that the value of μ lies in the interval calculated.' **On 95% of times that we carry out the experiment we will be correct.**

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17 Comparison of two populations

In many practical situations we are interested in comparing the means of 2 populations to investigate whether or not they are different.

To do this we can calculate a CI for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ where μ_1, μ_2 are the unknown means of the 2 populations. We then consider whether the value 0 lies in the CI.

$[\mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \text{means are equal}]$

We consider 2 cases.

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17.1 σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 known

Let $X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{1n_1}$ and $X_{21}, X_{22}, \dots, X_{2n_2}$ be the random samples from the two populations with unknown means μ_1, μ_2 and known variances σ_1^2, σ_2^2 .

The sample means are

$$\bar{X}_1 = \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} X_{1i}, \quad \bar{X}_2 = \frac{1}{n_2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_2} X_{2i}$$

Now, **assuming the populations are Normal** we have

$$\bar{X}_1 \sim N\left(\mu_1, \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1}\right), \quad \bar{X}_2 \sim N\left(\mu_2, \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}\right)$$

and further assuming that the **two samples are independent** of each other we have

$$\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 \sim N\left(\mu_1 - \mu_2, \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}\right).$$

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We can construct e.g. a 95% CI for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ using

$$P\left(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 - 1.96\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}} < \mu_1 - \mu_2 < \bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 + 1.96\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}\right) = 0.95$$

i.e. the 95% CI is

$$\left(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 - 1.96\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}, \bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 + 1.96\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}\right)$$

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Example

The heights (in ft) of two species of plant are known to be normally distributed with unknown means μ_1 and μ_2 and variances $\sigma_1^2 = 0.25, \sigma_2^2 = 0.36$. Independent samples of size $n_1 = 20, n_2 = 25$ are drawn from the two populations. The observed sample means are $\bar{x}_1 = 4.4$ and $\bar{x}_2 = 5.2$. Calculate a 95% CI for the difference in the means $\mu_1 - \mu_2$.

Solution...

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17.2 σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 unknown

If we don't know the population variances σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 but **both samples are large** (say $n_1, n_2 \geq 30$) then we can use the sample standard deviations s_1 and s_2 to substitute for σ_1 and σ_2 and construct a CI as for the case where the variances are known.

If either or both samples are small, then things are more complicated:

If we can assume that $\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ (i.e. the unknown population variances are equal) then we can proceed as follows.

Let S_1^2 and S_2^2 denote the 2 sample variances. These can be combined to give a **pooled estimator** of σ^2 :

$$S_p^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

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Our $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ CI for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ can be constructed as

$$\left(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 - t S_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}, \bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 + t S_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}} \right)$$

where $S_p = \sqrt{S_p^2}$ is the pooled sample standard deviation (estimator of σ) and

$$t = t_{n_1+n_2-2, \alpha/2}$$

is the point of the $t_{n_1+n_2-2}$ distribution such that

$$P(T > t_{n_1+n_2-2, \alpha/2}) = \frac{\alpha}{2}, \quad \text{with } T \sim t_{n_1+n_2-2}.$$

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Example

A random sample of 10 cigarettes of type 1 had an average nicotine content of 3.1 milligrams with a standard deviation of 0.5 mg. A sample of 8 cigarettes of type 2 had mean and s.d. 2.7 mg and 0.7 mg respectively.

Assuming that the two sets of data are independent random samples from normal populations with the same variance, construct a 95% CI for the difference between the mean nicotine contents of the brands.

Solution...

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18 Confidence intervals for unknown proportions

Assume that we want to estimate a proportion of a population having a specific characteristic.

This can be expressed as a probability (e.g. probability of a car failing a safety check), percentage (e.g. percentage of votes in a YES/NO referendum), or rate (e.g. mortality rate of a disease).

In many cases, we can express the above quantities as the probability p in a binomial distribution.

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Recall that if $X \sim \text{Bin}(n, p)$, then CLT gives

$$X \stackrel{\text{approx}}{\sim} N(np, np(1-p))$$

This also implies that

$$\frac{X}{n} \stackrel{\text{approx}}{\sim} N\left(p, \frac{p(1-p)}{n}\right)$$

But notice that $\frac{X}{n}$ is an estimate of the unknown probability (proportion) p , and we write

$$\frac{X}{n} = \hat{P}.$$

Then we also have that

$$\frac{\hat{P} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}} \sim N(0, 1)$$

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It follows that we can construct a $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ CI for p , based on:

$$P\left(-z_{\alpha/2} < \frac{\hat{P} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}} < z_{\alpha/2}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

$$\Leftrightarrow P\left(\hat{P} - z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} < p < \hat{P} + z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}\right) = 1 - \alpha$$

Now, as this expression involves the unknown true proportion p , we can further approximate it by using the estimate \hat{P} to obtain the $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ CI:

$$\left(\hat{P} - z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{\hat{P}(1 - \hat{P})}{n}}, \hat{P} + z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{\hat{P}(1 - \hat{P})}{n}}\right)$$

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Example

(a) A poll was taken of University students before a student election. Of the 78 male students contacted, 33 said they would vote for candidate A. Obtain a 95% CI for the proportion of male voters in the University population in favour of this candidate.

(b) Consider now a second sample of 86 female students, of which 26 said they would vote for candidate A. By obtaining an appropriate 95% CI, can you support the view that the percentage of voters for candidate A is the same among male and female students?

Solution ...

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19 CIs for differences between proportions

Suppose now that we want to estimate the difference between two proportions p_1 and p_2 based on two samples of size n_1 and n_2 from two binomial populations.

For large samples, we can use the approximation

$$Z = \frac{(\hat{P}_1 - \hat{P}_2) - (p_1 - p_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{p_1(1-p_1)}{n_1} + \frac{p_2(1-p_2)}{n_2}}} \underset{\text{approx}}{\sim} N(0, 1)$$

to obtain a $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ CI for the difference $p_1 - p_2$ of the form

$$(\hat{P}_1 - \hat{P}_2) \pm z_{\alpha/2}\sqrt{\frac{\hat{P}_1(1 - \hat{P}_1)}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{P}_2(1 - \hat{P}_2)}{n_2}}$$

Notice that, as before, the unknown proportions p_1 and p_2 have been substituted in the variance with their estimates \hat{P}_1 and \hat{P}_2 , to give the above approximate CI.

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