

Introduction to Geostatistics

Confidence intervals II: confidence intervals for differences, and
in general.

Edzer J. Pebesma

`edzer.pebesma@uni-muenster.de`
Institute for Geoinformatics (**ifgi**)
University of Münster

summer semester 2007/8,
May 24, 2009

Point estimation vs interval estimation

- ▶ Point estimation is e.g. giving \bar{X} as an estimate of μ
- ▶ Obviously, we try always to give the “best” point estimate
- ▶ “best” usually has some mathematical connotation: least squares, minimum variance, best linear, maximum likelihood, maximum a-posteriori probability, ...
- ▶ A more complete picture is given by the *interval estimate*, where we give the **range of likely values** for the target parameter (e.g. μ), given sampling error
- ▶ this is usually done with a confidence interval that has a certain probability coverage (e.g. 95%)
- ▶ probability refers to sampling error/repeated sampling, not to the population parameter (such as μ)

Point estimation vs interval estimation

- ▶ Point estimation is e.g. giving \bar{X} as an estimate of μ
- ▶ Obviously, we try always to give the “best” point estimate
- ▶ “best” usually has some mathematical connotation: least squares, minimum variance, best linear, maximum likelihood, maximum a-posteriori probability, ...
- ▶ A more complete picture is given by the *interval estimate*, where we give the **range of likely values** for the target parameter (e.g. μ), given sampling error
- ▶ this is usually done with a confidence interval that has a certain probability coverage (e.g. 95%)
- ▶ probability refers to sampling error/repeated sampling, not to the population parameter (such as μ)

Point estimation vs interval estimation

- ▶ Point estimation is e.g. giving \bar{X} as an estimate of μ
- ▶ Obviously, we try always to give the “best” point estimate
- ▶ “best” usually has some mathematical connotation: least squares, minimum variance, best linear, maximum likelihood, maximum a-posteriori probability, ...
- ▶ A more complete picture is given by the *interval estimate*, where we give the **range of likely values** for the target parameter (e.g. μ), given sampling error
- ▶ this is usually done with a confidence interval that has a certain probability coverage (e.g. 95%)
- ▶ probability refers to sampling error/repeated sampling, not to the population parameter (such as μ)

Point estimation vs interval estimation

- ▶ Point estimation is e.g. giving \bar{X} as an estimate of μ
- ▶ Obviously, we try always to give the “best” point estimate
- ▶ “best” usually has some mathematical connotation: least squares, minimum variance, best linear, maximum likelihood, maximum a-posteriori probability, ...
- ▶ A more complete picture is given by the *interval estimate*, where we give the **range of likely values** for the target parameter (e.g. μ), given sampling error
- ▶ this is usually done with a confidence interval that has a certain probability coverage (e.g. 95%)
- ▶ probability refers to sampling error/repeated sampling, not to the population parameter (such as μ)

Point estimation vs interval estimation

- ▶ Point estimation is e.g. giving \bar{X} as an estimate of μ
- ▶ Obviously, we try always to give the “best” point estimate
- ▶ “best” usually has some mathematical connotation: least squares, minimum variance, best linear, maximum likelihood, maximum a-posteriori probability, ...
- ▶ A more complete picture is given by the *interval estimate*, where we give the **range of likely values** for the target parameter (e.g. μ), given sampling error
- ▶ this is usually done with a confidence interval that has a certain probability coverage (e.g. 95%)
- ▶ probability refers to sampling error/repeated sampling, not to the population parameter (such as μ)

Point estimation vs interval estimation

- ▶ Point estimation is e.g. giving \bar{X} as an estimate of μ
- ▶ Obviously, we try always to give the “best” point estimate
- ▶ “best” usually has some mathematical connotation: least squares, minimum variance, best linear, maximum likelihood, maximum a-posteriori probability, ...
- ▶ A more complete picture is given by the *interval estimate*, where we give the **range of likely values** for the target parameter (e.g. μ), given sampling error
- ▶ this is usually done with a confidence interval that has a certain probability coverage (e.g. 95%)
- ▶ probability refers to sampling error/repeated sampling, not to the population parameter (such as μ)

Confidence intervals, σ known

We saw that

$$Pr(\bar{X} - 1.96SE < \mu < \bar{X} + 1.96SE) = 0.95$$

and we can call this a **95% confidence interval**.

The essence is that we have limited knowledge about μ , and this is what we can say about it, based on sampling data.

Other probabilities can also be obtained. Let α be the probability that the confidence interval does *not* cover the true value, in this case 0.05.

$z_{\alpha/2}$ is the value of the standard normal curve below which $\alpha/2$ probability lies. Then we obtain a confidence interval with $1 - \alpha$ probability coverage by

$$[\bar{X} + z_{\alpha/2}SE, \bar{X} + z_{1-\alpha/2}SE]$$

(Note that $z_{\alpha/2}$ is negative.)

Values for α :

- ▶ α should be small, not larger than .1 for the word "confidence" to make sense

Confidence intervals, σ known

We saw that

$$Pr(\bar{X} - 1.96SE < \mu < \bar{X} + 1.96SE) = 0.95$$

and we can call this a **95% confidence interval**.

The essence is that we have limited knowledge about μ , and this is what we can say about it, based on sampling data.

Other probabilities can also be obtained. Let α be the probability that the confidence interval does *not* cover the true value, in this case 0.05.

$z_{\alpha/2}$ is the value of the standard normal curve below which $\alpha/2$ probability lies. Then we obtain a confidence interval with $1 - \alpha$ probability coverage by

$$[\bar{X} + z_{\alpha/2}SE, \bar{X} + z_{1-\alpha/2}SE]$$

(Note that $z_{\alpha/2}$ is negative.)

Values for α :

- ▶ α should be small, not larger than .1 for the word "confidence" to make sense

Confidence intervals, σ known – example

A 99% confidence interval for Length, assuming $\sigma = 11$:

```
> load("students.RData")
> attach(students)
> m = mean(Length)
> sd = 11
> se = sd/sqrt(length(Length))
> alpha = 0.01
> c(m + qnorm(alpha/2) * se, m + qnorm(1 - alpha/2) * se)
```

```
[1] 175.7123 180.3548
```

```
> alpha = 0.05
> c(m + qnorm(alpha/2) * se, m + qnorm(1 - alpha/2) * se)
```

```
[1] 176.2673 179.7998
```

```
> alpha = 0.1
> c(m + qnorm(alpha/2) * se, m + qnorm(1 - alpha/2) * se)
```

```
[1] 176.5513 179.5158
```

Confidence intervals, σ unknown

What to do if σ is not known (and in real life, it isn't)?

We know that if n is large, we can estimate σ quite well with the sample standard deviation s . If however n is small, the approximation is worse.

We need a distribution that is like the normal distribution, but wider for smaller n . This is what the **t-distribution** does.

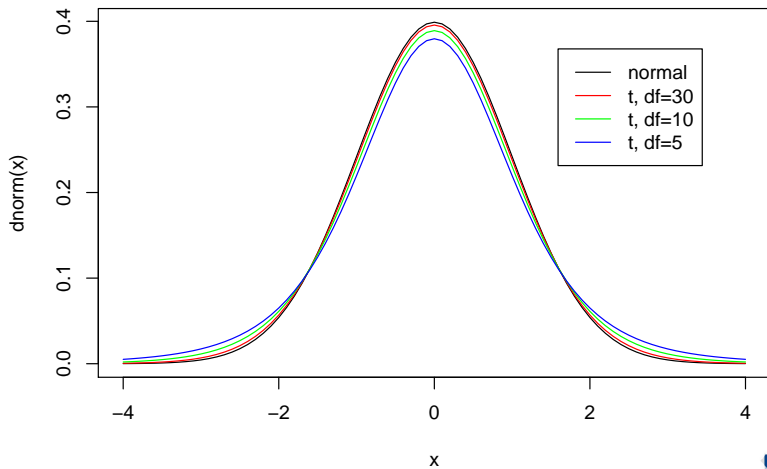
```
> sd = sqrt(var(Length))
> n = length(Length)
> se = sd/sqrt(n)
> alpha = 0.05
> c(m + qnorm(alpha/2) * se, m + qnorm(1 - alpha/2) * se)
```

```
[1] 176.2752 179.7919
```

```
> c(m + qt(alpha/2, n - 1) * se, m + qt(1 - alpha/2, n -
+      1) * se)
```

```
[1] 176.2607 179.8064
```

t-distribution



small sample size:

```
> L10 = Length[1:10]
> m = mean(L10)
> se = sqrt(var(L10)/10)
> c(m + qnorm(alpha/2) * se, m + qnorm(1 - alpha/2) * se)
[1] 159.7252 162.8748

> c(m + qt(alpha/2, 9) * se, m + qt(1 - alpha/2, 9) * se)
[1] 159.4824 163.1176

> L5 = Length[1:5]
> m = mean(L5)
> se = sqrt(var(L5)/5)
> c(m + qnorm(alpha/2) * se, m + qnorm(1 - alpha/2) * se)
[1] 158.4666 159.9334

> c(m + qt(alpha/2, 4) * se, m + qt(1 - alpha/2, 4) * se)
[1] 158.1611 160.2389
```

The normal assumption

- ▶ When computing confidence intervals based on the normal distribution (σ known) or t -distribution (σ unknown) we assume normality. But normality of what?
 - ▶ NOT of the data, X_i , but
 - ▶ of the estimation error of the mean, $\bar{X} - \mu$
 - ▶ When is this assumption justified?
 - ▶ when the data are (close to) normally distributed
 - ▶ when is a sample large enough? (usually: $n > 30$)

The normal assumption

- ▶ When computing confidence intervals based on the normal distribution (σ known) or t -distribution (σ unknown) we assume normality. But normality of what?
- ▶ **NOT** of the data, X_i , but
 - ▶ of the estimation error of the mean, $\bar{X} - \mu$
 - ▶ When is this assumption justified?
 - ▶ The data are (approximately) normally distributed
 - ▶ The sample size is large enough
 - ▶ when is a sample large enough? (usually: $n > 30$)

The normal assumption

- ▶ When computing confidence intervals based on the normal distribution (σ known) or t -distribution (σ unknown) we assume normality. But normality of what?
- ▶ **NOT** of the data, X_i , but
- ▶ of the estimation error of the mean, $\bar{X} - \mu$
- ▶ When is this assumption justified?
 - ↳ when the data are (close to) normally distributed OR
 - ↳ when the sample is large enough
- ▶ when is a sample large enough? (usually: $n > 30$)

The normal assumption

- ▶ When computing confidence intervals based on the normal distribution (σ known) or t -distribution (σ unknown) we assume normality. But normality of what?
- ▶ **NOT** of the data, X_i , but
- ▶ of the estimation error of the mean, $\bar{X} - \mu$
- ▶ When is this assumption justified?
 1. when the data are (close to) normally distributed OR
 2. when the sample size is large enough
- ▶ when is a sample large enough? (usually: $n > 30$)

The normal assumption

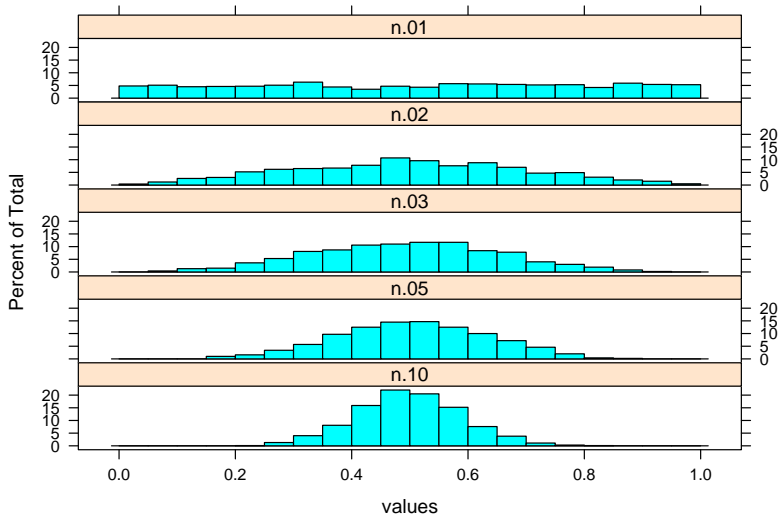
- ▶ When computing confidence intervals based on the normal distribution (σ known) or t -distribution (σ unknown) we assume normality. But normality of what?
- ▶ **NOT** of the data, X_i , but
- ▶ of the estimation error of the mean, $\bar{X} - \mu$
- ▶ When is this assumption justified?
 1. when the data are (close to) normally distributed **OR**
 2. when the sample size is large enough
- ▶ when is a sample large enough? (usually: $n > 30$)

The normal assumption

- ▶ When computing confidence intervals based on the normal distribution (σ known) or t -distribution (σ unknown) we assume normality. But normality of what?
- ▶ **NOT** of the data, X_i , but
- ▶ of the estimation error of the mean, $\bar{X} - \mu$
- ▶ When is this assumption justified?
 1. when the data are (close to) normally distributed **OR**
 2. **when the sample size is large enough**
- ▶ when is a sample large enough? (usually: $n > 30$)

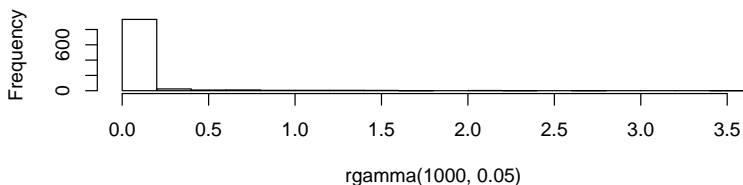
The normal assumption

- ▶ When computing confidence intervals based on the normal distribution (σ known) or t -distribution (σ unknown) we assume normality. But normality of what?
- ▶ **NOT** of the data, X_i , but
- ▶ of the estimation error of the mean, $\bar{X} - \mu$
- ▶ When is this assumption justified?
 1. when the data are (close to) normally distributed **OR**
 2. **when the sample size is large enough**
- ▶ when is a sample large enough? (usually: $n > 30$)

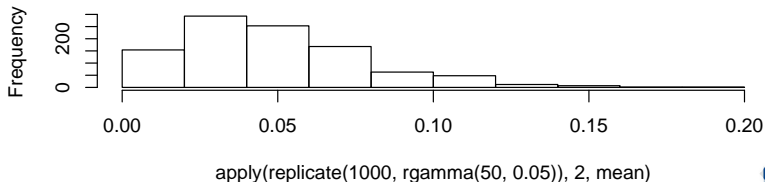


An example where it does not work out:

gamma distribution, shape = 0.05



means of random samples with size 50: still far from normal



Why does this normality thing work?

The central limit theorem:

Loosely, this theorem states that if we take a sum of n independent random variables **with an arbitrary distribution**,

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

then, when n grows larger, then the distribution of Y will converge to a normal distribution. As the mean is also a sum, this applies to sample means. How fast is the convergence?

Why does this normality thing work?

The central limit theorem:

Loosely, this theorem states that if we take a sum of n independent random variables **with an arbitrary distribution**,

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

then, when n grows larger, then the distribution of Y will converge to a normal distribution. As the mean is also a sum, this applies to sample means. **How fast is the convergence?**

Why does this normality thing work?

The central limit theorem:

Loosely, this theorem states that if we take a sum of n independent random variables **with an arbitrary distribution**,

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

then, when n grows larger, then the distribution of Y will converge to a normal distribution. As the mean is also a sum, this applies to sample means. How fast is the convergence?

CI for the difference in means; independent samples

Suppose we have two samples, and are interested in the difference in their means. We can now form a confidence interval for $\mu_1 - \mu_2$. What is the standard error for $\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$? Suppose $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$, then

$$SE = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)s_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)s_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} \left[\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} \right]}$$

and the 95% confidence interval is

$$Pr((\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) - t_{df,\alpha}SE \leq \mu_1 - \mu_2 \leq (\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) + t_{df,\alpha}SE) = .95$$

The usual interest lies in whether this interval contains zero.

CI for the difference in means; independent samples

```
> t.test(Length ~ Gender, var.equal = TRUE)
```

```
Two Sample t-test
```

```
data: Length by Gender
```

```
t = -11.07, df = 147, p-value < 2.2e-16
```

```
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
```

```
95 percent confidence interval:
```

```
-17.84502 -12.43874
```

```
sample estimates:
```

```
mean in group female    mean in group male
```

```
168.6842
```

```
183.8261
```

CI for the difference in means; paired samples

Paired samples: a single object has been measured twice (usually at two moments, or "before" and "after" treatment)

obj	t_1	t_2
1	13.5	12.7
2	15.3	15.1
3	7.5	6.6
4	10.3	8.5
5	8.7	8.0

```
> x1 = c(13.5, 15.3, 7.5, 10.3, 8.7)
```

```
> x2 = c(12.7, 15.1, 6.6, 8.5, 8)
```

```
> x1 - x2
```

```
[1] 0.8 0.2 0.9 1.8 0.7
```

```
> t.test(x1, x2, var.equal = TRUE)
```

Two Sample t-test

```
data: x1 and x2
```

```
t = 0.4066, df = 8, p-value = 0.695
```

```
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
```

```
95 percent confidence interval:
```

```
-4.111314  5.871314
```

```
sample estimates:
```

```
mean of x mean of y
```

```
11.06      10.18
```

```
> t.test(x1 - x2)
```

One Sample t-test

```
data: x1 - x2
```

```
t = 3.3896, df = 4, p-value = 0.02754
```

```
alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 0
```

```
95 percent confidence interval:
```

```
0.1591929 1.6008071
```

```
sample estimates:
```

```
mean of x
```

```
0.88
```

CI for (difference in) proportions

Proportions: use figure on page 274 (W&W) Large sample approximation:

$$P \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{\pi(1-\pi)}{n}}$$

by substituting P for π (for a conservative interval, i.e. worst case, substitute 0.5 for π).

Difference in proportions, large sample approximation:

$$\Pr((P_1 - P_2) - 1.96SE \leq \pi_1 - \pi_2 \leq (P_1 - P_2) + 1.96SE) \approx .95$$

$$\text{with } SE = \sqrt{\frac{P_1(1-P_1)}{n_1} + \frac{P_2(1-P_2)}{n_2}}$$

Ratio's of variances: F distribution

- ▶ Suppose we have two samples, and are interested whether they come from two populations having different variances, i.e. $\sigma_1 \neq \sigma_2$. Let sample 1 be the group with the larger variance. The F distribution describes the ratio of two sample variances under $H_0 : \sigma_1 = \sigma_2$.
- ▶ Under the hypothesis that $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$, the ratio $\frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2}$ follows the F distribution with n_1 and n_2 degrees of freedom.
- ▶ Suppose that $s_1^2 = 9$, $s_2^2 = 3$, $n_1 = 20$, $n_2 = 30$, so the sample variance ratio is $9/3=3$.

Ratio's of variances: F distribution

- ▶ Suppose we have two samples, and are interested whether they come from two populations having different variances, i.e. $\sigma_1 \neq \sigma_2$. Let sample 1 be the group with the larger variance. The F distribution describes the ratio of two sample variances under $H_0 : \sigma_1 = \sigma_2$.
- ▶ Under the hypothesis that $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$, the ratio $\frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2}$ follows the F distribution with n_1 and n_2 degrees of freedom.
- ▶ Suppose that $s_1^2 = 9$, $s_2^2 = 3$, $n_1 = 20$, $n_2 = 30$, so the sample variance ratio is $9/3=3$.

Ratio's of variances: F distribution

- ▶ Suppose we have two samples, and are interested whether they come from two populations having different variances, i.e. $\sigma_1 \neq \sigma_2$. Let sample 1 be the group with the larger variance. The F distribution describes the ratio of two sample variances under $H_0 : \sigma_1 = \sigma_2$.
- ▶ Under the hypothesis that $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$, the ratio $\frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2}$ follows the F distribution with n_1 and n_2 degrees of freedom.
- ▶ Suppose that $s_1^2 = 9$, $s_2^2 = 3$ $n_1 = 20$, $n_2 = 30$, so the sample variance ratio is $9/3=3$.

```
> qf(0.95, 20, 30)
```

```
[1] 1.931653
```

```
> v1 = var(Length[Gender == "male"])
```

```
> v2 = var(Length[Gender == "female"])
```

```
> v1
```

```
[1] 42.51887
```

```
> v2
```

```
[1] 103.7556
```

```
> v2/v1
```

```
[1] 2.440226
```

```
> qf(0.95, length(Length[Gender == "female"]), length(Length[Gender ==  
+ "male"]))
```

```
[1] 1.468575
```

```
> t.test(Length ~ Gender, var.equal = TRUE)
```

Two Sample t-test

```
data: Length by Gender
```

```
t = -11.07, df = 147, p-value < 2.2e-16
```

```
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
```

```
95 percent confidence interval:
```

```
-17.84502 -12.43874
```

```
sample estimates:
```

```
mean in group female    mean in group male
                168.6842                183.8261
```

```
> t.test(Length ~ Gender)
```

Welch Two Sample t-test

```
data: Length by Gender
```

```
t = -10.0226, df = 84.687, p-value = 4.809e-16
```

```
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
```

```
95 percent confidence interval:
```

```
-18.14586 -12.13789
```

```
sample estimates:
```

```
mean in group female    mean in group male
                168.6842                183.8261
```