

**Lecture 10: Estimating with uncertainty, but with a degree of certainty (i.e., with some confidence), part 2**

Key statistical concepts for understanding confidence intervals, statistical procedures, and statistical reasoning

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**Sampling variation generates uncertainty, i.e., sampling error**

$\mu = 350 \text{ cm}; \sigma = 100 \text{ cm}$

$X = 351.5 \text{ cm}; s = 114.2 \text{ cm}$

$X = 352.3 \text{ cm}; s = 94.0 \text{ cm}$

$X = 351.4 \text{ cm}; s = 96.6 \text{ cm}$

$\mu = 350 \text{ cm}$

Frequency

tree height (cm)

Uncertainty (samples means varying around the true population mean)

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2

The variation within a sample, summarized by the sample standard deviation, provides information about how much sample means are expected to fluctuate around the true population mean—allowing us to estimate the typical uncertainty in our estimate.

$\mu = 200 \text{ cm}, \sigma = 5 \text{ cm}$

population

Sampling distribution of means

Frequency

Variation among trees (small trees)

Note the change of scale in the X-axis

Variation among sample means of trees

frequency

sample means

Population

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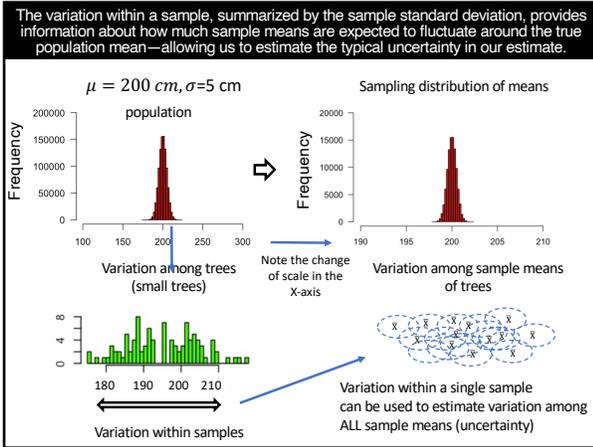
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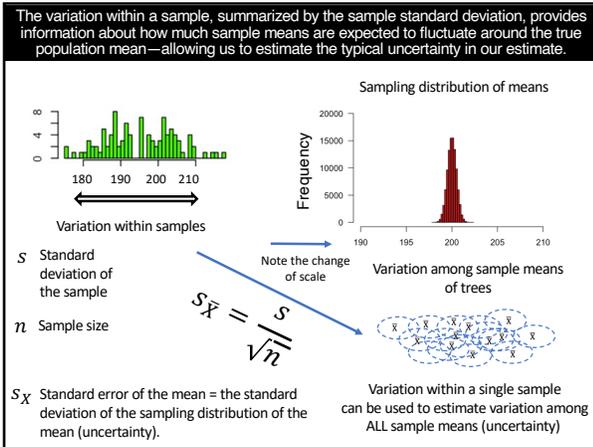
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$$s_{\bar{x}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

**THE STANDARD ERROR OF THE MEAN**

Standard deviation (s): If you measure 25 students and the SD is 10 cm, it means a typical student's height differs from the sample average by about 10 cm.

If you repeatedly (randomly) sampled different groups of 25 students, their averages would vary slightly around the true population mean. And the same for any number of students that build a sample.

$$s_{\bar{x}} = \frac{10}{\sqrt{25}} = 2 \text{ cm}$$

This 2 cm is the standard error and is a measure of uncertainty. It tells you: if you repeatedly took random samples of 25 students and calculated their average height, those averages would typically differ from the true population mean by about 2 cm.

UNCERTAINTY:  $s_{\bar{x}}$  (the standard error) estimates how wrong our sample mean is expected to be, on average, from the true population mean—purely because we relied on a sample.

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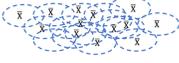
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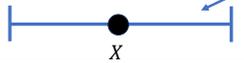
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**CONFIDENCE INTERVAL FOR THE MEAN**

$$s_X = \frac{10}{\sqrt{25}} = 2\text{cm}$$


UNCERTAINTY:  $s_X$  (the standard error) estimates how wrong our sample mean is expected to be, on average, from the true population mean—purely because we relied on a sample.

Confidence interval =  $X \pm$   
quantity \*  $s_X$



Very plausible (high confidence) that the population parameter  $\mu$  is somewhere within the 95% confidence interval.

The quantity (i.e., which establishes the critical value or margin of error) varies with the confidence level we choose (e.g., 95% or 99%).

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Although we have not yet shown how to estimate a confidence interval, we already know that it depends on the standard error of the mean, a measure of how much sample means vary due to sampling.

The standard deviation of the sampling distribution  $\sigma_Y$  is called standard error (SE) and is exactly:

$$\sigma_Y = \sqrt{\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \mu)^2}{N}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$N$  is all infinite samples and  $n$  is sample size

The left side is a definition using infinite repetition and the right side is a mathematical consequence of the probability model. Statistics closes these gaps.

$\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (Y_i - \mu)^2}{\infty}}$  → Not observable: infinitely many samples

$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$  → closed-form result from probability theory. variability of sample means depends only on: the population standard deviation  $\sigma$ , and the sample size  $n$ .

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Although we have not yet shown how to estimate a confidence interval, we already know that it depends on the standard error of the mean, a measure of how much sample means vary due to sampling.

Given that we almost never know the population standard deviation, we estimate it with the sample value based on the sample standard error:

$$\sigma_Y = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \quad \text{SE}_Y = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$\sigma_Y$  = the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of means (standard error);  $\sigma$  = the standard deviation of the population.

The standard error of the mean,  $SE_Y$ , estimates the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of the mean; that is, how much sample means are expected to vary around the true population mean across repeated samples. Remarkably, this quantity can be estimated from a single sample (a principle we will examine in detail in Tutorial 5).

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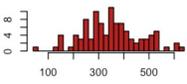
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How to calculate a "95% confidence interval" in practice:

$$SE_Y = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{114.2}{\sqrt{100}} = 11.42$$

$X = 351.5 \text{ cm}; s = 114.2 \text{ cm}$   $SE_Y$  estimates the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of the mean (uncertainty).



Based on this sample, we estimate that sample means typically differ from the true population value by about 11.42 cm due to sampling variability.

Confidence interval =  $351.5 \pm$   
**quantity** \* 11.42

Obviously, a different sample will generate a different estimate of this error.

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Sampling distribution of the mean, variance, standard deviation, and standard error obtained from the population (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), considering all possible samples drawn with replacement for sample sizes  $n = 2, 3, 4$ .

Obs 1	Obs 2	Sample mean	Mean - 3	(Mean - 3) <sup>2</sup>	Sample Var (n-1)	Sample SD (n-1)	Sample SD / 2
1	1	1.0	-2.0	4.00	0.000	0.000	0.000
1	2	1.5	-1.5	2.25	0.500	0.707	0.350
1	3	2.0	-1.0	1.00	2.000	1.414	1.000
1	4	2.5	-0.5	0.25	4.500	2.121	1.500
1	5	3.0	0.0	0.00	8.000	2.828	2.000
2	1	1.5	-1.5	2.25	0.500	0.707	0.350
2	2	2.0	-1.0	1.00	0.000	0.000	0.000
2	3	2.5	-0.5	0.25	0.500	0.707	0.350
2	4	3.0	0.0	0.00	2.000	1.414	1.000
2	5	3.5	0.5	0.25	4.500	2.121	1.500
3	1	2.0	-1.0	1.00	2.000	1.414	1.000
3	2	2.5	-0.5	0.25	0.500	0.707	0.350
3	3	3.0	0.0	0.00	0.000	0.000	0.000
3	4	3.5	0.5	0.25	0.500	0.707	0.350
3	5	4.0	1.0	1.00	2.000	1.414	1.000
4	1	2.5	-0.5	0.25	4.500	2.121	1.500
4	2	3.0	0.0	0.00	2.000	1.414	1.000
4	3	3.5	0.5	0.25	0.500	0.707	0.350
4	4	4.0	1.0	1.00	0.000	0.000	0.000
4	5	4.5	1.5	2.25	0.500	0.707	0.350
5	1	3.0	0.0	0.00	8.000	2.828	2.000
5	2	3.5	0.5	0.25	4.500	2.121	1.500
5	3	4.0	1.0	1.00	2.000	1.414	1.000
5	4	4.5	1.5	2.25	0.500	0.707	0.350
5	5	5.0	2.0	4.00	0.000	0.000	0.000

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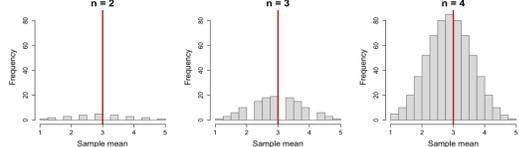
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Sampling distribution of the mean obtained from the population (1, 2, 3, 4, 5), considering all possible samples drawn with replacement for sample sizes  $n = 2, 3, 4$ .

True population mean = mean of sample means



One critical observation is that the mean of all possible sample means is exactly the population mean. This is important because it tells us that, on average, the sampling process is unbiased: repeated sampling does not systematically overestimate or underestimate the true population value.

Even though individual samples can yield means that are far from the population mean, especially when sample size is small, these deviations balance out across all possible samples.

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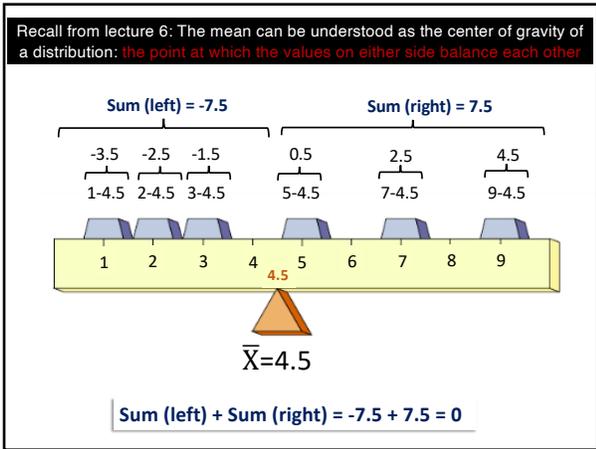
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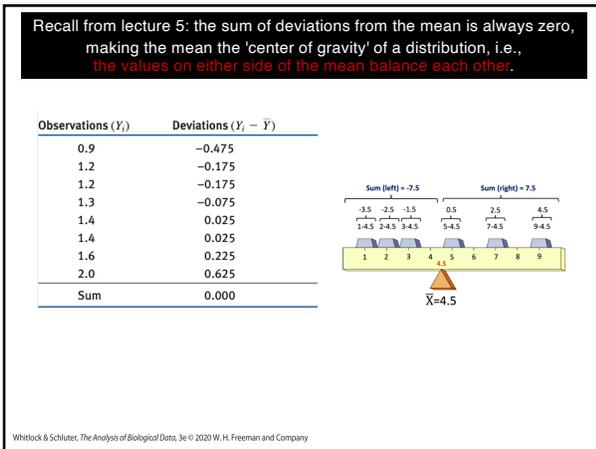
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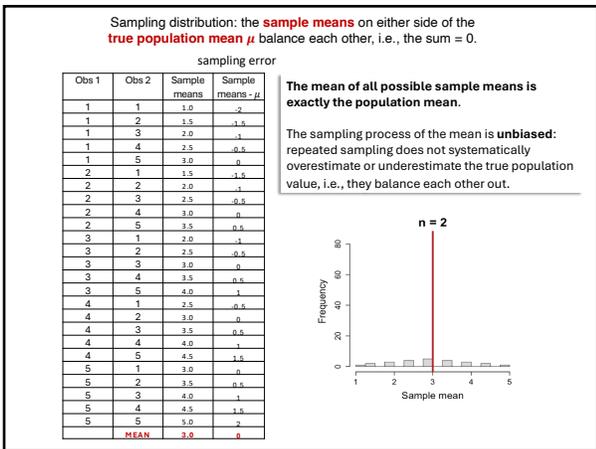
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The expected value ( $\mathbb{E}$ ) is the average of the sampling distribution; that is, the mean value we would obtain if we could repeat the sampling process indefinitely.

$\mathbb{E}(X) = \mu$       The expected value of the sample mean equals the population mean (unbiased).

$\mathbb{E}(s^2) = \sigma^2$       The expected value of the sample variance equals the population variance (biased).

$\mathbb{E}(s) \neq \sigma$       The expected value of the sample standard deviation IS NOT equal the population standard deviation (biased).

↓

$\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \neq \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$       The expected value of the sample standard error IS NOT equal the population standard error (biased).

$\mathbb{E}$  is called the expectation operator. It represents the theoretical long-run average of a random variable.

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Although we have not yet shown how to estimate a confidence interval, we already know that it depends on the standard error of the mean, a measure of how much sample means vary due to sampling.

Given that we almost never know the population standard deviation, we **ESTIMATE** it with the sample value based on the sample standard error:

$\sigma_Y = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$        $\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \neq \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$        $SE_Y = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$

*BIASED* (arrow pointing from  $\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}\right) \neq \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$  to  $\sigma_Y = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ )

↓ ?

*Confidence interval =  $X \pm$  quantity \*  $s_X$*

$\sigma_Y =$  **TRUE** standard deviation of the sampling distribution of means (standard error);  $\sigma =$  the standard deviation of the population.

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The logic behind confidence intervals before we see how the bias in the sample standard deviation is corrected and why that correction matters.




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A normal distribution is a continuous probability distribution in which probabilities are represented by areas under a symmetric bell-shaped curve, and fixed percentages of the total area lie within specific distances (measured in standard deviations) from the mean.

When the population is normal (or when the sample size is large enough), the sampling distribution of the mean is normally distributed, centered at  $\mu$ , with spread equal to the standard error  $\sigma/\sqrt{n}$ .

The graph shows a normal distribution curve centered at  $\mu$ . The x-axis is labeled with values:  $u^-$ ,  $2.58 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $1.96 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $0.99 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $0.99 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $1.96 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $2.58 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ , and  $u^+$ . The y-axis is labeled 'densities'. The area under the curve is divided into regions: 99% (yellow), 95% (green), 68% (blue), 68% (blue), 95% (green), and 99% (yellow).

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The sampling distribution of the sample mean is **normally distributed** when the **population standard deviation is known** and either the **population itself is normally distributed** or the **sample size is sufficiently large**. Knowledge of the population mean is not required to determine the shape of the sampling distribution.

The normal distribution is defined as a **probability density function (PDF)**.  
Probabilities are the area under the curve over an interval.

The normal distribution was described by Abraham de Moivre in 1733.

All possible sample means from a population with mean  $\mu$

The graph shows a normal distribution curve centered at  $\mu$ . The x-axis is labeled with values:  $u^-$ ,  $2.58 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $1.96 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $0.99 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $0.99 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $1.96 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $2.58 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ , and  $u^+$ . The y-axis is labeled 'densities'. The area under the curve is divided into regions: 99% (yellow), 95% (green), 68% (blue), 68% (blue), 95% (green), and 99% (yellow). A pyramid of 'X's is shown to the left of the curve, representing all possible sample means from a population with mean  $\mu$ .

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When the sampling distribution of the mean is normally distributed, 68% of all possible sample means lie within  $\pm 1.0$  standard error ( $\sigma/\sqrt{n}$ ) of the true population mean  $\mu$ .

When the sampling distribution of the mean is normally distributed, 95% of all possible sample means lie within  $\pm 1.96$  standard errors ( $\sigma/\sqrt{n}$ ) of the true population mean  $\mu$ .

When the sampling distribution of the mean is normally distributed, 99% of all possible sample means lie within  $\pm 2.576$  standard errors ( $\sigma/\sqrt{n}$ ) of the true population mean  $\mu$ .

The graph shows a normal distribution curve centered at  $\mu$ . The x-axis is labeled with values:  $u^-$ ,  $2.58 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $1.96 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $0.99 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $\mu$ ,  $0.99 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $1.96 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ ,  $2.58 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ , and  $u^+$ . The y-axis is labeled 'densities'. The area under the curve is divided into regions: 99% (yellow), 95% (green), 68% (blue), 68% (blue), 95% (green), and 99% (yellow).

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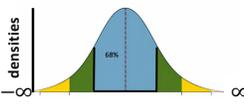
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The sampling distribution of the means goes from  $-\infty$  to  $\infty$

How many possible samples of 100 trees out of 100000 trees?  
**1e+15 (zeros)**

How many possible samples of 100 trees out of 1000000?  
**10768272362e+432 (zeros)**



The **human body** consists of some 37.2 trillion **cells** (3.72e+13 zeros)

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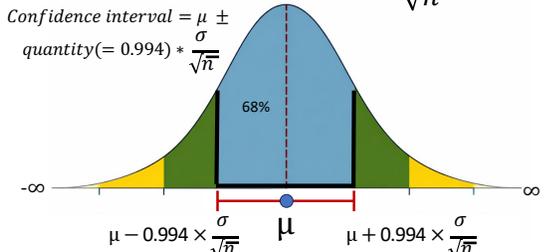
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68% of all possible sample means (i.e., 68% of the area under the sampling distribution of the mean) lies within  $\mu \pm 0.994 \times \sigma$ , i.e., there is a 68% probability that a randomly drawn sampling from a population with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  will be within  $0.994 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$  of the true mean, i.e., within the interval.

68% CI:  $\mu \pm 0.994 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

Confidence interval =  $\mu \pm$   
 quantity(= 0.994) \*  $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$




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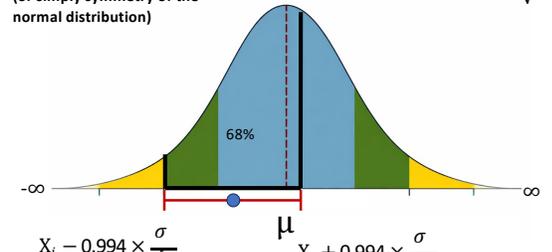
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68% of all possible sample means (i.e., 68% of the area under the sampling distribution of the mean) lies within  $X_i \pm 0.994 \times \sigma$ , i.e., there is a 68% probability that a randomly drawn sampling from a population with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$  will be within  $0.994 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$  of the true mean, i.e., within the interval.

Invariance of a pivotal quantity under algebraic rearrangement (or simply symmetry of the normal distribution)

68% CI:  $X_i \pm 0.994 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$




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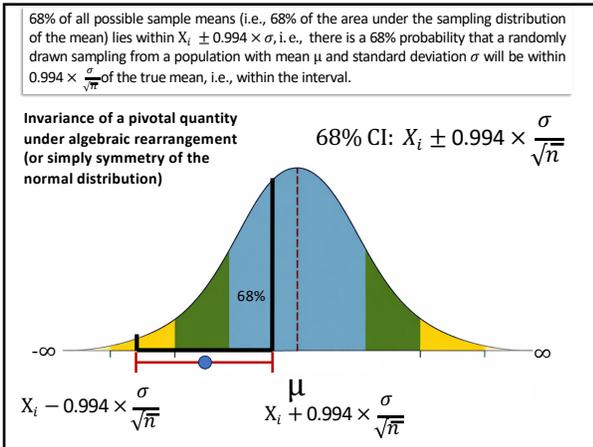
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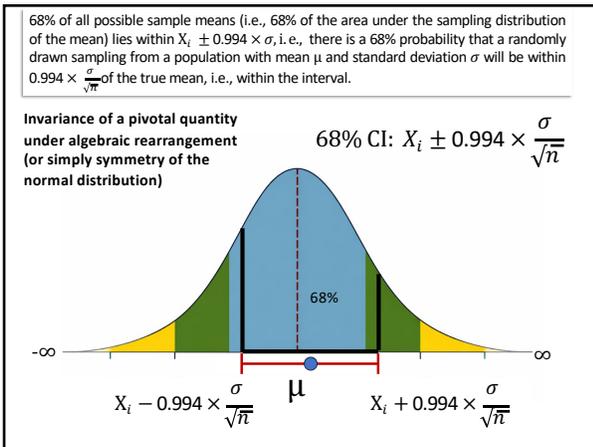
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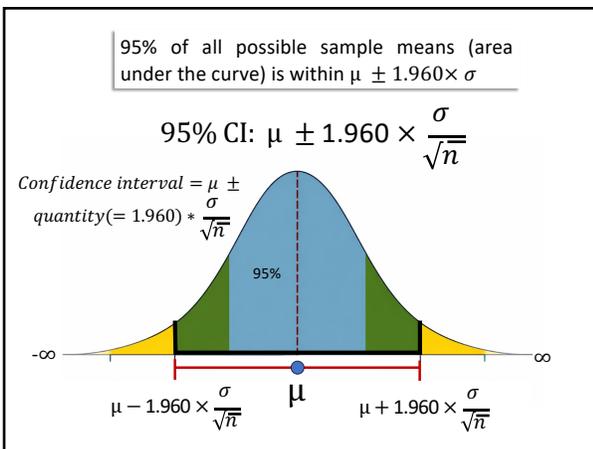
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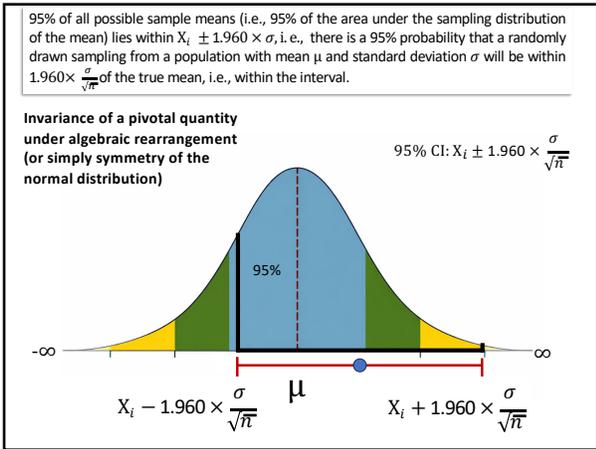
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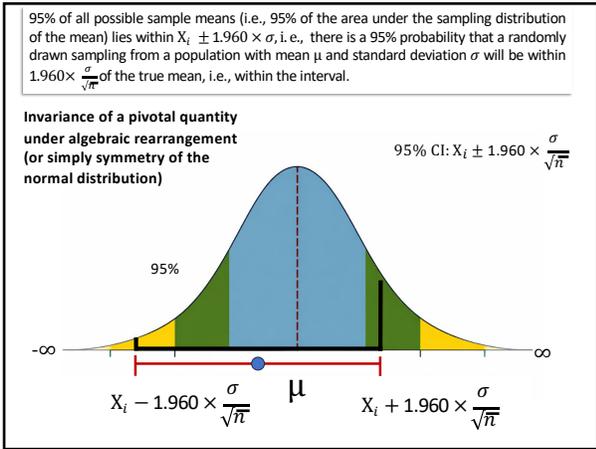
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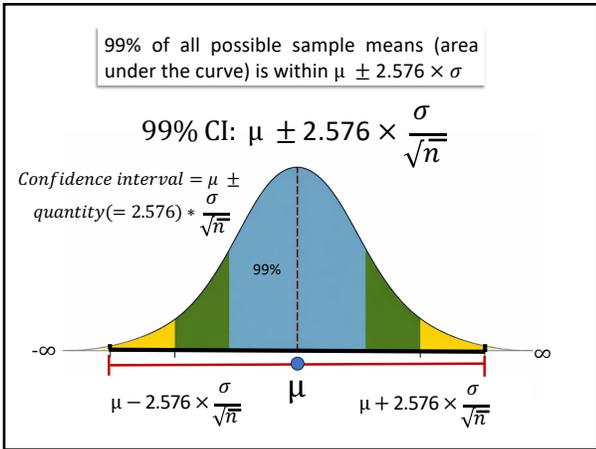
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**Now imagine the following computational approach (which is approximated with calculus in practice):**

- 1) We repeatedly (10,000,000) take samples of size  $n$  from a normally distributed population
- 2) For each sample, we calculate the sample mean  $\bar{X}_i$  the sample standard error of the mean  $s_{X_i} = \frac{s_i}{\sqrt{n}}$
- 3) We then subtract the sample  $\bar{X}_i$  by the population mean  $\mu$  and divide the result by the sample standard error of the mean.
- 4) Let's call this quantity the t value for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  sample:  $t_i = \frac{\bar{X}_i - \mu}{s_i / \sqrt{n}}$
- 5) Combine (pool) all 10,000,000 computed t-values, one from each generated sample, and plot their distribution as a probability density function (e.g., a histogram scaled to density or a smooth density curve). The resulting density is the t-distribution (with degrees of freedom (later in the course) =  $n-1$ , because  $s_i$  is estimated as:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}}$$


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The t-distribution - developed analytically by *student* (William Sealy Gosset) in 1908.

The diagram illustrates the process of deriving the t-distribution. It starts with a 'Normally Distributed Population' represented by a bell curve centered at  $\mu$ . 'Take random samples' are taken from this population, each represented by a small cluster of colored dots. For each sample, a t-value is calculated using the formula  $t_i = \frac{\bar{X}_i - \mu}{s_i / \sqrt{n}}$ . These individual t-values ( $t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, t_5$ ) are then pooled together to form the 't-distribution', which is shown as a histogram of t-values centered around 0.

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Some t-values are negative (when sample mean is smaller than the population mean  $\mu$ ) and others are positive (when sample mean is greater than  $\mu$ ).

What is the mean of the t-distribution?

The diagram shows a normal distribution on the left and a t-distribution on the right. The t-distribution is centered at 0, indicating that the mean of the t-distribution is 0.

Obs.1	Obs.2	Sample means	Sample means - $\mu$
1	1	1.0	-.2
1	2	1.5	-.15
1	3	2.0	-.1
1	4	2.5	-.05
1	5	3.0	0
2	1	3.5	-.15
2	2	2.0	-.1
2	3	2.5	-.05
2	4	3.0	0
2	5	3.5	0.5
3	1	2.0	-.1
3	2	2.5	-.05
3	3	3.0	0
3	4	3.5	0.5
3	5	4.0	1
4	1	2.5	-.05
4	2	3.0	0
4	3	3.5	0.5
4	4	4.0	1
4	5	4.5	1.5
5	1	3.0	0
5	2	3.5	0.5
5	3	4.0	1
5	4	4.5	1.5
5	5	5.0	2
MEAN		3.0	0

Confidence interval =  $\mu \pm t * \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$

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We can also make the sampling distribution of means based on the population standard deviation be zero (i.e., centered around zero).

$z_i = \frac{\bar{x}_i - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$  Z-values

**Standard Normal Distribution**

Standard Normal Distribution  
0

$Confidence\ interval = \mu \pm Z * \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

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Because we subtract the true population mean, the t-statistic measures the deviation of the sample mean from  $\mu$ , regardless of the numerical value of  $\mu$ .

→ This removes location: the distribution is centered at zero.

Because we divide by the sample standard error  $\frac{s_i}{\sqrt{n}}$  the deviation is expressed in units of estimated variability.

→ This removes scale: the statistic becomes unit-free and comparable across populations.

What remains is a standardized quantity whose distribution depends only on sample size (or more precisely, degrees of freedom), not on  $\mu$  or  $\sigma$ .

The same t value (e.g.,  $\pm 2.365$  for  $df=7$ ) can be used regardless of whether  $\mu = 10, 100$ , or  $10,000$  or what the standard deviation is.

→ The t-distribution is UNIVERSAL and only varies as a function of sample size!

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47

The exact multiplier applied to the sample standard error to construct a 95% confidence interval depends on the sample size.

The sampling distribution of means that varies as a function of the sample size (here  $v = \text{degrees of freedom}; v = n - 1$ ) is t-distributed.

Sampling distribution of the mean  
(normally distributed – infinite sample sizes)

All intervals with the same width – single  $\sigma$

$XX\% \text{ CI: } \bar{x}_i \pm Z \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

$95\% \text{ CI (Z = 1.960): } \bar{x}_i \pm 1.960 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

Sampling distribution of the mean  
(t-distributed – non-infinite sample sizes)

Intervals differ in width – sample-based

$XX\% \text{ CI: } \bar{x}_i \pm t \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

$95\% \text{ CI: } \bar{x}_i \pm 2.37 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

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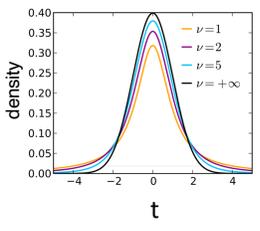
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48

The exact multiplier applied to the sample standard error to construct a 95% confidence interval depends on the sample size.

The sampling distribution of means that varies as a function of the sample size (here  $v = \text{degrees of freedom}$ ;  $v = n - 1$ ) is t-distributed.



$v = \infty \rightarrow t = z \rightarrow$  the t distribution becomes normally distributed when sample size is infinite.

95% CI:  $X_i \pm t_{df} \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

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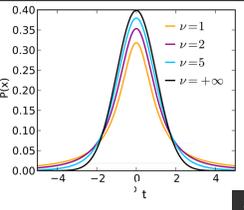
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49



$v = \infty \rightarrow t = z \rightarrow$  the t distribution becomes normally distributed when sample size is infinite.

95% CI:  $X_i \pm t_{df} \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

95% CI ( $Z = 1.960$ ):  $X_i \pm 1.960 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

df	95%	t	Difference from 1.96
5		2.571	+0.611
10		2.228	+0.268
20		2.086	+0.126
30		2.042	+0.082
50		2.009	+0.049
100		1.984	+0.024
$\infty$		1.960	0

Interval width

- 95% CI:  $X_i \pm 2.571 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$
- 95% CI:  $X_i \pm 2.086 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$
- 95% CI:  $X_i \pm 2.009 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$
- 95% CI:  $X_i \pm 1.960 \times \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$

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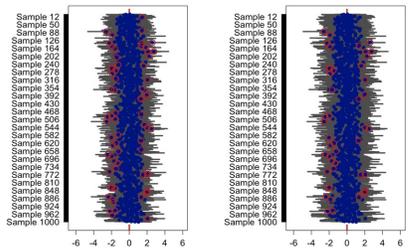
50

When based on the wrong distribution (normal), more than 5% of the sampled based CI will fail 5% to contain the true population mean; but the t-based CIs will be

$E[\text{width}_{CF,1}] < E[\text{width}_{CF,2}]$

2. Confidence interval =  $\mu \pm 1.960 \times \frac{S_i}{\sqrt{n}}$

1. Confidence interval =  $\mu \pm t \times \frac{S_i}{\sqrt{n}}$




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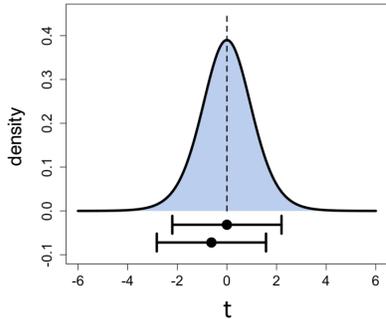
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And we can still plot the confidence interval around the sample and around the population value (0) for the t-based confidence interval. The true population value in the t-distribution is always zero (due to centering - see previous slides).




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52

Let's take a power break – 1 minute




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53

How to find the appropriate values of t?

the old days of tables allow to understand the principle – in practice (today) we use software (e.g., R).

Degrees of freedom (n-1)	Two-sided	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	95%	98%	99%	99.5%	99.8%	99.9%
1	1.000	1.376	1.963	3.078	6.314	12.71	31.82	63.66	127.3	318.3	636.6	
2	0.816	1.080	1.386	1.886	2.920	4.303	6.965	9.925	14.09	22.33	31.80	
3	0.765	0.978	1.250	1.638	2.353	3.182	4.541	5.841	7.453	10.21	12.92	
4	0.741	0.941	1.190	1.533	2.132	2.776	3.747	4.604	5.598	7.173	8.610	
5	0.727	0.920	1.156	1.476	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032	4.773	5.853	6.869	
6	0.718	0.906	1.134	1.440	1.943	2.447	3.143	3.707	4.317	5.208	5.959	
7	0.711	0.896	1.119	1.415	1.895	2.365	2.998	3.499	4.029	4.785	5.408	
8	0.706	0.889	1.108	1.397	1.880	2.306	2.896	3.355	3.833	4.501	5.041	
9	0.703	0.883	1.100	1.383	1.873	2.282	2.871	3.250	3.690	4.297	4.781	
10	0.700	0.879	1.093	1.372	1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169	3.581	4.144	4.587	
11	0.697	0.876	1.088	1.363	1.796	2.201	2.716	3.106	3.497	4.025	4.437	
12	0.695	0.873	1.083	1.356	1.782	2.179	2.681	3.055	3.428	3.930	4.318	

Assume a sample size of  $n = 9$ , then the degrees of freedom would be 8 for the t value to calculate the confidence interval for the sample mean.

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n - 1}}$$

$$\bar{X}_i \pm t_v \frac{s_i}{\sqrt{n}} \therefore X_i \pm 2.306 \frac{s_i}{\sqrt{9}}$$

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Let's consider a biological example: The stalk-eyed fly – the span in millimeters of nine male individuals are as follows:

8.69 8.15 9.25 9.45 8.96 8.65 8.43 8.79 8.63 n=9 flies

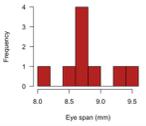
Let's estimate the **95%** confidence interval for the population mean of eyes spans:

$\bar{X} = 8.778$   $s = 0.398$

$SE_{\bar{X}} = \frac{0.398}{\sqrt{9}} = 0.133$

$t_{0.05(2),8} = 2.306$

$\bar{X} - 2.306 \times 0.133 < \mu < \bar{X} + 2.306 \times 0.133$   
 $8.47 \text{ mm} < \mu < 9.08 \text{ mm}$





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In practice (modern days), we use software

$\bar{X} = 8.778$   $s = 0.398$  Let's estimate the **95%** confidence interval for the population mean of eyes spans:

$SE_{\bar{X}} = \frac{0.398}{\sqrt{9}} = 0.133$

$t_{0.05(2),8} = 2.306$

$\bar{X} - 2.306 \times 0.133 < \mu < \bar{X} + 2.306 \times 0.133$   
 $8.47 \text{ mm} < \mu < 9.08 \text{ mm}$



```
> t.test(stalkie$eyespan, conf.level = 0.95)$conf.int
[1] 8.471616 9.083940
attr(,"conf.level")
[1] 0.95
```

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In practice (modern days), we use software

$\bar{Y} = 8.778$   $s = 0.398$  Let's estimate the **99%** confidence interval for the population mean of eyes spans:

$SE_{\bar{Y}} = \frac{0.398}{\sqrt{9}} = 0.133$

$t_{0.05(2),8} = 3.355$

$\bar{Y} - 3.355 \times 0.133 < \mu < \bar{Y} + 3.355 \times 0.133$   
 $8.33 \text{ mm} < \mu < 9.22 \text{ mm}$



```
> t.test(stalkie$eyespan, conf.level = 0.99)$conf.int
[1] 8.332292 9.223264
attr(,"conf.level")
[1] 0.99
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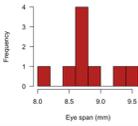
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Comparing the two intervals, the implications for precision depend on the biological context and the level of certainty required. In practice, we most often report the 95% confidence interval, which provides a balance between coverage and precision—offering less coverage than a 99% interval but greater precision (narrower width).

95% confidence interval:  $8.47 \text{ mm} < \mu < 9.08 \text{ mm}$   
 99% confidence interval:  $8.33 \text{ mm} < \mu < 9.22 \text{ mm}$





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Confidence intervals can be used in many situations; e.g., decision making

The optimal average body length for a healthy brook trout population is 24 cm or greater. According to management policy, if the true population mean length is below 24 cm, the lake must be closed to fishing.

At the beginning of the fishing season, a government biologist surveys a heavily exploited lake, where strict regulation is particularly important. The biologist captures, anesthetizes, and measures 200 brook trout. The sample mean length is 21.3 cm, with a sample standard deviation of 3.2 cm.

**Should the lake be opened for fishing?**

$$Y \pm t \times SE_{Y_s} \therefore 21.2 \pm 1.971957 \times \frac{3.2}{\sqrt{200}} = 21.2 \pm 0.4462$$

20.8cm     $\bar{X}=21.2\text{cm}$     21.6cm  


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