

# Estimation: Understanding confidence interval

▲ Cook, A Sheik

## INTRODUCTION

The previous paper of this series described hypothesis testing, showing how a p-value indicates the likelihood of a genuine difference existing between two or more groups. An alternative to using p-value alone, to show whether or not differences exist, is to report the actual size of the difference. Since a difference observed between groups is subject to random variation it becomes necessary to present not only the difference, but also a range of values around the observed difference within which it is believed the true value will lie. Such a range is known as a confidence interval

Confidence intervals may be calculated for means, proportions, differences between means or proportions, relative risks, odds ratios and many other summary statistics. Here we describe in detail one simple calculation, that of a confidence interval for a proportion. Using examples from the literature we look at the interpretation of other confidence intervals, and show the relationship between p-value and confidence intervals

## VALUES ALONE ARE NOT ENOUGH

P-values express statistical significance, but statistically significant results may have little clinical significance. This is particularly the case with large studies that have power to detect very small differences. For example, an improvement in average peak flow of 1 l/min, when comparing intervention and control groups, may be statistically significant but clearly has little clinical benefit

A further drawback of p-values is the emphasis placed on  $p=0.05$ , a value chosen purely by convention which has spawned a tendency to dismiss anything larger and focus attention on smaller values only. B

Presenting instead a confidence interval, one requires the reader to think about what the values actually mean, thus interpreting the results more fully

## CALCULATING THE CONFIDENCE INTERVAL FOR A PROPORTION

Kaur *et al* carried out a prevalence study of asthma symptoms and diagnosis in British 12-14 year olds. From a sample of 27,507 children, 20.8% ( $n=5,736$ ) reported 'ever having' asthma. Assuming the sample to be representative, the true national prevalence should be close to this figure, but it remains unknown and a different sample would probably yield a slightly different estimate. To calculate a range likely to contain the true figure, we need to know by how much the sample proportion is likely to vary. Put more technically, we need to know the standard deviation of the sample statistic. This is known as the standard error

One way of finding the standard error would be to take several more samples, calculate the proportion 'ever having' asthma separately in each sample, then calculate the standard deviation of these proportions. Fortunately, such labour is unnecessary because it has been shown that most summary statistics follow normal distributions, particularly when sample size is large. Furthermore, the standard deviations of these distributions are directly related to the standard deviation of the original data. The situation is illustrated in Figure 1, which shows a possible distribution of data, together with the expected distribution of mean values generated by data samples

With data from a normally distributed variable, 95% of observations should lie within two standard deviations of the mean. Having said that a sample statistic is expected to be normally distributed, it

Adrian Cook  
Statistician

Aziz Sheik  
NHS R&D National Primary  
Care Training Fellow  
Department of Primary Health  
Care & General Practice  
Imperial College School of  
Medicine

Correspondence to  
Adrian Cook  
Department of Primary Health  
Care & General Practice  
ICSM Charing Cross Campus  
Reynolds Building  
St Dunstan's Road,  
London, W6 8R  
k.d.cook@ic.ac.uk

Date submitted: 19/7/0  
Date accepted: 17/10/0

Prim Care Respir J 2000  
9(8): 48-5

Figure 1. Expected distribution of a sample mean

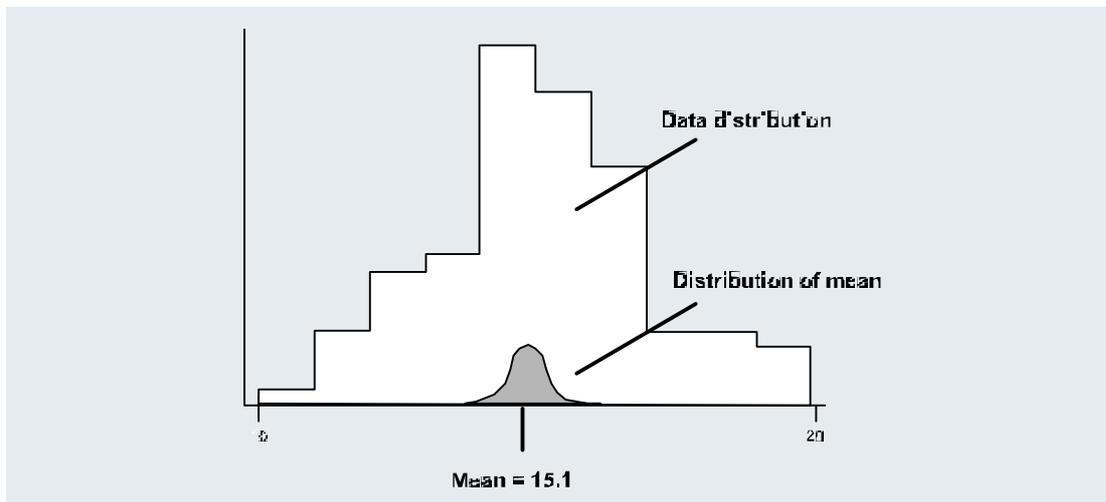


Table 1. Formulae for calculating standard error

Summary statistic	Formula	Symbol	Standard error (SE)
Mean	$\frac{\sum x}{n}$	$\bar{x}$	$\frac{s(x)}{\sqrt{n}}$
Proportion	$\frac{\text{cases}}{\text{cases} + \text{noncases}}$	p	$\sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}$
Difference in mean	$\frac{\sum x_1}{n_1} - \frac{\sum x_2}{n_2}$	$\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2$	$\sqrt{\frac{s(x_1)^2}{n_1} + \frac{s(x_2)^2}{n_2}}$
Difference in proportion	$\frac{\text{cases}_1}{\text{cases}_1 + \text{noncases}_1} - \frac{\text{cases}_2}{\text{cases}_2 + \text{noncases}_2}$	$p_1 - p_2$	$\sqrt{\frac{p_1(1-p_1)}{n_1} + \frac{p_2(1-p_2)}{n_2}}$
Relative risk	$\frac{\text{cases}_1 / (\text{cases}_1 + \text{noncases}_1)}{\text{cases}_2 / (\text{cases}_2 + \text{noncases}_2)}$	R	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{\text{cases}_1} - \frac{1}{\text{cases}_1 + \text{noncases}_1} + \frac{1}{\text{cases}_2} - \frac{1}{\text{cases}_2 + \text{noncases}_2}}$ *
Odds ratio	$\frac{\text{cases}_1 / \text{noncases}_1}{\text{cases}_2 / \text{noncases}_2}$	R	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{\text{cases}_1} + \frac{1}{\text{noncases}_1} + \frac{1}{\text{cases}_2} + \frac{1}{\text{noncases}_2}}$ *

\*Standard error of the logged statistic

follows that on 95% of occasions it will be less than two standard errors from its true value. The probability of the range formed by the sample statistic plus or minus two standard errors containing the true value is therefore 95%. This range is the 95% confidence interval. Formulae for the standard error of common summary statistics are in Table 1, those for other statistics are usually readily available in textbooks. For the example of asthma prevalence, the standard error can be calculated as 0.25% giving a 95% confidence interval of 20.3% to 21.3%. The narrowness of this confidence interval reflects the large sample size, illustrating how certainty in a result grows as the number of observations increase, resulting in smaller standard errors and narrower confidence intervals

**INTERPRETING CONFIDENCE INTERVAL FOR RELATIVE RISK**

Wald and Watt compared all-cause mortality among different types of smoker with that of lifelong non-smokers. Compared to non-smokers, the relative risk (RR) of mortality among former cigarette smokers was 1.11 (95% confidence interval 0.92 to 1.34). The best estimate of the effect on mortality is an increase of 11%, RR=1.11, but the possibility of no effect (RR=1.0) remains. Among current smokers the relative mortality was 2.26 (95% confidence interval 1.9 to 2.58). This confidence interval does not include RR=1.0 and so we can be confident that mortality is higher among current smokers

Among pipe and cigar smokers who had never smoked cigarettes, mortality compared to non-smoker was 1.23 (95% confidence interval 0.99 to 1.75). Relative mortality is higher than that of ex-smokers but the confidence interval is much wider. The greater width is partly due to the pipe/cigar group being smaller than the ex-smokers group, one more or one fewer death thus has a greater effect on mortality and the wider confidence interval reflects the less stable result

**CONFIDENCE INTERVALS AND P-**

It may have become apparent that the statistical significance of differences can be gleaned from confidence intervals. A confidence interval containing 1.0 for a relative risk or an odds ratio means we are less than 95% sure that a genuine difference exists, a significance test of the difference would thus give p>0.05. Similarly a confidence interval not including 1.0 corresponds to p<0.05, while an interval bounded at one end by 1.0 exactly would give p=0.05. A similar situation exists with confidence intervals for differences in means or proportions, the only difference being that no effect is represented by the value 0.0, rather than 1.0

The practice of reporting confidence intervals together with p-values is questionable, p-values adding little information for the informed reader. An exception to this rule occurs when a large number of confidence intervals are reported, in this instance the generally discouraged habit of replacing p-values with stars indicating p<0.05 and p<0.01 becomes useful, allowing a rapid overview of results to be made

**CONCLUSION**

Here we have outlined the theory and practice of calculating confidence intervals, and give pointers toward their meaningful interpretation

Table 2. Relative all-cause mortality of different smoking group

Smoking group	n	die	R †	95% C
Lifelong non-smoke	653	64	0.0	
Former cigarette smoke	546	26	1.1	0.92 to 1.3
Pipe/cigar smoke never smoked cigarette	930	31	3.2	0.99 to 1.7
Current cigarette smoke	218	64	2.2	1.97 to 2.5

†Adjusted for age at entry to stud

Clinical significance may be gauged both from the point estimate of the difference, and consideration of the confidence limit's upper and lower bounds. Whether or not a confidence interval contains unity for a relative difference, or zero for an absolute difference reveals statistical significance. Because they convey both aspects of significance, confidence intervals have become the strongly preferred way of presenting results.

### Acknowledgement

AS is supported by an NHS R&D National Primary Care Training Fellowship

### Recommended reading

Gardner MJ, Altman DG. *Statistics with confidence*. London: BMJ, 1993

### Reference

1. Kaur B, Ross Anderson H, Austin J *et al*. Prevalence of asthma symptoms, diagnosis, and treatment in 12-14 year old children across Great Britain (international study of asthma and allergies in childhood, ISAAC UK). *BMJ* 1998; **317**:118-24
2. Wald NJ, Watt HC. Prospective study of effect of switching from cigarettes to pipes or cigars on mortality from three smoking related diseases. *BMJ* 1997; **315**:1860-3

## Erratum

In the June 2000 issue of the *Primary Care Respiratory Journal*, reference: Cropper JA, Frank TL, Fran PI, Hannaford PC. Primary care workload and prescribing costs in children. The impact of respiratory symptoms. *Prim Care Respir* 2000; **9**(1):8-11. The table should read as follows

**Table 2: Percentage of children having at least one consultation or prescription in primary care by positive response**

	Positive response category				χ <sup>2</sup> test for linear trend <sup>a</sup>	p value <sup>a</sup>
	0	1-2	3	4		
Total in each group	56	76	29	98		
Total surgery consultation	92.7	98.8	96.4	98.4	0.8	0.02
Lower respiratory consultation	29.1	37.7	64.0	77.3	206.0	<0.00
Upper respiratory consultation	51.5	59.8	72.4	74.1	25.2	<0.00
Non-respiratory consultation	89.1	93.4	96.1	93.7	7.2	0.25
Total home visit	34.5	46.1	52.1	55.0	53.9	0.00
Lower respiratory home visit	36.0	54	78.2	83.3	62.9	<0.00
Upper respiratory home visit	18.8	26.3	33.8	32.3	20.2	0.00
Non-respiratory home visit	18.2	24.5	23.4	27.5	9.8	0.16
Unknown cause home visit	48	48	10.4	10.1	6.3	0.03
Total number of prescription	81.2	91.6	92.7	97.4	25.	<0.00
Non-respiratory prescription	70.3	83.2	82.3	86.2	11.4	0.00
Respiratory prescription	67.3	72.4	86.4	93.6	80.1	<0.00
BNF 3 1 <sup>b</sup> prescription	91	93.7	90	85.1	568.6	<0.00
BNF 3 2 <sup>c</sup> prescription	18	36	20.3	39.7	412.8	<0.00
BNF 5 1 <sup>d</sup> prescription	55.7	61.1	76.0	83.1	58.1	<0.00
BNF 6 3 <sup>e</sup> prescription	06	0	83	90	25.5	<0.00

<sup>a</sup>Calculated using discrete positive response values; <sup>b</sup>bronchodilators; <sup>c</sup>inhaled steroids  
<sup>d</sup>antibiotics; <sup>e</sup>oral steroid