



Università di Pisa
Dipartimento di Statistica e Matematica
Applicata all'Economia

Report n. 296

Strange phenomena in the most basic inferential
procedure: interval estimation for a binominal proportion.

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Pisa, luglio 2007
- Stampato in proprio -

Strange phenomena in the most basic inferential procedure: interval estimation for a binomial proportion

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Abstract

One of the most basic procedure in statistical inference is the construction of a confidence interval for an estimated proportion. Usually this task is performed by the so-called "standard interval" or "Wald interval", which is built adding and subtracting a certain quantity from the estimate, as it is taught in every elementary course of statistics.

However, the more recent statistical literature has revealed that the standard interval presents a serious problem: its actual coverage probability level is usually far from the nominal level, also when the estimated proportion is next to 0.5 or the sample size is large. This problem has also other consequences: indeed, a standard tool for the determination of the sample size n is based on the inversion of the Wald interval.

For these reasons, many authors have studied some alternative confidence intervals which try to solve, in different ways, the problem of the Wald interval.

1 Introduction

The estimation of a proportion is the most basic inferential problem. A main use of the estimated proportions is as the base for the determination of the sample size of a new survey.

For example, let us consider a serological survey, i.e. a survey aimed to estimate the seroprevalence (proportion of seropositive) for a certain infection, e.g. measles, in a given population by a sample of human blood specimens, usually stratified by age. See, for example, Farrington (1990) [7].

In some cases, for example, measles and varicella in the pre-vaccination era, seroprevalence ranges from values close to 0 in the youngest age groups to values close to 1 in the older age groups. Since the cost for every specimen of blood to be analysed can be high, it is necessary to determine a minimum sample size for every age groups¹. For this reason we need a method that, given a fixed "nominal" coverage probability level and a fixed total size of error (usually chosen by the researcher), determines the minimum sample size. Usually the method consists in the inversion of a confidence interval. An example is the following well-known formula, from the "standard" or "Wald" interval:

$$n = \frac{4z_{\alpha/2}^2 \hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi})}{A^2}, \quad (1)$$

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¹This determination is driven by the proportions estimated in previous surveys.

where A is the total size of error, i.e. the difference between the upper bound and the lower bound of the interval. In some textbooks this formula is accompanied by the caveat that the event should not be rare, e.g. $0.2 < \hat{\pi} < 0.8$. However, as we will see afterwards, this assumption is not sufficient, since the standard interval has a lot of problems also when $\hat{\pi}$ is next to 0.5.

1.1 The coverage probability of a confidence interval

The main criterion to judge the goodness of a confidence interval is its actual coverage probability level. Generally, when constructing an interval, we wish the actual coverage probability $C(\pi, n)$ be close to the nominal confidence level $1 - \alpha$. Because of the discrete nature of the binomial distribution, we can never achieve the exact nominal confidence level unless a randomized procedure is used. Thus our objective is to construct nonrandomized confidence intervals (CI) for π such that the coverage probability is:

$$C(\pi, n) = Pr(CI \text{ contains } \pi) \approx 1 - \alpha, \quad (2)$$

where α is the prespecified significance level.

As previously anticipated, the most used confidence interval for the proportion, the "standard interval" or "Wald interval", is not a good interval because it fails in almost every situation in reaching an actual coverage probability which is at least at the level $1 - \alpha$ (Brown *et al.*, 2001 [11]). For this reason, the recent literature has introduced some alternative confidence intervals that solve the problems of the Wald interval.

In this paper we first review the drawbacks of the standard interval as evidenced in the recent statistical literature, trying to give a reason for them, and the corresponding remedies. Second, we show the importance of these achievements in the design of sample surveys with an illustration on seroprevalence surveys demonstrating that alternative solutions can provide much more reliable results in important problems. In Sec. 2 we show the problems of the Wald interval. In Sec. 3 we introduce the alternative confidence intervals. In Sec. 4 we report the illustration on seroprevalence surveys. Concluding remarks follow.

2 The Wald interval and its shortcomings

The Wald interval for the proportion π is based on a normal approximation and is obtained by inverting the acceptance region of the *Wald large-sample normal test* (Wald, 1943 [2]). The latter has the general form:

$$\text{Accept } H_0: \hat{\theta}: \left| \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{\hat{se}(\hat{\theta})} \right| \leq z_{\alpha/2}, \quad (3)$$

where θ is a generic parameter, $\hat{\theta}$ is an estimate of θ and $\hat{se}(\hat{\theta})$ is the estimated standard error of $\hat{\theta}$. In the binomial case, if we want to test whether the estimate $\hat{\pi} = X/n$ (where X is the number of successes) is significantly equal to π , we have:

$$\text{Accept } H_0: \hat{\theta}: \left| \frac{\frac{X}{n} - \pi}{\sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})}{n}}} \right| \leq z_{\alpha/2}. \quad (4)$$

By inverting 4, the standard CI is

$$CI_S = \hat{\pi} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})}{n}}. \quad (5)$$

This CI is usually presented along with some justification based on the Central Limit Theorem.

However this CI has some serious problems: contrary to the common wisdom, its actual coverage probability $C(\pi, n)$ is often far from the nominal coverage probability level $1 - \alpha$, even when n is large or π is far from 0 or 1. It happens that $C(\pi, n)$ of the Wald CI contains nonnegligible oscillation as both π and n vary. Brown *et al.* (2001) [11] show that there exist both "lucky" pairs (π, n) (such that $C(\pi, n)$ is very close to or larger than the nominal level $1 - \alpha$) and "unlucky" ones (π, n) (such that $C(\pi, n)$ is much smaller than the nominal level).

The next examples show the inadequacy of the standard interval.

Fig. 1 plots the coverage probability of the nominal 95% standard interval for $\pi = 0.5$. The sample size n varies from 25 to 100. It is clear from the plot that the coverage probability does not steadily approach the nominal confidence level as n increases and, moreover, the oscillation is significant. For instance, $C(0.2, 31) = 0.948$ and $C(0.2, 98) = 0.923$, so the coverage probability is significantly closer to 0.95 when $n = 31$ than when $n = 98$. It is noticeable that increasing the sample size n does not improve the actual coverage probability, as it occurs with inconsistent estimators!

Fig. 2 shows the coverage probability of the nominal 95% standard interval with fixed $n = 100$ and variable π from 0 to 1, with step 0.005. We see that, in spite of the "large" sample size, significant change in coverage probability occurs at the varying of π . Only for values belonging to the interval $[0.2, 0.8]$, the actual coverage probability level is close to the nominal 95%, even though it is often lower.

Anyway, we can observe from Fig. 2 that, about the question of the factors influencing mostly the convergence of the binomial to the normal distribution, it is more important the quickness to the convergence, which reaches its maximum at $\pi = 0.5$, than the small variance of the estimator.

The previous examples exhibit that the actual coverage probability of the Wald interval can differ significantly from the nominal confidence level for moderate and even large sample sizes and not only when π is near 0 or 1. There are two kinds of problems in the coverage probability of the standard interval: firstly, a systematic negative bias, that is the actual coverage probability level tends to be systematically lower than the nominal level; secondly, an oscillatory behaviour for any values of n and π .

2.1 The reason for the bias

The bias arises from the use of a central interval for a discrete skewed distribution, meaning, among other things, that the standard interval has the "wrong" center (Brown *et al.*, 2001 [11]). The Wald interval is centered at $\hat{\pi} = X/n$. Although $\hat{\pi}$ is the maximum-likelihood estimate and an unbiased estimate of π , the choice of using it as the center of a confidence interval causes a systematic negative bias in the coverage. As we will see later on with the alternative confidence intervals, by suitably recentering the interval one can increase the coverage probability significantly for π away from 0 or 1 and almost always eliminate the bias.

We know, from the Central Limit Theorem, that

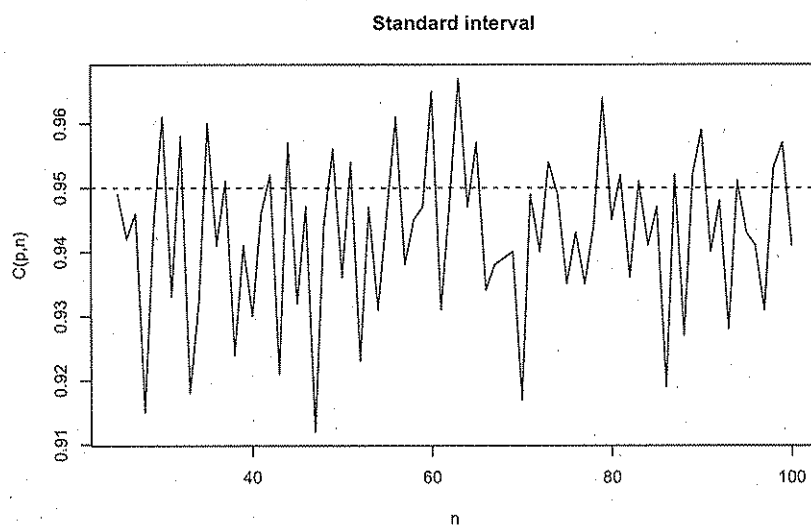


Figure 1: Standard interval: oscillations of the actual coverage probability level for fixed $\pi = 0.5$, variable sample size $n=25$ to 100 and nominal CP at 95% (dashed line).

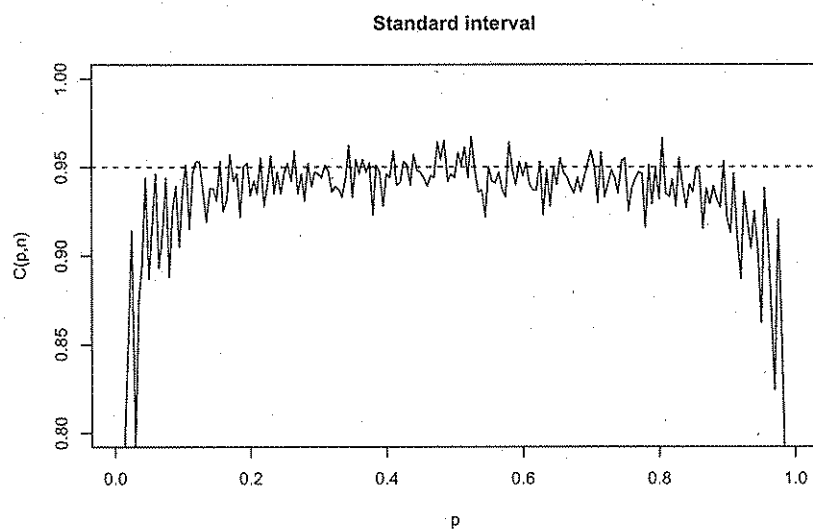


Figure 2: Standard interval: oscillations of the actual coverage probability level for fixed $n = 100$, variable π and nominal CP at 95% (dashed line).

$$Z_n = \frac{n^{1/2}(\hat{\pi} - \pi)}{\sqrt{\pi(1-\pi)}} \sim N(0, 1). \quad (6)$$

The standard interval is based on the hypothesis that the Wald test W_n is asymptotically standard normally distributed:

$$W_n = \frac{n^{1/2}(\hat{\pi} - \pi)}{\sqrt{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})}} \sim N(0, 1). \quad (7)$$

The problem lies in the difference between Z_n and W_n : we assume that using $\hat{\pi}$ rather than π makes little difference, i.e. the distribution of W_n is the same of Z_n , whereas this is not all.

Let us compare with the case of the Wald test applied to the sampling mean \bar{x} . The variable Z_n is

$$Z_n = \frac{n^{1/2}(\bar{x} - \mu)}{\sigma} \sim N(0, 1); \quad (8)$$

the respective Wald test W_n is:

$$W_n = \frac{n^{1/2}(\bar{x} - \mu)}{\sqrt{s^2}}, \quad (9)$$

where $s^2 = \sum_i (x_i - \bar{x})^2 / (n - 1)$ is the correct sampling variance. In this case, we know the distribution of W_n : it is t -distributed with $n - 1$ degrees of freedom and approximates the Normal for $n > 20$.

By this comparison we can see that, what happens for the variance s , whose distribution is known, does not occur for $\hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi})$, whose distribution is unknown.

Instead, even for quite large values of n , the actual distribution of W_n in the binomial case is significantly nonnormal (Brown *et al.*, 2001 [11]). Thus, the very premise on which the standard interval is based is seriously compromised for moderate and even quite large values of n . In particular, for moderate n , however, the deviations of the bias, variance, skewness and kurtosis of W_n from their respective asymptotic values are often significant and cause a nonnegligible negative bias in the coverage probability of the standard confidence interval, so that the actual coverage $C(p, n)$ rarely reaches the nominal coverage $1 - \alpha$.

We can analytically demonstrate the bias in the distribution of W_n . Let us write W_n in function of Z_n :

$$W_n(Z_n) = \frac{Z_n}{\sqrt{1 + (1 - 2\pi)Z_n / \sqrt{n\pi(1-\pi)} - Z_n^2/n}}. \quad (10)$$

A standard Taylor expansion and formulas for central moments of the binomial distribution yield the following approximation to the bias (Brown *et al.*, 2002, p. 166 [12]):

$$E[W_n(Z_n)] \approx \frac{\pi - 1/2}{\sqrt{n\pi(1-\pi)}} \left(1 + \frac{7}{2n} + \frac{9(\pi - 1/2)^2}{2n\pi(1-\pi)} \right). \quad (11)$$

It can be seen from Eq. 11 and from Fig. 3 that W_n has negative bias for $\pi < 0.5$, positive bias for $\pi > 0.5$ and no bias for $\pi = 0.5$. Also from the observation of the plot of the first derivative of $E[W_n]$ with respect to p , it is possible understand its behaviour:

From Fig. 4, we can see that the first derivative of $E[W_n]$ gets closer to 0 (without never reaching it) when p is near 1/2.

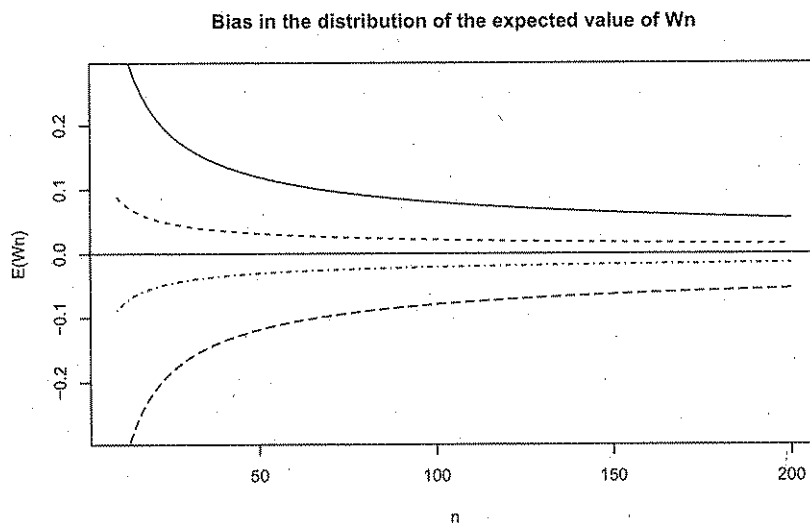


Figure 3: Wald interval: expected value of W_n for distinct π values (starting from the top, $\pi_1 = 0.8, \pi_2 = 0.6, \pi_3 = 0.4, \pi_4 = 0.2$)

Therefore, temporary ignoring the oscillation effect, one can expect to increase the coverage probability by shifting the center of the standard interval towards $1/2$, for which $E[W_n] = 0$.

2.2 The reason for the oscillation

In addition to the bias, the actual coverage probability of Wald interval oscillates in a significant way near the nominal coverage. The latter phenomenon comes from two sources: *discreteness* and *skewness* in the underlying binomial distribution. For a two-sided interval, the error due to discreteness is asymptotically dominant: it is of the order $1/\sqrt{n}$ and decreases when n increases (Brown *et al.*, 2002 [12]). On the contrary, the error due to skewness is secondary and is of the order $1/n$ (minor than $1/\sqrt{n}$), but still important for even moderately large n . The oscillation in the coverage probability is therefore caused mainly by the discrete nature of the binomial distribution, more precisely by the interlaced structure of the binomial distribution.

Following again Brown *et al.* (2002) [12], let us try to understand at a more intuitive level why the coverage probability oscillates so significantly. By an easy calculation, one can show that the coverage probability $C(\pi, n) = Pr(\pi \in CI_s)$ equals $Pr(L_{\pi, n} \leq X \leq U_{\pi, n})$, where $L_{\pi, n}$ is the smallest integer larger than or equal to

$$\frac{n(\kappa^2 + 2n\pi) - \kappa n \sqrt{\kappa^2 + 4n\pi(1 - \pi)}}{2(\kappa^2 + n)}, \quad (12)$$

and $U_{\pi, n}$ is the largest integer smaller than or equal to

$$\frac{n(\kappa^2 + 2n\pi) + \kappa n \sqrt{\kappa^2 + 4n\pi(1 - \pi)}}{2(\kappa^2 + n)}. \quad (13)$$

What happens is that a small change in n or π can cause $L_{\pi, n}$ and/or $U_{\pi, n}$ to leap to the next integer value. For example, take the case $\pi = 0.5$ and $\alpha = 0.05$. When $n = 39$, we have

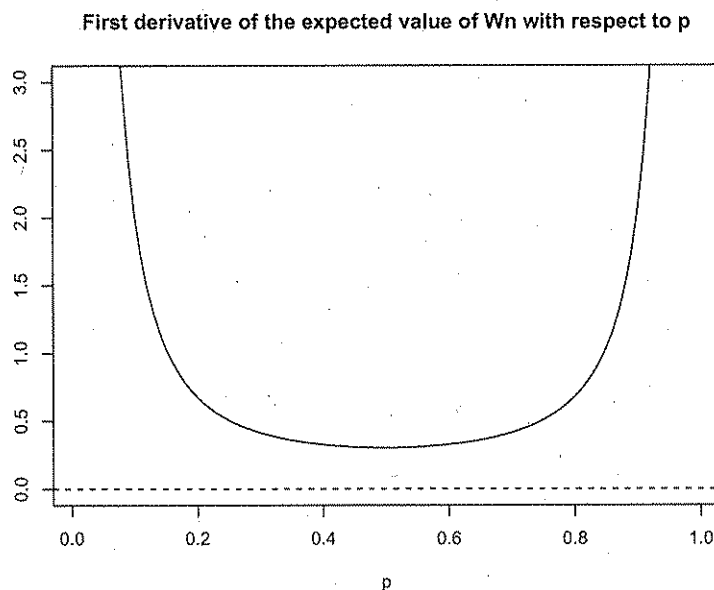


Figure 4: First derivative of $E[W_n]$ with respect to π

$L_{0.5,39} = 14$ and $U_{0.5,39} = 25$; but when $n = 40$, $L_{0.5,40}$ leaps to 15, while $U_{0.5,39}$ remains 25. Thus the set of favorable values of X loses the point $X = 14$ even though n has increased from 39 to 40. This causes $n = 40$ to be an unlucky choice of n : in effect, from data for Example 2, $C(0.5, 39) = 0.935$, while $C(0.5, 40) = 0.897$. This also happens when n is kept fixed and π changes slightly and so we begin to see unlucky values of π .

3 Recommended alternative intervals

The evidence of the shortcomings of the standard interval brings us to the consideration of alternative intervals. We now discuss several such alternatives presented in literature, most of all Brown *et al.* (2001) [11], each with its motivation.

3.1 The Wilson interval

The first alternative to the standard interval is obtained by simply getting back to Z_n (see 8) instead of W_n . The test is

$$\text{Accept } H_0: \hat{\theta}: Z_n = \left| \frac{\sqrt{n}(\hat{\pi} - \pi)}{\sqrt{\pi(1 - \pi)}} \right| \leq \kappa, \quad (14)$$

and differs from Wald test because it uses the null standard error $(\pi(1 - \pi)/n)^{1/2}$ instead of the estimate standard error $(\hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi})/n)^{1/2}$. This confidence interval can also be obtained by inverting the Rao's *tailed score test* of $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ (Rao, 1973 [9]). Indeed, score tests, and in particular their standard errors, are based on the log likelihood at the null hypothesis value of

the parameter π , whereas Wald tests are based on the log likelihood at the maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) $\hat{\pi}$. If we solve, from 14, the ensuing quadratic equation $(\hat{\pi} - \pi)^2 = \kappa\pi(1 - \pi)/n$ in terms of π , we have the confidence interval:

$$CI_W = \frac{X + \kappa^2/2}{n + \kappa^2} \pm \frac{\kappa\sqrt{n}}{n + \kappa^2} \sqrt{\hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi}) + \kappa^2/4n}. \quad (15)$$

This interval was apparently introduced by Wilson (1927) [3] and so it is called the Wilson interval (or *score interval*, because it comes from the inversion of the score test).

The Wilson interval corrects the bias of the Wald interval, by recentering the interval at $\tilde{\pi} = (X + \kappa^2/2)/(n + \kappa^2)$, which is the weighted average of $\hat{\pi}$ and $1/2$, where n and κ^2 are the respective weights:

$$\tilde{\pi} = \frac{X + \kappa^2/2}{n + \kappa^2} = \frac{n\hat{\pi} + \kappa^2 \frac{1}{2}}{n + \kappa^2}. \quad (16)$$

Therefore it falls between $\hat{\pi}$ and $1/2$, with the weight given to $\hat{\pi}$ approaching 1 asymptotically. This midpoint shrinks the sample proportion towards 0.5, the shrinking being less severe as n increases.

The coefficient of κ in the term that is added to and subtracted from the midpoint to form the score confidence interval can be rewritten in the following way:

$$\sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi})}{n}} \left[\frac{\sqrt{n}}{n + \kappa^2} \sqrt{n + \frac{\kappa^2}{4\hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi})}} \right]. \quad (17)$$

In this way, we can see that the error of Wilson is equal to the error of Wald multiplied for a certain factor, enclosed in brackets: if this factor is lower than 1, then the error of Wilson will be smaller than the Wald one.

Fig. 5 is the equivalent of Fig. 2 using Wilson instead of Wald interval. Not unsurprisingly the bias is basically removed since the source of error, i.e. the division by $\pi(1 - \pi)$, is avoided, whereas the oscillation persists, since its origin, i.e. the discreteness, is not modifiable. The Wilson interval can be recommended for use with nearly all sample sizes and parameter values. Coverage of this interval fluctuates acceptably near the nominal coverage $1 - \alpha$, except for π very close to 0 or 1.

3.2 The Agresti-Coull interval

The standard interval CI_s is simple and easy to remember. For the purpose of classroom presentation and use in texts, it may be nice to have an alternative that has the familiar form $\hat{\pi} \pm z\sqrt{\hat{\pi}(1 - \hat{\pi})/n}$, with a better and new choice of $\hat{\pi}$ rather than $\hat{\pi} = X/n$. Brown *et al.* (2001) [11] suggests that this can be accomplished by using the center of the Wilson region in place of $\hat{\pi}$. Given the following notation, $\tilde{X} = X + \kappa^2/2$, $\tilde{n} = n + \kappa^2$, $\tilde{\pi} = \tilde{X}/\tilde{n}$ and $\tilde{q} = 1 - \tilde{\pi}$, we define the Agresti-Coull interval for π by

$$CI_{AC} = \tilde{\pi} \pm \kappa\sqrt{\tilde{\pi}\tilde{q}/\tilde{n}}. \quad (18)$$

Both the Agresti-Coull and the Wilson interval are centered on the same value, $\tilde{\pi}$. It is easy to check that the Agresti-Coull interval is never shorter than the Wilson one. For the case when $\alpha = 0.05$, if we use the value 2 instead of 1.96 for κ , this interval is the "add 2 successes and 2 failures" interval in Agresti and Coull (1998) [1]. For this reason, we call it the Agresti-Coull interval.

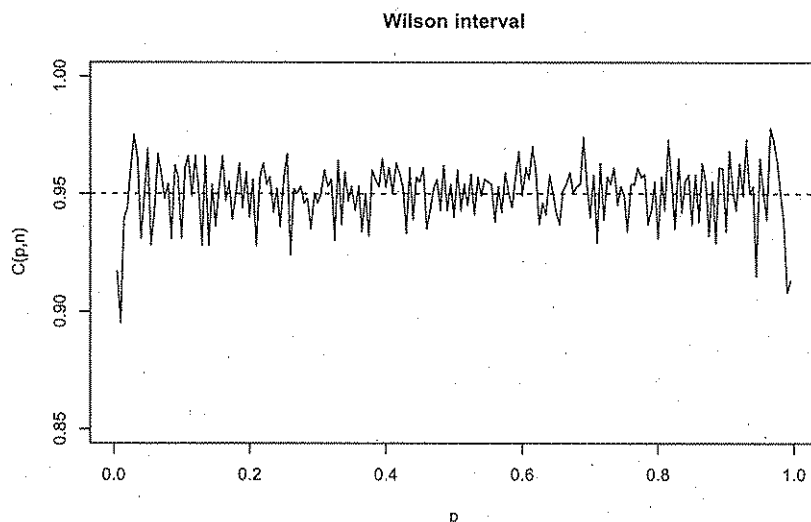


Figure 5: Wilson interval: coverage of the nominal 95% standard interval for fixed $n = 100$ and variable π

The Agresti-Coull interval has good minimum coverage probability. The coverage probability of the interval is quite conservative for π very close to 0 or 1. In comparison to the Wilson interval it is more conservative, especially for small n . However, it is to be noticed that this follows from the larger amplitude of Agresti-Coull. Thus, it is evident that exists a trade-off between the conservativeness and the length of an interval: from the one hand, a more conservative interval tends to be vaguer; on the other hand, a shorter interval can have a lower actual coverage probability. See Fig. 6.

3.3 The Jeffreys prior interval

The Jeffreys prior interval is a Bayesian interval based on the continuous Beta distribution, since the Beta is the standard conjugate prior distribution of the binomial.

Let us start with a Bayesian confidence interval. Suppose $X \sim Bin(n, \pi)$ and suppose π has a prior distribution $Beta(a_1, a_2)$; then the posterior distribution of π is $Beta(X + a_1, n - X + a_2)$. Thus a $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ equal-tailed Bayesian interval is given by

$$L = \left[B\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}; X + a_1, n - X + a_2\right) \right] \quad (19)$$

and

$$U = \left[B\left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}; X + a_1, n - X + a_2\right) \right], \quad (20)$$

where $B(\alpha; m_1, m_2)$ denotes the α quantile of a $Beta(m_1, m_2)$ distribution.

The Jeffreys prior interval is a special case of a Bayesian interval and its distribution is $Beta(1/2, 1/2)$; for references see Berger (1985) [4]. Therefore the $100(1 - \alpha)\%$ equal-tailed Jeffreys prior interval is defined as

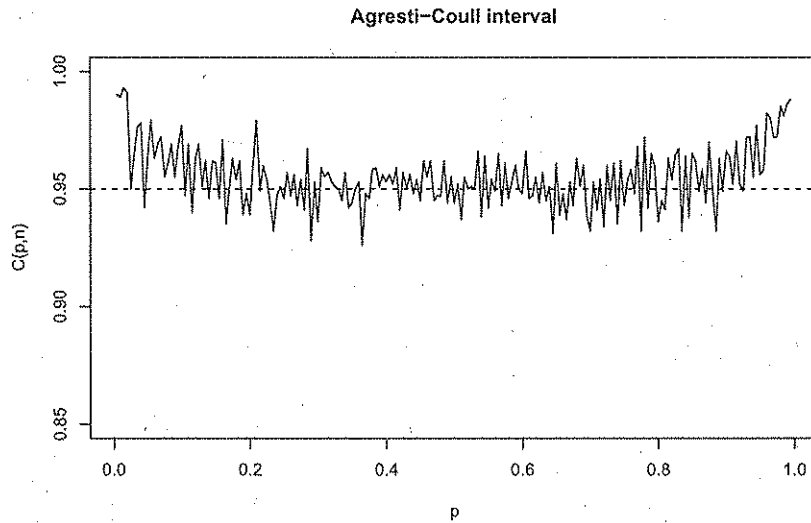


Figure 6: Agresti-Coull interval: coverage of the nominal 95% standard interval for fixed $n = 100$ and variable π

$$CI_J = [L_J(x), U_J(x)], \quad (21)$$

where $L_J(0) = 0$ and $U_J(n) = 1$ and otherwise

$$L_J(x) = \left[B_{\alpha/2} \left(X + \frac{1}{2}, n - X + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right], \quad (22)$$

$$U_J(x) = \left[B_{1-\alpha/2} \left(X + \frac{1}{2}, n - X + \frac{1}{2} \right) \right]. \quad (23)$$

The endpoints of the Jeffreys prior interval are the $\alpha/2$ and $1 - \alpha/2$ quantiles of the $Beta(x + 1/2, n - x + 1/2)$ distribution.

The quality of the Jeffreys prior interval is qualitatively similar to that of CI_W over most of the parameter space $[0,1]$. The coverage has an unfortunate fairly deep spike near $\pi = 0$ and, symmetrically, another near $\pi = 1$. See Fig. 7.

3.3.1 The Clopper-Pearson interval

The Clopper-Pearson "exact" confidence interval, proposed for the first time by Clopper and Pearson (1934) [5], is based on the inversion of the equal-tailed binomial test of $H_0 : \pi = \pi_0$, rather than its normal approximation. It has endpoints that are the solutions in π_0 to the equations

$$\sum_{k=x}^n \binom{n}{k} \pi_0^k (1 - \pi_0)^{n-k} = \frac{\alpha}{2} \quad (24)$$

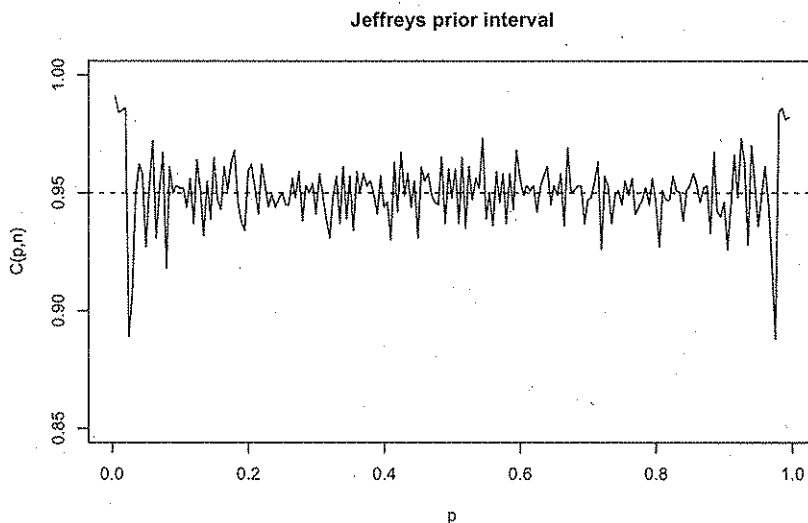


Figure 7: Jeffreys prior interval: coverage of the nominal 95% standard interval for fixed $n = 100$ and variable π

and

$$\sum_{k=0}^x \binom{n}{k} \pi_0^k (1 - \pi_0)^{n-k} = \frac{\alpha}{2}, \quad (25)$$

except that the lower bound is 0 when $x = 0$ and the upper bound is 1 when $x = n$. This interval estimator is guaranteed to have coverage probability of at least $1 - \alpha$ for every possible value of π . When $x = 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$, the confidence interval equals

$$\left[1 + \frac{n - x + 1}{x F_{2x, 2(n-x+1), 1-\alpha/2}} \right]^{-1} < \pi < \left[1 + \frac{n - x}{(x + 1) F_{2(x+1), 2(n-x), \alpha/2}} \right]^{-1}, \quad (26)$$

where $F_{a,b,c}$ denotes the $1 - c$ quantile from the F distribution with degrees of freedom a and b . Equivalently, the lower endpoint is the $\alpha/2$ quantile of a beta distribution $Beta(x, n - x + 1)$ and the upper bound is the $1 - \alpha/2$ quantile of a beta distribution $Beta(x + 1, n - x)$.

The Clopper-Pearson exact interval is typically treated as the "gold standard", although this procedure is necessarily very conservative, because of the discreteness of the binomial distribution. For any fixed parameter value, the actual coverage probability can be much larger than the nominal confidence level unless n is quite large. See Fig. 8.

3.4 Coverage probability

To judge the quality of these alternative confidence intervals, let us consider their average coverage probability, the average being over π . There is striking difference in the average coverage probability among the five intervals previously introduced. The standard interval performs poorly. The Clopper-Pearson "exact" interval is the more conservative, overall with the smaller values of n . The interval CI_{AC} is slightly conservative, but less than the Clopper-Pearson.

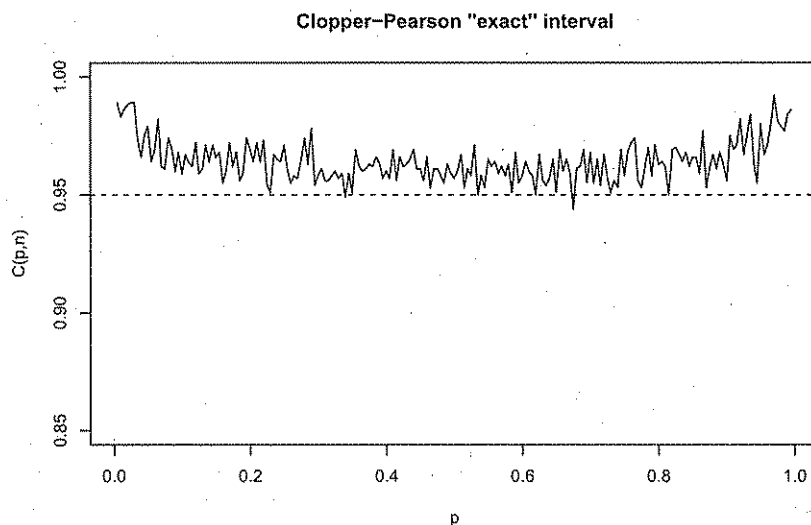


Figure 8: Clopper-Pearson "exact" interval: coverage of the nominal 95% standard interval for fixed $n = 100$ and variable π

Both the Wilson interval and the Jeffreys prior interval have excellent performances; that of the Jeffreys prior interval is, if anything, slightly superior. The average coverage probability of the Jeffreys interval is really very close to the nominal level even for quite small n .

3.5 Lengths of the intervals

The length is also an important feature of a good confidence interval, the actual coverage probability being equal. In general, the shorter the interval, the better it is. However, sometimes a longer interval can be preferable to a shorter one, e.g. because this interval allows a higher coverage probability level.

The shortest confidence interval is the Jeffreys prior interval when $0.10 < \hat{\pi} < 0.25$ and when $0.75 < \hat{\pi} < 0.99$, that is when $\hat{\pi}$ is near the boundaries (but not when $\hat{\pi} = 0$ or 1). Instead, when $0.25 < \hat{\pi} < 0.75$ the shortest interval are the Wilson and the Agresti-Coull, although the Wilson is sometimes more parsimonious than the Agresti-Coull. On the contrary, the longest confidence interval is the Clopper-Pearson "exact" interval, which is the more conservative one: in effect this is characterized by its length, larger than that of the other intervals, and by its actual coverage probability, which is very often over the nominal level. Finally, as regards the standard interval, it can happen that the upper bound is higher than 1, when the estimated proportion is next to 1.

4 Application of the alternative confidence intervals

We present now an application of the standard interval and the other alternative confidence intervals to varicella-zoster virus (VZV) data, from Thiry *et al.* (2002) [6]. Starting from the estimated proportions of that article, we will try to determine the optimal sample size for every

age class using the intervals previously introduced. These data are presented in Tab. 1 for people aged 1-10 years old.

In general, when the confidence interval is given by a formula (and not by the quantiles of a continuous distribution), the optimal sample size can be calculated inverting it and looking for that value of n which allows a certain value of the total size of error, chosen *a priori* by the researcher. This total size of error, $A(n, \hat{\pi}, \kappa)$ is given by the difference between the upper bound U and the lower bound L of the interval and is function of the sample size n , the estimated proportion π and the quantile κ . For example, in case of the standard interval we have:

$$\begin{aligned} A_s(n, \hat{\pi}, \kappa) &= U_s - L_s \\ &= \hat{\pi} + \kappa \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})}{n}} - \left(\hat{\pi} - \kappa \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})}{n}} \right) \\ &= 2\kappa \sqrt{\frac{\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})}{n}}. \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

Also the value of $\hat{\pi}$ is chosen by the researcher: if he has some information about the true value of the proportion in the population we are studying, e.g. from previous studies, then he could use that value in order to calculate the optimal sample size; otherwise, unless he has any information about the true value of the parameters, then it is possible to use the value which maximizes the variance and so maximizes the sample size. Being the proportion π binomial distributed, the variance of X/n is maximized when $\pi = 0.5$.

As regards the Wilson interval or the Agresti-Coull interval, which are calculated without referring to a continuous distribution, the sample size n can be simply determined in the same way used for the standard interval (see Eq. 27). Since the formulae for these two intervals are more complex than that of the Wald CI, from the difference ($U - L$) we obtain polynomials in n of order superior to 1. Anyway, the roots of these polynomials can be simply computed numerically with a software for numerical calculation (in this paper we have used the statistical software *R* 2.5.0 [10] for the data analysis). For the choice of the right root, we have to discard the complex roots and, if there more real roots, take the largest positive one.

The second-order polynomial equation in n relative to Wilson interval is

$$A^2 n^2 + 2\kappa^2 [A^2 - 2\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})]n + \kappa^4 (A^2 - 1) = 0, \quad (28)$$

where $\kappa = z_{\alpha/2}$.

As regards the Agresti-Coull interval, we obtain the following third-order polynomial equation in n :

$$A^2 n^3 + \kappa^2 [3A^2 - 4\hat{\pi}(1-\hat{\pi})]n^2 + \kappa^4 (3A^2 - 2)n + \kappa^6 (A^2 - 1) = 0. \quad (29)$$

Both the equations 28 and 29 are "well-behaved", i.e. they admit always one and only one real positive root, which can represent the minimum sample size we are looking for. This follows from the analysis of the coefficients' signs of the equations in accordance to Cartesius' sign rule.

In addition to prevalence proportions, Tab. 1 presents the sample size n determined by the inversion of Wald, Wilson and Agresti-Coull intervals for A set *a priori* to 0.10. To judge these results, we have to remind what we have said about the length of the intervals, that is if an interval is longer, its inversion gives a larger sample size n . Therefore, the data presented in the table reflect this situation. When $0.25 < \hat{\pi} < 0.75$, which usually happens in the younger age

Age	Prevalence	n from Wald	n from Wilson	n from Agresti-Coull
1	0.3529	351	347	348
2	0.4737	383	379	379
3	0.5714	376	373	373
4	0.6786	335	332	332
5	0.8019	244	242	245
6	0.8478	198	198	201
7	0.8235	223	222	225
8	0.8830	159	160	165
9	0.9252	106	112	120
10	0.9451	80	89	98

Table 1: Seroprevalence for VZV serum IgG antibodies according to age and the sample size n determined from Wald, Wilson and Agresti-Coull intervals for $A = 0.10$

groups, both Wilson and Agresti-Coull give the most satisfying results (but Wilson is slightly better). On the contrary, when $\hat{\pi} < 0.25$ or $\hat{\pi} > 0.75$, it may seem that Wald gives the minor values: however, these values are not trustable because of the poor actual coverage probability of this interval.

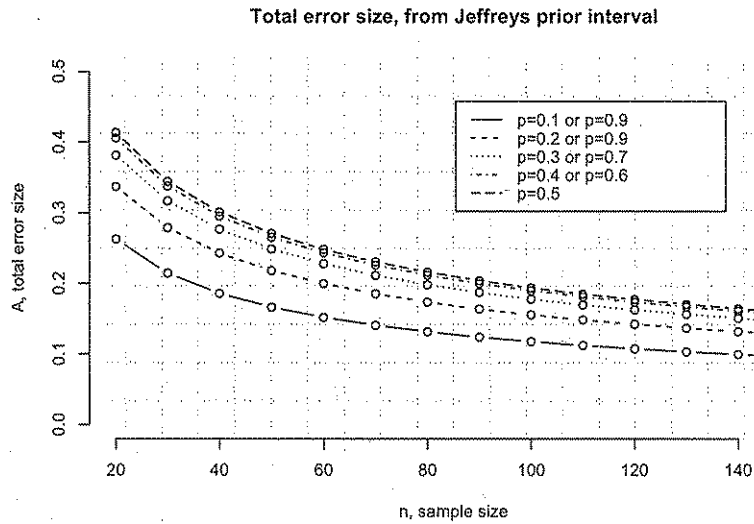
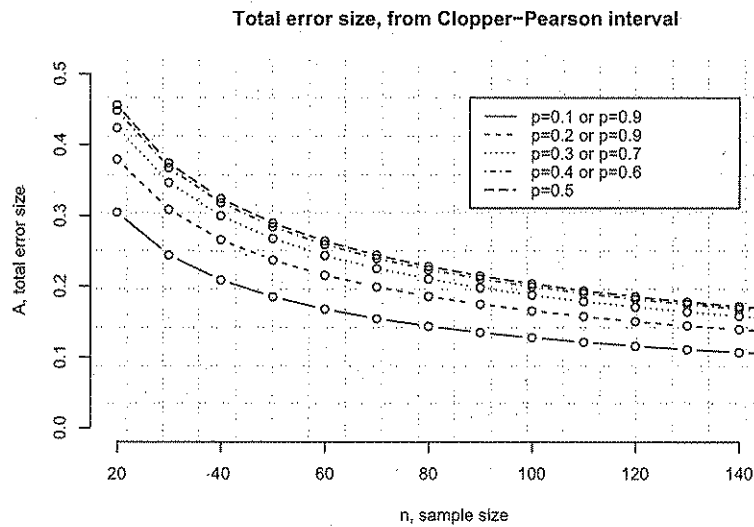
Differently, when the interval is based on the quantiles of a continuous distribution, such as the Jeffreys prior interval and the Clopper-Pearson interval calculated from the *Beta*, the best way for the determination of n is to build the curves of the function $A(n, \hat{\pi}, \kappa)$: these curves can give an idea of how much the sample size should be large. Fig. 9 shows the curves from Jeffreys prior interval and Fig. 10 the curves from the Clopper-Pearson. From the observation of these graphs, it is plain that the Clopper-Pearson determines values of n averagely larger because of its conservativeness. Then, if we think to the length of Jeffreys prior interval, it might be that for $0.10 < \hat{\pi} < 0.25$ and $0.75 < \hat{\pi} < 0.99$ it gives smaller sample sizes, minor than Wald interval.

5 Conclusions

In this paper we have shown that the standard confidence interval for a proportion, one of the most common statistical tools, presents heavy bias that compromise its efficacy noticeably: we remark here that it does not work in almost every situation, also for large values of the sample size or for $\pi = 0.5$, when the binomial distribution is symmetrical and converges to the Normal more rapidly. Nevertheless, the deep reasons of this strange behaviour are still not very clear and thus other studies are necessary.

Because of its problems, Wald interval should not be used even for the determination of the sample size, mainly for two reasons: firstly, if the interval does not run well, it is incorrect using it in any case, for it may take to systematic errors; secondly, there are other intervals that run better and effectively give smaller sample sizes.

The literature reports lots of alternative confidence intervals, not only those introduced in this paper: some are simpler to use, other less, but anyway they are correct and their actual coverage probability reaches truly the nominal level. Besides, nowadays the last statistical softwares, such as *R* 2.5.0 [10], allow to compute them in a feasible way, so it ought to be discouraged the use of Wald interval and promoted the use of these other intervals.

Figure 9: Curves of the function $A(n, \pi)$ from the Jeffreys prior intervalFigure 10: Curves of the function $A(n, \pi)$ from the Clopper-Pearson interval

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