

# Lecture 8: Confidence Intervals & the Bootstrap

## Two Paths to Quantifying Uncertainty

Previously, on Lecture 7...

**Sampling distribution:**  $\hat{\theta}$  is random — different samples give different estimates.

**CLT:**  $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2/n)$ . The MLE is also asymptotically Normal:  $\hat{\theta} \sim N(\theta, 1/(nl(\theta)))$ .

**Standard error:**  $SE = SD(\hat{\theta})$ . For  $\bar{X}$ :  $SE = \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ . For any MLE:  $SE \approx 1/\sqrt{nl(\hat{\theta})}$ .

**$\sqrt{n}$  law:** Halving the SE requires quadrupling  $n$ . Precision is expensive.

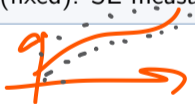
**SD  $\neq$  SE:** SD measures data spread (fixed). SE measures estimator precision (shrinks with  $n$ ).

**Today:** Two ways to **use** the sampling distribution.

"52% support candidate A" means nothing without  $\pm$  something.

$\sqrt{1}, \sqrt{2}$ . MLE  $\theta$

1  
n  
3.4  
 $\theta$



0.5

# Part I: Confidence Intervals

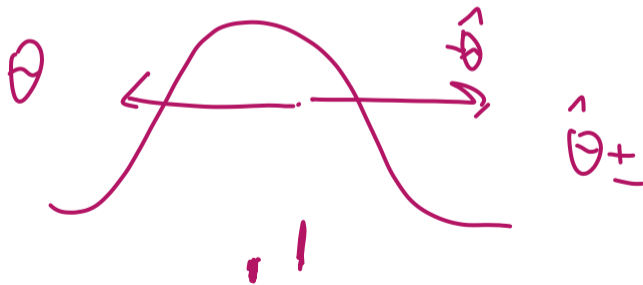
The analytical path: formulas from theory

## What Is a Confidence Interval?

A **95% confidence interval** is a random interval  $[L, U]$  such that

$$P(L \leq \theta \leq U) = 0.95$$

Before you collect data, there is a 95% chance the interval will contain  $\theta$ .

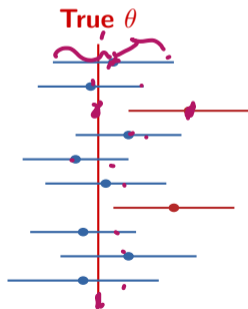


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10 simulated 95% CIs

2 miss  $\theta$  (expected  $\approx 1$  in 20)

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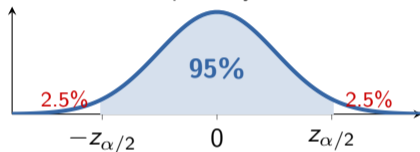
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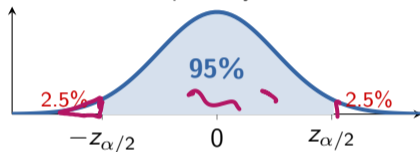
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Handwritten notes in red ink:

- A double-headed arrow above the text "range of plausible values".
- A box around the equation  $\frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta}{SE(\hat{\theta})} \approx N(0, 1)$ .
- Text: "Rearranging for  $\theta$ ..."
- Equation:  $\hat{\theta} - \theta$  over  $SE$ .
- Text: "2.5", "2.5", "6-20", "11-112", "N(0,1)", "P", "5/5", "5/5".

**The Wald CI** (named after Abraham Wald, 1943):

$$\hat{\theta} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot SE(\hat{\theta})$$

For 95%:  $\hat{\theta} \pm 1.96 \cdot SE$

For 99%:  $\hat{\theta} \pm 2.576 \cdot SE$

For 90%:  $\hat{\theta} \pm 1.645 \cdot SE$

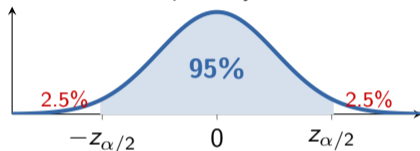
Handwritten notes in red ink at the bottom:

- A scribbled-out normal distribution curve.
- Text: "5/5", "5/5", "5/5".
- A square box.

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### Recipe:

1. Compute the point estimate  $\hat{\theta}$
2. Compute (or estimate) the standard error  $SE(\hat{\theta})$

## Example: CI for the Mean

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$$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

## Example: CI for the Mean

0.025

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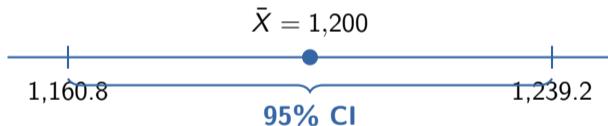
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**Step 4:**

$$\bar{X} \pm 1.96 \cdot SE = 1,200 \pm 1.96 \times 20 = 1,200 \pm 39.2$$



“We are 95% confident that the true mean lifetime is between 1,161 and 1,239 hours.”

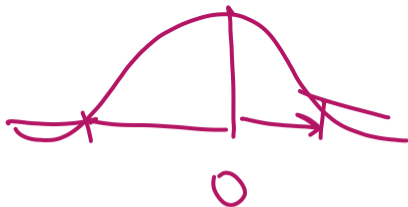
Standard format in papers: “Mean lifetime was 1,200 hours (95% CI: 1,161–1,239).”

# What 95% Confidence **Really** Means

## Correct:

If we repeated the experiment many times, 95% of the resulting intervals would contain  $\theta$ .

The *procedure* works 95% of the time.



Simulation check: build 10,000 CIs from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  — about 9,500 contain  $\mu$ . You'll verify this in the practical.

**Analogy:** A 95%-accurate archer hits the target 95% of the time. After the arrow lands, it either hit or missed — the probability is gone.

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A study reports: “Mean recovery time was 12.3 days (95% CI: 10.1–14.5).”

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✗ “95% of patients recover in 10.1 to 14.5 days.”  
Confuses a CI for the *mean* with a *prediction interval* for individuals.



## What Determines the Width?

20.75 → 1.96, 2



$$\text{Width} = 2 \cdot z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}$$

### Confidence level ↑

$z_{\alpha/2}$  increases

⇒ **wider CI**

90%: 1.645

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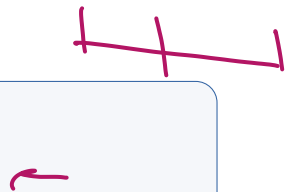
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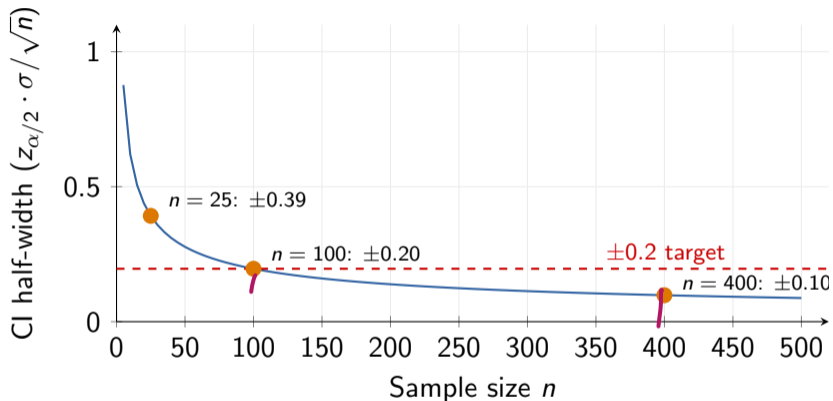
### Sample size $n \uparrow$

$\sqrt{n}$  in denominator

$\Rightarrow$  **narrower CI**

But diminishing returns  
( $\sqrt{n}$  law!)

## The $\sqrt{n}$ Law in Action



Halving the width requires **quadrupling**  $n$ . From  $n = 100$  to  $\pm 0.10$  needs  $n = 400$ .  
(Shown for  $\sigma = 1$ , 95% confidence.)

## CI for a Proportion

**Setup:**  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Bernoulli}(p)$ .    MLE:  $\hat{p} = k/n$ .    SE =  $\sqrt{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})/n}$ .

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**Example:**  $n = 1,000$ ,  $\hat{p} = 0.52$ .

$$\text{SE} = \sqrt{0.52 \times 0.48 / 1000} = 0.0158$$

$$95\% \text{ CI: } 0.52 \pm 1.96 \times 0.0158 = [0.489, 0.551].$$

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**Problem:**  $n = 20$ ,  $k = 0$ . Then  $\hat{p} = 0$  and  $\text{SE} = 0$ .

Wald gives  $[0, 0]$ . **Useless!**

We know  $p$  could be positive — zero observations doesn't mean zero probability.

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For 95%: acts like adding 2 successes and 2 failures  $\Rightarrow \tilde{p} \approx (k+2)/(n+4)$ .

Handwritten notes illustrating the Wilson interval adjustment:

3,  $\left( \begin{matrix} \downarrow \\ \star \end{matrix} \right)$  +  $\frac{k+2}{n+4}$   
1500  $\left( \begin{matrix} \downarrow \\ \star \end{matrix} \right)$  -  $\frac{k}{n}$   
5 $\star$  4 $\star$  5 $\star$  6 $\star$  7 $\star$

The handwritten notes show a comparison between the observed proportion (3/1500) and the Wilson-adjusted proportion (4/1504). The adjustment is shown as adding 2 successes and 2 failures to the data. The resulting adjusted proportion is 4/1504, which is approximately 0.00266, compared to the observed proportion of 0.002.

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**Shortcut (Agresti–Coull):** Just use  $\tilde{p} = (k+2)/(n+4)$  with a Wald-style CI.

Nearly as good as Wilson, much easier to compute by hand!

## CI for Comparing Two Groups

One of the most common tasks: is there a **difference** between two groups?

**Two independent samples:**  $\bar{X}_1$  from group 1 ( $n_1$ ),  $\bar{X}_2$  from group 2 ( $n_2$ ).

$n_1$

$n_2$

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SE of a difference =  $\sqrt{SE_1^2 + SE_2^2}$  (variances add for independent groups)

x · d

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**Example (A/B test):** Control ( $n_1 = 500$ ):  $\hat{p}_1 = 0.12$ . Treatment ( $n_2 = 500$ ):  $\hat{p}_2 = 0.15$ .

$$\hat{p}_2 - \hat{p}_1 = 0.03, \quad SE = \sqrt{\frac{0.12 \cdot 0.88}{500} + \frac{0.15 \cdot 0.85}{500}} \approx 0.021 \Rightarrow 95\% \text{ CI: } [-0.011, 0.071]$$

0

0.011 0.071

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CI contains 0  $\Rightarrow$  the difference is **not statistically significant** at 95%.

We can't yet conclude the treatment works. (More in Lecture 9.)

## Sample Size Planning



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**Solve for  $n$**  (use worst case  $p = 0.5$ ):

$$n \geq \left(\frac{z_{\alpha/2}}{ME}\right)^2 \cdot p(1-p) = \left(\frac{1.96}{0.03}\right)^2 \cdot 0.25 = 1,068$$

# Sample Size Planning



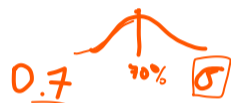
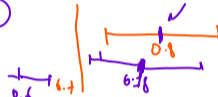
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1070  
p=0.82

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$n=10$   
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0.8  $\pm 0.03$   
0.78

0.75 - 0.85

10  
CI  
1000  
950

SE  $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$   
0.05  
0.05

ME =  $\pm 5\%$   
 $n = 385$

ME =  $\pm 3\%$   
 $n = 1,068$

ME =  $\pm 1\%$   
 $n = 9,604$

The  $\sqrt{n}$  law again: 10 $\times$  more precision requires 100 $\times$  more data.

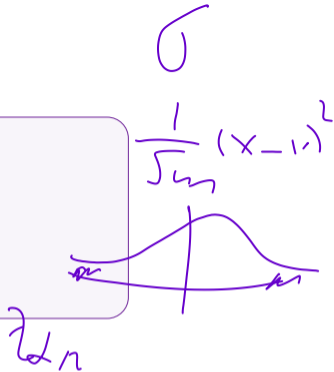
5  
80%  
20%

## The $t$ -Interval and the General MLE Recipe

When  $\sigma$  is unknown (the typical case), use the  $t$ -distribution:

$$\bar{X} \pm t_{n-1, \alpha/2} \cdot \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$t_{n-1}$  has heavier tails than  $N(0, 1) \Rightarrow$  wider CI. For  $n \geq 30$ , nearly identical to  $z$ .



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The  $t$ -interval is a special case of a **general recipe** that works for any MLE:

**General Wald CI for any MLE** (from Lecture 7):

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{n \cdot I(\hat{\theta})}}$$

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The  $t$ -interval is a special case of a **general recipe** that works for any MLE:

**General Wald CI for any MLE** (from Lecture 7):

$$\hat{\theta}_{\text{MLE}} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{n \cdot I(\hat{\theta})}}$$

**Example: Poisson  $\lambda$ .**  $I(\lambda) = 1/\lambda$ , MLE =  $\hat{\lambda} = \bar{X}$ , SE =  $\sqrt{\hat{\lambda}/n}$ .

$n = 50$ ,  $\hat{\lambda} = 3.2$ : 95% CI =  $3.2 \pm 1.96\sqrt{3.2/50} = [2.70, 3.70]$ .

**Note:** All CIs above are **two-sided**. For one-sided bounds (e.g., "failure rate  $\leq U$ "), use  $z_{\alpha}$  instead **15 / 39**

# Confidence Intervals vs Credible Intervals

## Confidence Interval (Frequentist)

“95% of intervals built this way contain  $\theta$ ”

$\theta$  is **fixed**; the interval is random.

No prior needed.

$$\hat{\theta} \pm z \cdot SE$$

With large  $n$ , they often give nearly identical intervals.  
The philosophical difference matters most with small  $n$  or strong priors.

Neither is “wrong” — they answer **different questions**.

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## The Delta Method: Why Do We Need It?

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**The delta method** gives the principled answer: use a first-order Taylor approximation.

If  $\hat{\theta} \sim N(\theta, \sigma_{\hat{\theta}}^2)$  and  $g$  is smooth, then  $g(\hat{\theta}) \sim N(g(\theta), [g'(\theta)]^2 \cdot \sigma_{\hat{\theta}}^2)$

$$\Rightarrow \text{SE of } g(\hat{\theta}) \approx |g'(\hat{\theta})| \cdot \text{SE of } \hat{\theta}$$

The derivative  $g'$  tells you how much  $g$  “stretches” the uncertainty near  $\hat{\theta}$ .

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**Setup:**  $\hat{p} = 0.3$  from  $n = 200$ . Want a 95% CI for the odds  $\psi = p/(1 - p)$ .

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$$SE(\hat{p}) = \sqrt{0.3 \times 0.7/200} = 0.0324$$

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**Step 3:** Build the Wald CI for  $\psi$ .

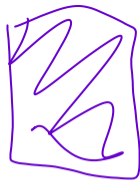
$$\hat{\psi} = 0.3/0.7 = 0.429. \quad 95\% \text{ CI: } 0.429 \pm 1.96 \times 0.066 = [0.30, 0.56]$$

**Tip:** For asymmetric quantities (odds, hazard ratios), it's often easier to build a CI on the **log scale**, then exponentiate the endpoints back.

$x_1, x_2, x_3$

$x_1, x_1$

$x_1, x_1$



## Part II: The Bootstrap

$x_1, x_1$

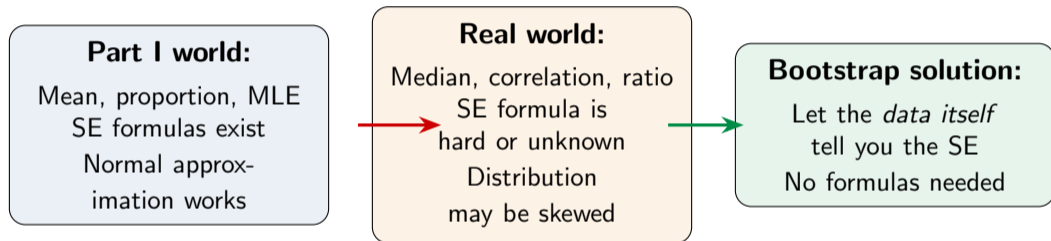
The computational path: let the data speak

Named after the phrase “to pull oneself up by one’s bootstraps” — the data estimates its own sampling distribution, with no outside help.

Introduced by Bradley Efron, Stanford, 1979.



## When Formulas Don't Exist



# The Core Insight

## Ideal world

Draw many samples from  
the true population  $F$

Compute  $\hat{\theta}$  on each  
 $\Rightarrow$  exact sampling distribution

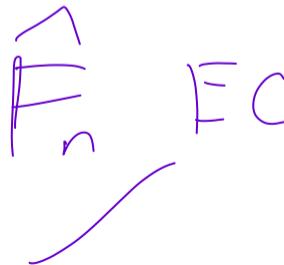
**We can't do this**  
so we do this instead

## Bootstrap world

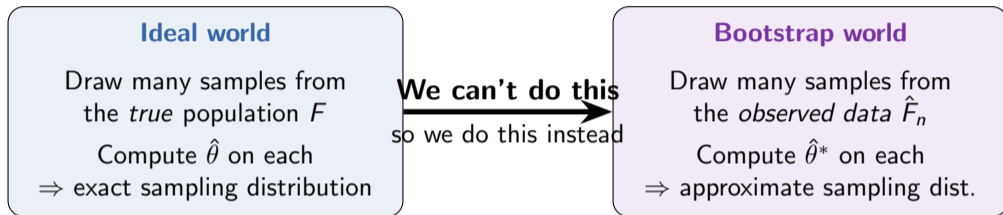
Draw many samples from  
the observed data  $\hat{F}_n$

Compute  $\hat{\theta}^*$  on each  
 $\Rightarrow$  approximate sampling dist.

$\hat{F}_n$   $F$   $C$



# The Core Insight



**Key idea:** The empirical distribution  $\hat{F}_n$  is our best estimate of  $F$ .  
Sampling from  $\hat{F}_n =$  sampling **with replacement** from the data.

$X_1, X_2, X_3$   
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# The Bootstrap Algorithm

**Step 1:** Start with your original data  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ .

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**Step 5:** Use the distribution of  $\hat{\theta}_1^*, \dots, \hat{\theta}_B^*$  to estimate SE, bias, or CI.

## Visualizing a Bootstrap Sample

**Original data:**  $x = (2, 5, 7, 3, 8, 1, 6)$ ,  $n = 7$ .

**Original:**



Note: some values appear **multiple times**, others **not at all**. That's “with replacement.”

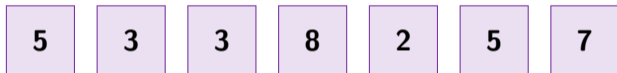
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$$\hat{\theta}_1^* = \text{median} = 5$$

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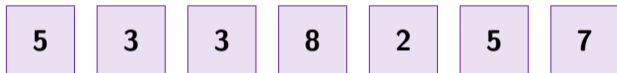
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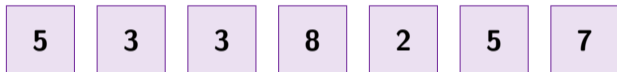
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Boot #3:



$\hat{\theta}_3^* = \text{median} = 2$

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## Bootstrap SE: A Worked Example

**Original data:**  $x = (2, 5, 7, 3, 8, 1, 6)$ . Original median = 5.

Suppose we run  $B = 6$  bootstrap replicates and record the median of each:

**Boot medians:**

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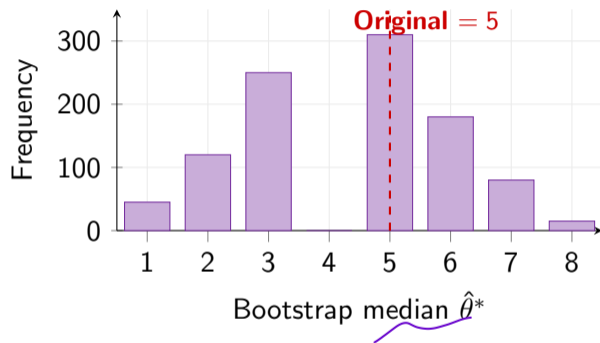
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With  $B = 10,000$  replicates, we'd get  $\widehat{SE}_{\text{boot}} \approx 1.45$ .  
Even  $B = 6$  gives the right idea!

## Bootstrap SE and the Bootstrap Distribution



$$\widehat{SE}_{\text{boot}} = \text{SD}(\hat{\theta}_1^*, \dots, \hat{\theta}_B^*)$$

The **spread** of the bootstrap distribution estimates the SE.

No formula needed  
— just simulation!

**How many replicates?**  $B \geq 200$  for SE,  $B \geq 1,000$  for percentile CI,  $B \geq 5,000$  for BCa CI.

## Bootstrap Confidence Intervals: Three Methods

### Normal

$$\hat{\theta} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \widehat{SE}_{\text{boot}}$$

Same as Wald, but with  
bootstrap SE in-  
stead of formula.

Assumes symmetry.



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Just take the 2.5th and 97.5th percentiles of the bootstrap dist.

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## BCa

Adjusted percentiles

Bias-Corrected & Accelerated.

Best coverage for complex statistics.

**Best general-purpose.**

→  
increasing sophistication and accuracy

# BCa: The Gold Standard Bootstrap CI

||

BCa = **B**ias-**C**orrected and **a**ccelerated. It adjusts the percentile cutoffs in two ways:

## Bias correction ( $z_0$ )

If the bootstrap distribution isn't centered on  $\hat{\theta}$ , the naive percentiles are shifted.

$z_0$  measures this offset and corrects the cutoff quantiles.

## Acceleration ( $a$ )

If the SE varies with  $\theta$  (the sampling distribution changes shape), symmetric cutoffs are wrong.

$a$  adjusts for this asymmetry.

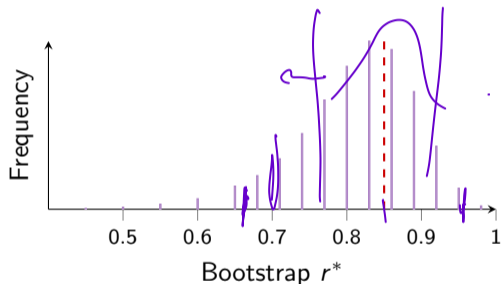
Result: better coverage than naive percentile, especially for skewed distributions.

In Python: `scipy.stats.bootstrap()` computes BCa by default.



## BCa in Action: A Skewed Example

**Setup:** Correlation  $r = 0.85$  from  $n = 15$  pairs. The sampling distribution of  $r$  near 1 is **left-skewed**.



**Normal:** [0.71, 0.99]  
Symmetric, overshoots 1!

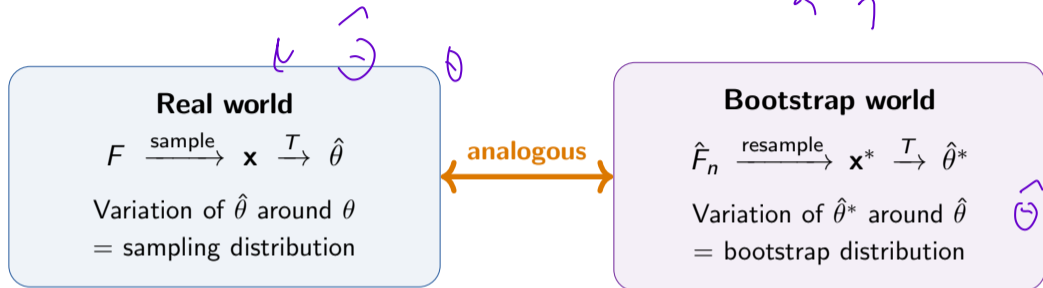
**Percentile:** [0.65, 0.94]  
Uses raw quantiles.

**BCa:** [0.68, 0.95]  
Corrects for skewness.  
Tighter on the right.

BCa adjusts the percentile cutoffs to account for skewness: it shifts the window *toward* the long tail. Result: better coverage in simulation studies.

# Why Does the Bootstrap Work?

non-  
3, 2, 5  
9 7



**Bootstrap principle:** The relationship  $\hat{F}_n \rightarrow \hat{\theta}^*$  mimics the relationship  $F \rightarrow \hat{\theta}$ .  
Formally:  $\hat{\theta}^* - \hat{\theta} \approx_d \hat{\theta} - \theta$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . (Bootstrap consistency.)

$$\hat{\theta}^* - \hat{\theta} \approx \hat{\theta} - \theta$$

# When the Bootstrap Fails

## 1. Extremes and tails

Max, min, extreme quantiles.

Bootstrap can't generate values outside the observed range.

**Classic example:**  $X_i \sim \text{Uniform}(0, \theta)$ ,  $\hat{\theta} = X_{(n)}$ . The bootstrap can *never* exceed  $X_{(n)}$ , so it underestimates variability. (See Lecture 5: MLE for Uniform.)



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**Use with care:** Small  $n$  ( $< 15$ ), mildly heavy tails



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Time series, spatial data.  
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# Two Paths, One Goal

When to use which?

# Analytical CI vs Bootstrap CI

## Analytical (Wald)

$$\hat{\theta} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \text{SE}$$

- + Fast, no simulation
- + Exact SE formulas for common cases
- Needs a formula for SE
- Assumes normality, always symmetric

## Bootstrap

Resample  $\Rightarrow$  percentiles

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**In practice:** Use analytical CIs when formulas exist and assumptions hold.

Use bootstrap when the statistic is complex (median, correlation, ratio) or skewed.

When both are available, they should agree for large  $n$ .

**Caution:** If you build 20 CIs at 95%, expect  $\sim 1$  to miss by chance — **multiple testing correction** needed (Lecture 9).

## Bootstrap in Python: It's Simple

```
import numpy as np
from scipy import stats

# Original data
x = np.array([2, 5, 7, 3, 8, 1, 6])
n = len(x)

# Nonparametric bootstrap
B = 10000
boot_medians = np.array([
    np.median(np.random.choice(x, size=n, replace=True))
    for _ in range(B)
])

# Bootstrap SE and percentile CI
se_boot = np.std(boot_medians, ddof=1)
ci_pct = np.percentile(boot_medians, [2.5, 97.5])

# For BCa: scipy.stats.bootstrap() since SciPy 1.7
res = stats.bootstrap((x,), np.median, n_resamples=B)
ci_bca = res.confidence_interval
```

## Summary: Quantifying Uncertainty

**Confidence interval:** A random interval that contains  $\theta$  with probability  $1 - \alpha$ . It's the *procedure* to

**Wald CI:**  $\hat{\theta} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \text{SE}$ . Uses normal approximation. Need SE formula.

**Proportions:** Use Wilson (not Wald) for small  $n$  or extreme  $\hat{p}$ .

**$t$ -interval:** Use when  $\sigma$  is unknown and  $n$  is small. Heavier tails  $\Rightarrow$  wider CI.

**Bootstrap:** Resample with replacement  $\Rightarrow$  SE and CI without formulas.

**Bootstrap CIs:** Normal (simple), Percentile (respects shape), BCa (gold standard).

**When bootstrap fails:** Extremes, tiny  $n$ , dependent data, non-smooth statistics.

**Two paths:** Analytical when formulas exist; bootstrap when they don't. Same goal: quantify uncertainty.

# Practical: Confidence Intervals & Bootstrap

## 1. CI coverage simulation:

- ▶ Generate  $n = 30$  from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , compute 95% Wald CI
- ▶ Repeat 10,000 times. What fraction contain  $\mu$ ? (Should be  $\approx 95\%$ )
- ▶ Try  $n = 5$ . Still 95%? Now try the  $t$ -interval. Better?

## 2. Bootstrap vs analytical:

- ▶ Generate  $n = 30$  from  $\text{Exp}(1)$ , compute the median
- ▶ Analytical: no easy formula! Bootstrap: compute  $B = 5,000$  medians
- ▶ Build percentile and BCa CIs. Does the true median ( $\ln 2$ ) fall in?

## 3. Wald vs Wilson for proportions:

- ▶ Simulate  $n = 20$ ,  $p = 0.05$ . Compare coverage of Wald and Wilson
- ▶ At what  $n$  does Wald catch up to Wilson's coverage?

## Homework

1. A factory tests  $n = 100$  lightbulbs:  $\bar{X} = 1,150$  hours,  $S = 200$  hours.  
Construct 90%, 95%, and 99% CIs for the true mean. Which is widest? Why?
2. A poll surveys  $n = 500$  voters: 265 support candidate A ( $\hat{p} = 0.53$ ).
  - (a) Compute the Wald 95% CI. Can we declare A is leading?
  - (b) How many voters do we need for a  $\pm 2\%$  margin of error?
3. The heights (cm) of 12 students: 165, 170, 168, 172, 175, 180, 163, 178, 169, 171, 167, 174.
  - (a) Compute the bootstrap SE of the **median** using  $B = 5,000$ .
  - (b) Construct 95% Normal and Percentile bootstrap CIs.
  - (c) Is the bootstrap distribution symmetric? Compare with the analytical CI for the mean.
4. For  $X_1, \dots, X_n \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ : MLE  $\hat{\lambda} = 1/\bar{X}$ ,  $I(\lambda) = 1/\lambda^2$ .
  - (a) Build the Wald 95% CI for  $\lambda$  using Fisher information.
  - (b) Use the delta method to find a CI for the mean  $\mu = 1/\lambda$ .
  - (c) Compare with a bootstrap percentile CI for  $\lambda$ . Do they agree?

## Recommended Visualizations & Resources

### Interactive: Confidence Interval Simulation (R Psychologist)

[rpsychologist.com/d3/ci](http://rpsychologist.com/d3/ci) — watch CIs accumulate in real time. Drag sliders for  $n$ ,  $\sigma$ , confidence level

### Interactive: Seeing Theory — Frequentist Inference (Brown)

[seeing-theory.brown.edu/frequentist-inference](http://seeing-theory.brown.edu/frequentist-inference) — CI construction and bootstrap resampling animated.

### Video: StatQuest — Confidence Intervals & Bootstrapping

Two clear walkthroughs: what CIs are and are not, and how bootstrap builds CIs from data.

### Reading: Efron & Tibshirani, “An Introduction to the Bootstrap”

The foundational textbook. Chapters 1–6 cover everything in Part II. Chapters 12–14 cover BCa.

### Python: `scipy.stats.bootstrap()`

BCa intervals in three lines of code (SciPy  $\geq 1.7$ ). See SciPy docs for details.

# Questions?

Next: Lecture 9 — Hypothesis testing, p-values, power, and permutation tests