

# The Bootstrap<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>See last slide for copyright information.

# Background Reading

- Davison's *Statistical models* has almost nothing.
- The best we can do for now is the [Wikipedia](#) under [Bootstrapping \(Statistics\)](#)

# Overview

- 1 Sampling distributions
- 2 Bootstrap
- 3 Distribution-free regression example

# Sampling distributions

- Let  $\mathbf{x} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  be a random sample from some distribution  $F$ .
- $T = T(\mathbf{x})$  is a statistic (could be a vector of statistics).
- Need to know about the distribution of  $T$ .
- Sometimes it's not easy, even asymptotically.

# Sampling distribution of $T$ : The elementary version

For example  $T = \bar{X}$

- Sample repeatedly from this population (pretend).
- For each sample, calculate  $T$ .
- Make a relative frequency histogram of the  $T$  values you observe.
- As the number of samples becomes very large, the histogram approximates the distribution of  $T$ .

# What is a bootstrap?

Pull yourself up by your bootstraps



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# The (statistical) Bootstrap

Bradley Efron, 1979

- Select a random sample from the population.
- If the sample size is large, the sample is similar to the population.
- Sample repeatedly from the sample. This is called *resampling*.
- Sample from the sample? Think of putting the sample data values in a jar ...
- Calculate the statistic for every bootstrap sample.
- A histogram of the resulting values approximates the shape of the sampling distribution of the statistic.

# Notation

- Let  $\mathbf{x} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  be a random sample from some distribution  $F$ .
- $T = T(\mathbf{x})$  is a statistic (could be a vector of statistics).
- Form a “bootstrap sample”  $\mathbf{x}^*$  by sampling  $n$  values from  $\mathbf{x}$  *with replacement*.
- Repeat this process  $B$  times, obtaining  $\mathbf{x}_1^*, \dots, \mathbf{x}_B^*$ .
- Calculate the statistic for each bootstrap sample, obtaining  $T_1^*, \dots, T_B^*$ .
- Relative frequencies of  $T_1^*, \dots, T_B^*$  approximate the sampling distribution of  $T$ .



## Why does it work?

$$\widehat{F}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n I\{X_i \leq x\} \xrightarrow{a.s.} E(I\{X_i \leq x\}) = F(x)$$

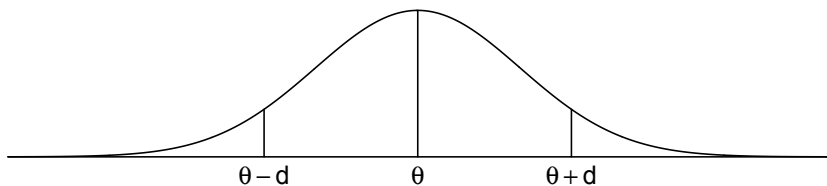
- Resampling from  $\mathbf{x}$  with replacement is the same as simulating a random variable whose distribution is the empirical distribution function  $\widehat{F}(x)$ .
- Suppose the distribution function of  $T$  is a nice smooth function of  $F$ .
- Then as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $B \rightarrow \infty$ , bootstrap sample moments and quantiles of  $T_1^*, \dots, T_B^*$  converge to the corresponding moments and quantiles of the distribution of  $T$ .
- If the distribution of  $\mathbf{x}$  is discrete and supported on a finite number of points, the technical issues are minor.

# Quantile Bootstrap Confidence Intervals

- Suppose  $T_n$  is a consistent estimator of  $g(\theta)$ .
- And the distribution of  $T_n$  is approximately symmetric around  $g(\theta)$ .
- Then the lower  $(1 - \alpha)100\%$  confidence limit for  $g(\theta)$  is the  $\alpha/2$  sample quantile of  $T_1^*, \dots, T_B^*$ , and the upper limit is the  $1 - \alpha/2$  sample quantile.
- For example, the 95% confidence interval ranges from the 2.5th to the 97.5th percentile of  $T_1^*, \dots, T_B^*$ .

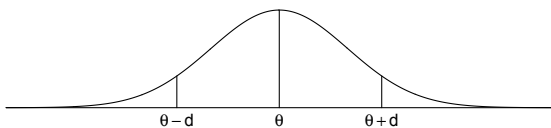
# Symmetry

A requirement that is often ignored



The distribution of  $T$  symmetric about  $\theta$  means for all  $d > 0$ ,  
 $P\{T > \theta + d\} = P\{T < \theta - d\}$ .

# Why Symmetry?



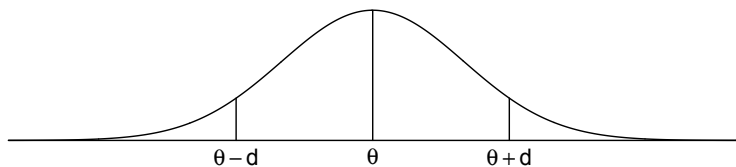
- The distribution of  $T$  symmetric about  $\theta$  means for all  $d > 0$ ,  $P\{T > \theta + d\} = P\{T < \theta - d\}$ .
- Select  $d$  so that the probability equals  $\alpha/2$ .

$$\begin{aligned}1 - \alpha &= P\{\theta - d < T < \theta + d\} \\ &= P\{T - d < \theta < T + d\}\end{aligned}$$

Need to estimate  $d$ .

# Estimating $d$

There are two natural estimates



$$1 - \alpha = P\{\theta - d < T < \theta + d\}$$

$$\hat{\theta} - \hat{d}_1 = Q_{\alpha/2} \Rightarrow \hat{d}_1 = T - Q_{\alpha/2}$$

$$\hat{\theta} + \hat{d}_2 = Q_{1-\alpha/2} \Rightarrow \hat{d}_2 = Q_{1-\alpha/2} - T$$

I would average them:

$$\hat{d} = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{d}_1 + \hat{d}_2) = \frac{1}{2}(Q_{1-\alpha/2} - Q_{\alpha/2})$$

$$1 - \alpha = P\{T - d < \theta < T + d\}$$

Plug in an estimate of  $d$

- $\hat{d}_1 = T - Q_{\alpha/2}$
- $\hat{d}_2 = Q_{1-\alpha/2} - T$
- $\hat{d} = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{d}_1 + \hat{d}_2)$

Using  $\hat{d}_1$  on the left yields

$$T - \hat{d}_1 = T - (T - Q_{\alpha/2}) = Q_{\alpha/2}$$

Using  $\hat{d}_2$  on the right yields

$$T + \hat{d}_2 = T + (Q_{1-\alpha/2} - T) = Q_{1-\alpha/2},$$

which is the quantile confidence interval.

# Justifying the Assumption of Symmetry

- Smooth functions of asymptotic normals are asymptotically normal.
- Delta method:
  - $\sqrt{n}(T_n - \theta) \xrightarrow{d} T \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$  means  $T_n$  is asymptotically normal.
  - $\sqrt{n}(g(T_n) - g(\theta)) \xrightarrow{d} Y \sim N(0, g'(\theta)^2 \sigma^2)$  means  $g(T_n)$  is asymptotically normal too.
- There's a multivariate version.

## Can use asymptotic normality directly

- Sample standard deviation of  $T_1^*, \dots, T_B^*$  is a good standard error.
- Confidence interval is  $T \pm 1.96 SE$ .
- If  $T$  is a vector, the sample variance-covariance matrix of  $T_1^*, \dots, T_B^*$  is useful.



## Example

Let  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n$  be a random sample from an unknown distribution with expected value  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Give a point estimate and a 95% confidence interval for the coefficient of variation  $\frac{\sigma}{\mu}$ .

- Point estimate is  $T = S/\bar{Y}$ .
- If  $\mu \neq 0$  then  $T$  is asymptotically normal and therefore symmetric.
- Resample from the data urn  $n$  times with replacement, and calculate  $T_1^*$ .
- Repeat  $B$  times, yielding  $T_1^*, \dots, T_B^*$ .
- Percentile confidence interval for  $\frac{\sigma}{\mu}$  is  $(Q_{\alpha/2}, Q_{1-\alpha/2})$ .

## Example: Distribution-free regression

Independently for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , let

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_i + \epsilon_i,$$

where

- $X_i$  and  $\epsilon_i$  come from unknown distributions,
- $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$ ,  $Var(\epsilon_i) = \sigma^2$ ,
- $X_i$  and  $\epsilon_i$  are independent.
- Moments of  $X_i$  will be denoted  $E(X)$ ,  $E(X^2)$ , etc.

Observable data consist of the pairs  $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_n, Y_n)$ .

# Estimation

Estimate  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta_1$  as usual by

$$\begin{aligned}\hat{\beta}_0 &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})(Y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2} \\ &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i Y_i - n\bar{X}\bar{Y}}{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i^2 - n\bar{X}^2} \text{ and}\end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{\beta}_1 = \bar{Y} - \hat{\beta}_0 \bar{X}$$

- Consistency follows from the Law of Large Numbers and continuous mapping.
- Looks like  $\hat{\beta}_0$  and  $\hat{\beta}_1$  are asymptotically normal.
- Use this to get tests and confidence intervals.

## Bootstrap approach: All by computer

- Earlier discussion implies  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}$  is asymptotically multivariate normal.
- Say  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} \sim N_p(\boldsymbol{\beta}, \mathbf{V})$ .
- All we need is a good  $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}$ .
- Put data vectors  $\mathbf{d}_i = (\mathbf{x}_i, Y_i)$  in a jar.
- Sample  $n$  vectors with replacement, yielding  $\mathbf{D}_1^*$ . Fit the regression model, obtaining  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1^*$ .
- Repeat  $B$  times. This yields  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1^* \dots \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_B^*$ .
- The sample covariance matrix of  $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_1^* \dots \widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_B^*$  is  $\widehat{\mathbf{V}}$ .
- Under  $H_0 : \mathbf{L}\boldsymbol{\beta} = \mathbf{h}$ ,

$$(\mathbf{L}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{h})^\top (\mathbf{L}\widehat{\mathbf{V}}^{-1}\mathbf{L}^\top)^{-1} (\mathbf{L}\widehat{\boldsymbol{\beta}} - \mathbf{h}) \sim \chi^2(r)$$

## Remark

This is not a typical bootstrap regression.

- Usually people fit a model and then bootstrap the residuals, not the whole data vector.
- Bootstrapping the residuals applies to conditional regression (conditional on  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$ ).
- Our regression model is unconditional.
- The large-sample arguments are simpler in the unconditional case.

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