#### Stat C131A: Statistical Methods for Data Science

#### Lecture 12: Confidence Intervals

Oct 7 2025

# Today

→ Wrap up hypothesis testing with completing Confidence Intervals

#### Confidence Interval

- ♦ We know that most of the time, the standardized statistic lies between -t\* and +t\*
- → P( $-t^* \le (\bar{X} \mu)/(s/\sqrt{n}) \le t^*$ ) = 0.95
- → Here:
  - ★ t\* = critical value from t distribution,
  - $\rightarrow$  Depends on confidence level (e.g., 95%) and df = n 1.

#### Confidence Interval

$$-t \le \frac{\overline{X} - \mu}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}} \le t$$

$$-t \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \le \overline{X} - \mu \le t \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$\overline{X} - t \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \le \mu \le \overline{X} + t \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$



# CI for the difference in the means (of 2 groups)

- Central question: Are two groups truly different on average, or could the observed difference be random noise?
- ◆ Examples:
  - ◆ Airline A vs Airline B average delay times
  - Fitness app A vs Fitness app B effectiveness (increase in steps walked)
  - **+** ...
- Confidence intervals quantify the uncertainty around (μ1 − μ2)

### Why This Matters

- ♦ We often compare two populations: schools, drugs, airlines, treatments.
- ♦ Observed difference in sample means may not equal true difference.
- CI provides a plausible range for the difference in means.
- Not just: 'is there a difference?' but 'how large might it be?'

#### Hypotheses Context

- Hypotheses
  - $\rightarrow$  Null hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>):  $\mu 1 = \mu 2$  (no difference)
  - ♦ Alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ):  $\mu 1 \neq \mu 2$  (difference exists)
- ◆ CI provides more than yes/no decision, it shows the magnitude
- ♦ If 0 is inside CI → no evidence of difference.

# Mathematically

$$\bar{X} - \bar{Y} \sim N(\mu_1 - \mu_2, \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2})$$

$$P((\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) - 1.96\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}} \le \mu_1 - \mu_2 \le (\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) + 1.96\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}) = 0.95$$

$$\bar{X} - \bar{Y} \pm 1.96 \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}$$

#### Variance

$$T = \frac{|\bar{X} - \bar{Y}|}{\sqrt{\frac{\hat{\sigma}_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{\sigma}_2^2}{n_2}}}.$$

$$P((\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) - t_{0.975} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}} \le \mu_1 - \mu_2 \le (\bar{X} - \bar{Y}) - t_{0.025} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}) = 0.95$$

#### General Formula

- ightharpoonup CI formula:  $(\bar{x}1 \bar{x}2) \pm t^* \times SE(\bar{x}1 \bar{x}2)$ 
  - $\star$   $\bar{x}1$  and  $\bar{x}2$  are sample means.
  - ★ t\* is the critical value from t distribution
- $\bullet$  SE, the Standard Error, is the 'typical random wobble' in  $(\bar{x}1 \bar{x}2)$

### Degrees of Freedom

- $\rightarrow$  For pooled test: df = n1 + n2 2.
- → For Welch's test: df ≈ complex adjustment formula.
- → df controls cutoff t\* and thus width of CI.

#### Worked Example: Airlines

- → Airline A mean delay = 22 min (n1 = 30)
- → Airline B mean delay = 14 min (n2 = 28)
- ♦ Observed difference = 8 min
- ightharpoonup Compute SE and CI  $\rightarrow$  example CI = (5, 11)

### Interpretation of Example

- ◆ 95% CI (5, 11) means true difference plausibly lies between 5.08—11.92 minutes
- Since 0 not included → significant difference
- CI tells **both** significance and effect size

# Key Takeaways (Two Means)

- → Cl gives a range, not just reject/not reject
- lacktriangle If CI includes 0  $\rightarrow$  no strong evidence of difference.
- Width of CI reflects uncertainty
  - larger n → narrower Cl
- Always check assumptions before using formula

# BOOTSRAPPING CONFIDENCE INTERVALS

#### 3.8 Bootstrap Confidence Intervals

- Motivation:
  - What if we were interested in comparing medians?
    - Why should we compare medians?
  - ♦ What about proportions across 2 groups
    - ♦ What is that statistic ?
- ♦ Now, formula-based CI relies on strong assumptions
  - → normality, equal variances, ...
- → Real data may be skewed, heavy-tailed, or small n.

# Bootstrap

- ◆ Bootstrap:
  - resampling method
  - "assumption-light"
- Uses the observed sample to approximate the population

### Bootstrapping: the practical need

- Hypothesis testing requires knowing the sampling distribution of the test statistic to construct confidence intervals or compute p-values
- For means, the Central Limit Theorem (CLT) guarantees approximate normality of the difference in means, even for non-normal data
- The CLT's robustness is unique to the mean, it does not apply directly to medians or most other statistics
- Testing medians, proportions, or other summaries requires distinct mathematical theory to derive their null distributions
- Proportions can be treated as means of binary data, allowing modified t-type parametric tests.
- Using statistics beyond the mean typically demands stronger distributional assumptions and may lack known theory.
- Bootstrap methods offer a practical alternative: estimate the statistic's distribution empirically via resampling, bypassing analytical derivations.
- Thus, bootstrapping generalizes inference to settings where theoretical distributions are unknown or intractable

#### Core Idea of Bootstrapping

- ◆ Treat your sample as a stand-in for the population
- Draw many bootstrap samples with replacement
- Each bootstrap sample has same size as original
- Compute statistic of interest for each resample.

#### Step-by-Step Bootstrap Procedure

- ◆ 1. Start with observed dataset.
- ♦ 2. Resample with replacement, size = n.
- $\rightarrow$  3. Compute statistic (e.g.,  $\bar{x}1 \bar{x}2$ ).
- ◆ 4. Repeat thousands of times (1000–10,000).
- ♦ 5. Use bootstrap distribution to form CI.





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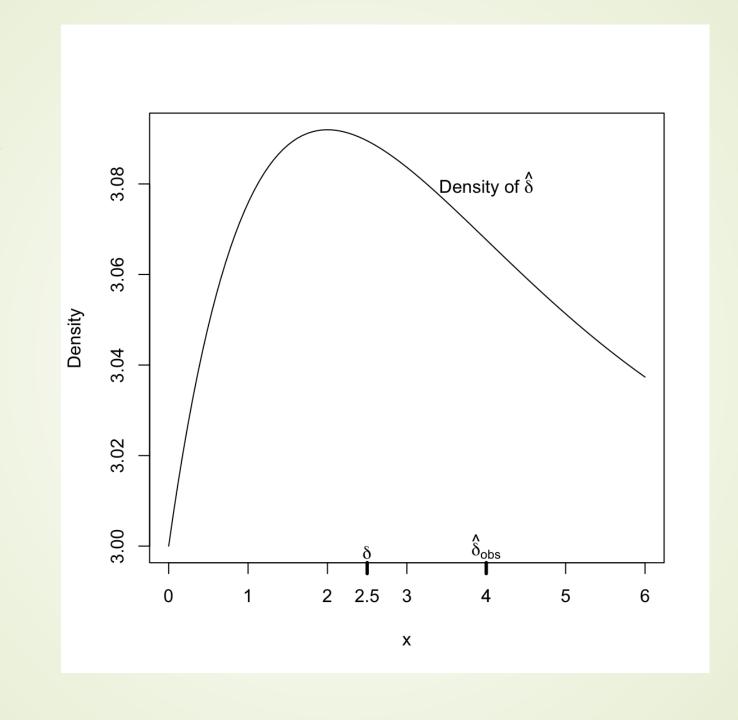
#### Types of Bootstrap Cls

- Percentile method: middle 95% of bootstrap statistics.
- ◆ SE method: estimate bootstrap SE, use ± z\* cutoff.
- → Bias-Corrected and Accelerated (BCa): adjusts for skew and bias.

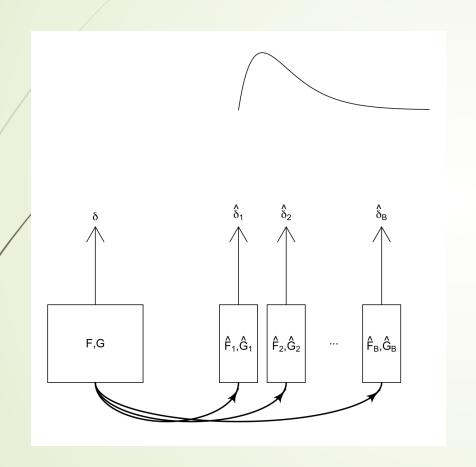
$$\bullet 0.95 = P(\hat{\delta} - w_1 \le \delta \le \hat{\delta} + w_2)$$

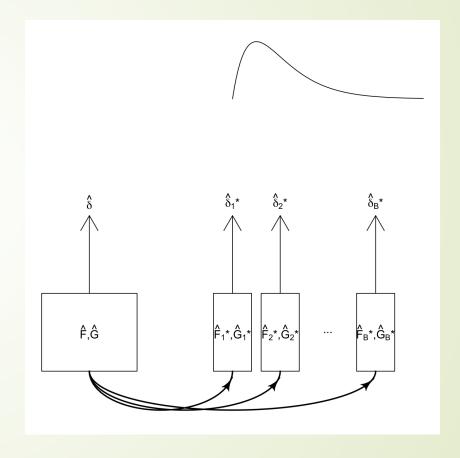
$$(V_1 = \hat{\delta} - w_1, V_2 = \hat{\delta} + w_2)$$

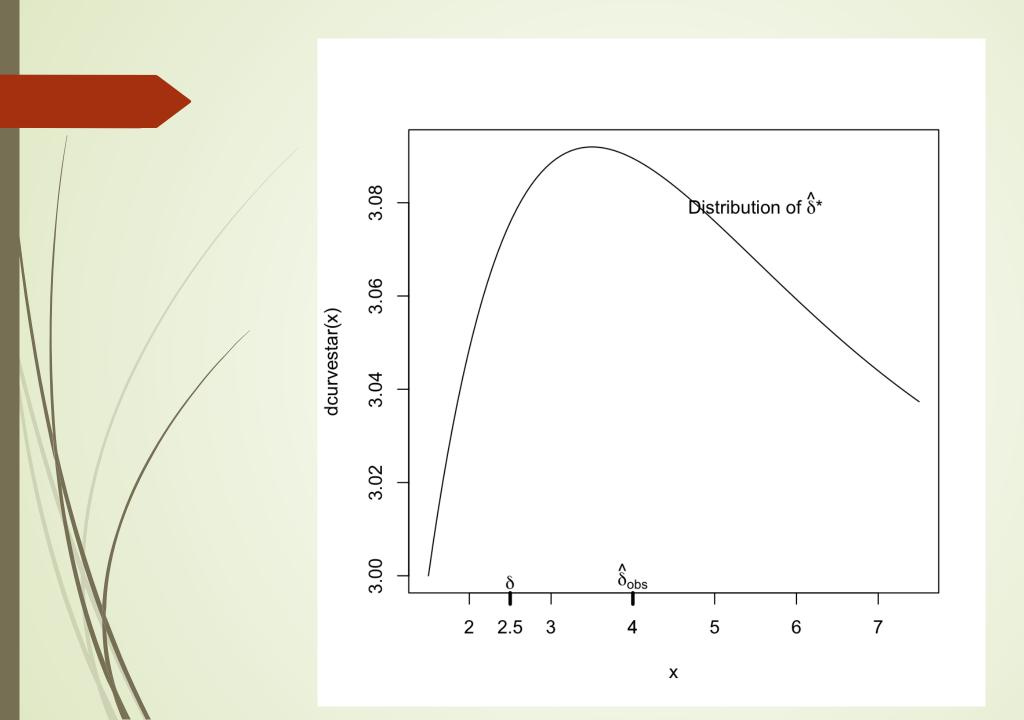
$$P(\delta - w_2 \le \hat{\delta} \le \delta + w_1)$$



# Bootstrap: difference of means







### Mathematically

$$P(|\hat{\delta} - \delta| > 1) \approx P(|\hat{\delta}^* - \hat{\delta}| > 1)$$

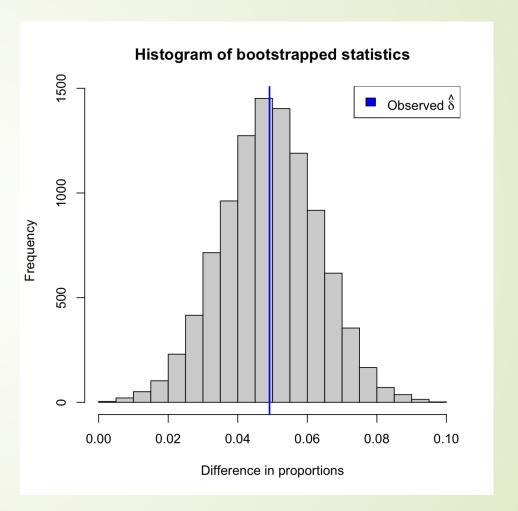
$$\bullet 0.95 = P(\hat{\delta} - W_2^* \le \hat{\delta}^* \le \hat{\delta} + W_1^*)$$

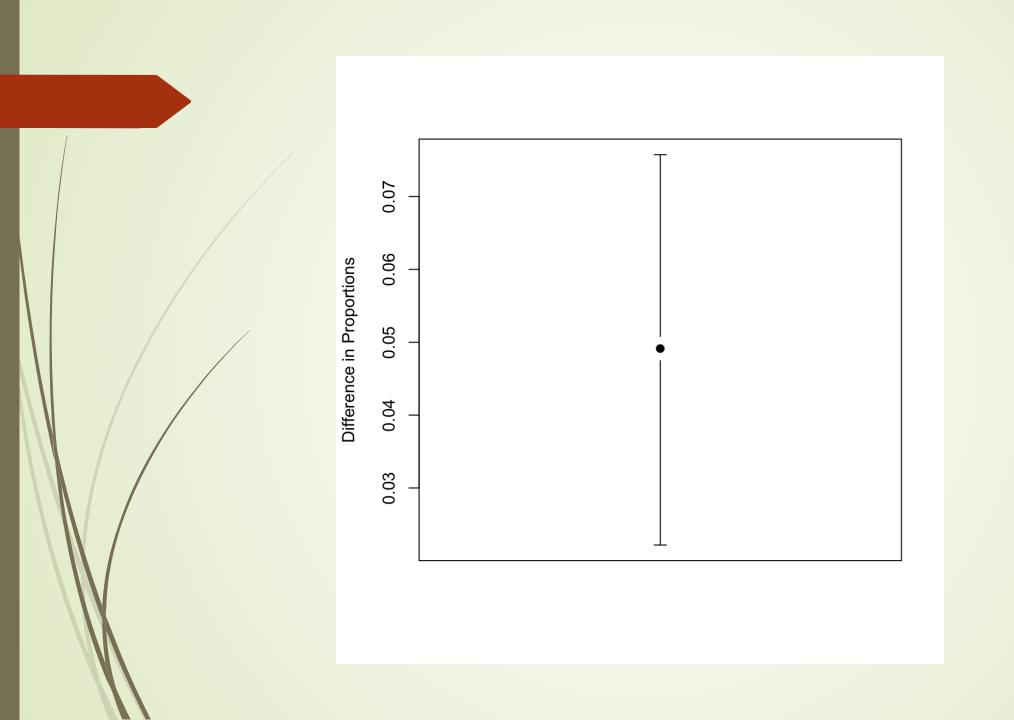
$$\bullet \quad 0.95 \approx P(\delta - W_2^* \le \hat{\delta} \le \delta + W_1^*) = P(\hat{\delta} - W_1^* \le \delta \le \hat{\delta} + W_2^*)$$

$$\bullet \ (\mathring{\delta} - W_1^*, \mathring{\delta} + W_2^*)$$

#### Bootstrap Example: Airlines

- Resample Airline A delays 1000 times, Airline B delays 1000 times.
- $\bullet$  Each time compute mean difference ( $\bar{x}1 \bar{x}2$ ).
- Form distribution of bootstrap differences.
- → 95% CI = central 95% of bootstrap distribution.





# Comparing Bootstrap-based CI with Formula-based CI

- → Formula CI: fast, assumption-heavy.
- → Bootstrap CI: slower, assumption-light, more flexible.
- Large n, normal data → similar results.
- ◆ Small n or skewed data → bootstrap more reliable.

#### Why Bootstrap Works

- Bootstrap mimics repeated sampling.
- → Empirical distribution approximates true sampling distribution.
- Assumes observed sample is representative.
- Leverages the data you already have to quantify uncertainty.

# Key Takeaways (Bootstrap)

- CI for two means estimates how different groups are.
- → Bootstrap extends CI to messy/non-normal data.
- Both approaches quantify uncertainty.
- ◆ Always report both estimate and CI → communicates effect size + precision.

#### Specific Statistics, and Distributions (or lack thereof)

Statistic	Known Distribution	Туре	Method of Derivation
Mean	Normal (exact/asymptotic)	CLT	Analytical
Difference of means	t / Normal	CLT + estimated variance	Analytical
Variance	$\chi^2$	Exact under Normality	Analytical
Ratio of variances	F	Derived from $\chi^2$	Analytical
Proportion	Binomial / Normal	CLT	Analytical
Correlation	t / Normal (Fisher z)	Transform theory	Analytical
Rank-based tests	Normal (large n)	Asymptotic	Approximate
Median / Percentiles	No simple form	Depends on F	Requires bootstrap

#### Bootstrapping: Perspective

- ◆Bootstrapping estimates a statistic's sampling distribution by resampling with replacement, it works numerically for any statistic, linear or not.
- ◆ A closed-form (mathematical) solution for variance or confidence intervals exists only when the statistic is a smooth / differentiable functional of the population distribution.
- ★Linear or differentiable statistics (for example, the mean or regression coefficients):
  - The statistic changes smoothly with small perturbations in the data.
- ◆ Non-smooth statistics (for example, the median or quantiles):
  - Bootstrap works only if the density at that point is positive and continuous
    - +f(m) > 0
    - ightharpoonup If f(m) = 0 or the distribution is discrete or flat, the bootstrap becomes inconsistent.
- → Highly non-smooth or non-local functionals (for example, the mode):
  - The mapping F → mode(F) is discontinuous.
  - The ordinary bootstrap fails and requires smoothed or specialized variants.
- → Bootstrapping is always computable, but only smooth, differentiable statistics have a valid mathematical limit law