

# The bootstrap

Introduction to resampling methods  
STA 380

Reference: *Introduction to Statistical Learning* Chapter 5.2

# Outline

- Uncertainty quantification as a “what if?”
- Sampling distributions
- The bootstrap
- Bootstrapped confidence intervals
- Bootstrapped versus plug-in standard errors
- Bonus topic: the parametric bootstrap

# Quantifying uncertainty

From the New England Journal of Medicine in 2006:

We randomly assigned patients with resectable adenocarcinoma of the stomach, esophagogastric junction, or lower esophagus to either perioperative chemotherapy and surgery (250 patients) or surgery alone (253 patients).... With a median follow-up of four years, 149 patients in the perioperative-chemotherapy group and 170 in the surgery group had died. As compared with the surgery group, the perioperative-chemotherapy group had a higher likelihood of overall survival (five-year survival rate, 36 percent vs. 23 percent).

# Quantifying uncertainty

## Conclusion:

- Chemotherapy patients are **13%** more likely to survive past 5 years.

# Quantifying uncertainty

Conclusion:

- Chemotherapy patients are **13%** more likely to survive past 5 years.

Not so fast! In statistics, we ask “what if?” a lot:

- What if the randomization of patients just happened, by chance, to assign more of the healthier patients to the chemo group?
- Or what if the physicians running the trial had enrolled a different sample of patients from the same clinical population?

# Quantifying uncertainty

## Conclusion:

- Chemotherapy patients are **13%** more likely to survive past 5 years.

Always remember two basic facts about samples:

- *All numbers are wrong*: any quantity derived from a sample is just a guess of the corresponding population-level quantity.
- *A guess is useless without an error bar*: an estimate of how wrong we expect the guess to be.

# Quantifying uncertainty

Conclusion:

- Chemotherapy patients are **13%  $\pm$  ?** more likely to survive past 5 years, with **??%** confidence.

By “quantifying uncertainty,” we mean filling in the blanks.

# Quantifying uncertainty

In data science, we equate trustworthiness with *stability*:

- If our data had been different merely due to chance, would our answer have been different, too?
- Or would the answer have been stable, even with different data?

Confidence in  
your estimates  $\iff$  Stability of those estimates  
under the influence of chance



# Quantifying uncertainty

For example:

- If doctors had taken a different sample of 503 cancer patients and gotten a drastically different estimate of the new treatment's effect, then the original estimate isn't very trustworthy.
- If, on the other hand, pretty much any sample of 503 patients would have led to the same estimates, then their answer for *this particular* subset of 503 is probably accurate.

# Some notation

Suppose we are trying to estimate some population-level feature of interest,  $\theta$ . This might be something very complicated!

So we take a sample from the population:  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N$ . We use the data to form an estimate  $\hat{\theta}_N$  of the parameter. Key insight:  $\hat{\theta}_N$  is a random variable.

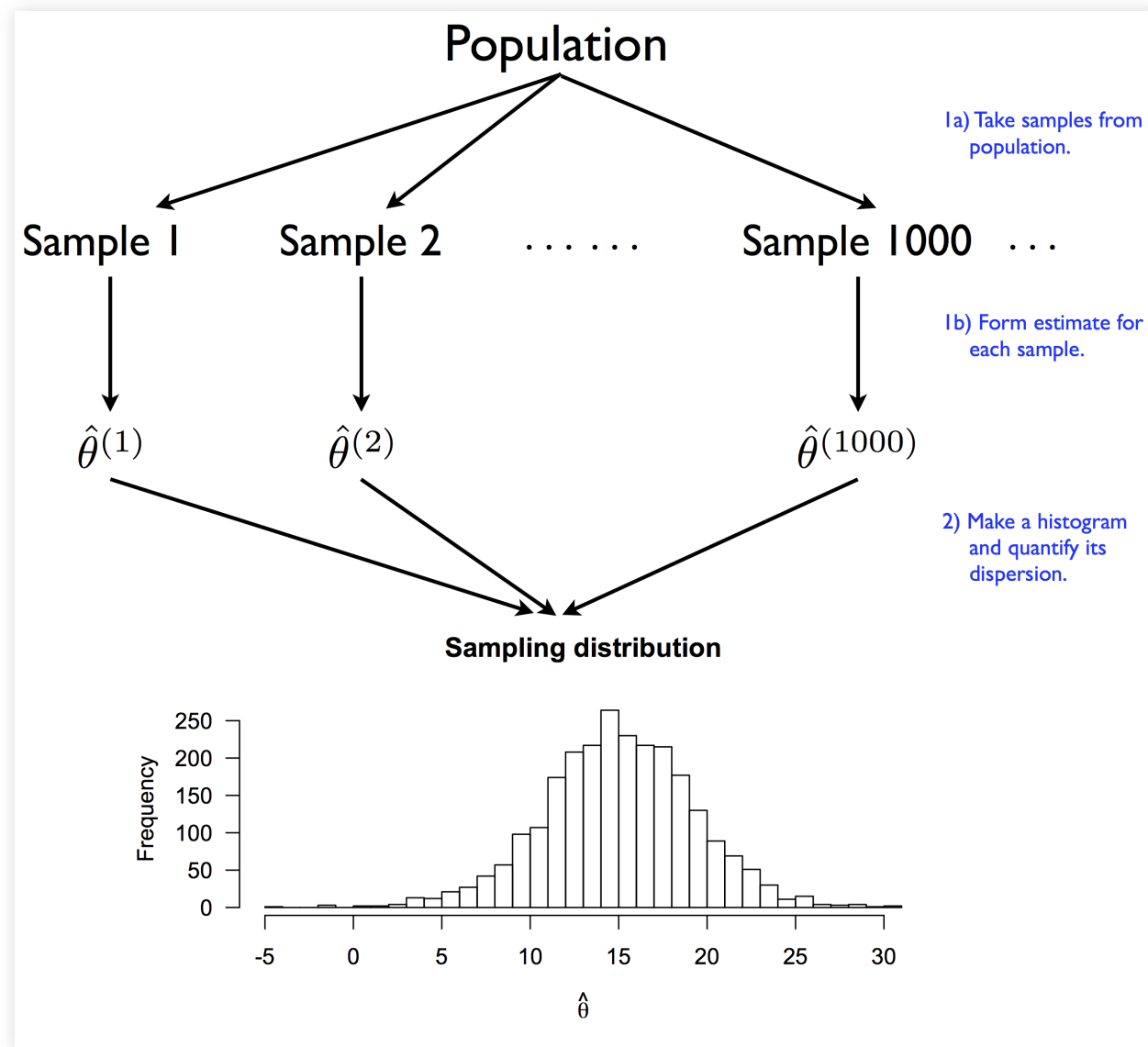
# Some notation

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**Now imagine repeating this process thousands of times!** Since  $\hat{\theta}_N$  is a random variable, it has a probability distribution: the *sampling distribution*.

# Some notation



# Standard error

**Standard error:** the standard deviation of an estimator's sampling distribution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{se}(\hat{\theta}_N) &= \sqrt{\text{var}(\hat{\theta}_N)} \\ &= \sqrt{E[(\hat{\theta}_N - \bar{\theta}_N)^2]} \\ &= \text{Typical deviation of } \hat{\theta}_N \text{ from its average} \end{aligned}$$

“If I were to take repeated samples from the population and use this estimator for every sample, how much does the answer vary, on average?”

# An analogy: manufacturing tolerance

Think about ordering a ceramic bowl off Etsy, made by an artist who uses one of those cool pottery wheels:

- Across many weeks of manufacturing, the artist's bowls have an average diameter of 8".
- But individual bowls vary from the average by about 0.25", since they're made by hand.
- So you should expect that your specific bowl will be somewhere in the vicinity of  $8" \pm 0.25"$ .

Don't count on using the bowl for anything that requires greater precision!

# Standard errors

Now think about forming an estimate of  $\theta$  from a noisy sample:

- On average across many samples, my estimator  $\hat{\theta}_N$  is close to the right answer ( $\theta$ ).
- But individual estimates vary from the average by about  $\text{se}(\hat{\theta}_N)$ , due to sampling variability.
- So I expect that the right answer is somewhere in the vicinity of  $\hat{\theta}_N \pm \text{se}(\hat{\theta}_N)$ .

Don't reach any scientific conclusions that require greater precision!

# Standard errors

But there's a problem here...

- Knowing the standard error requires knowing what happens across many separate samples.
- But we've only got our one sample!
- So how can we ever calculate the standard error?



# Standard errors

Two roads diverged in a yellow wood  
And sorry I could not travel both  
And be one traveler, long I stood  
And looked down one as far as I could  
To where it bent in the undergrowth...

—Robert Frost, *The Road Not Taken*, 1916

Quantifying our uncertainty would seem to require knowing all the roads not taken—an impossible task.

# The bootstrap

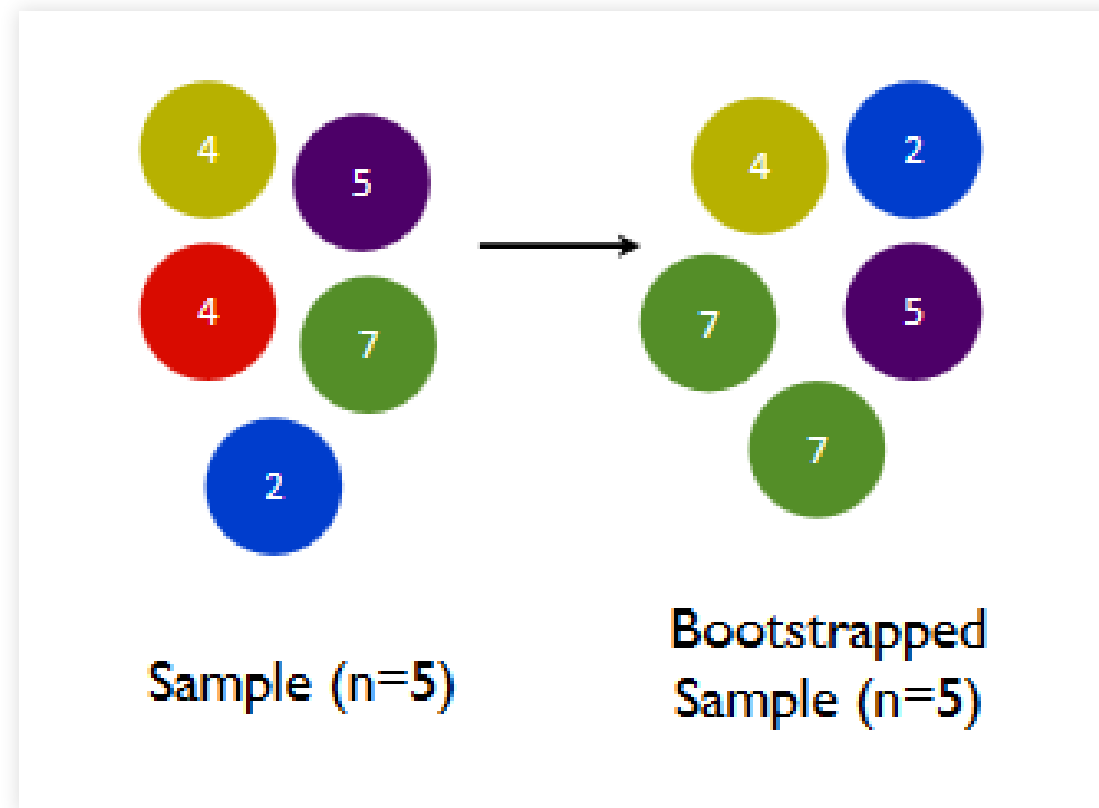
Problem: we can't take repeated samples of size  $N$  from the population, to see how our estimate changes across samples.

Seemingly hacky solution: take repeated samples of size  $N$ , with replacement, *from the sample itself*, and see how our estimate changes across samples. This is something we can easily simulate on a computer.

Basically, we pretend that our sample is the whole population and we charge ahead! This is called *bootstrap resampling*, or just *bootstrapping*.

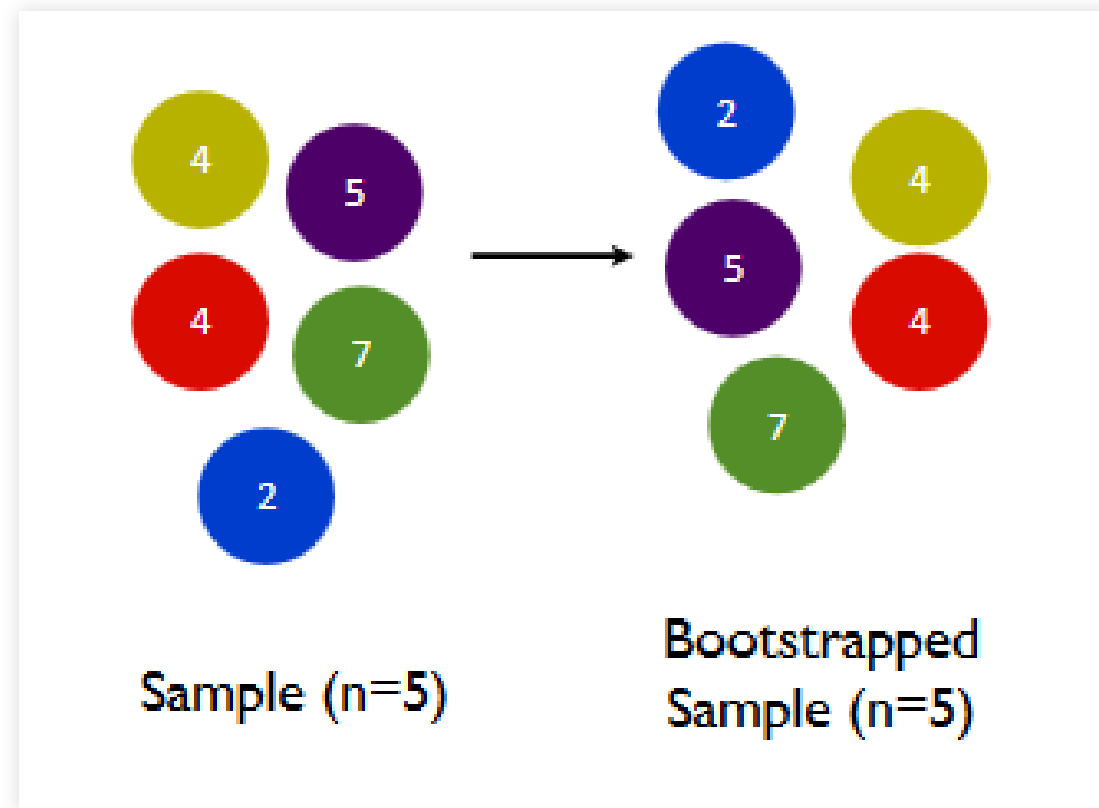
# Sampling with replacement is key!

Bootstrapped sample I



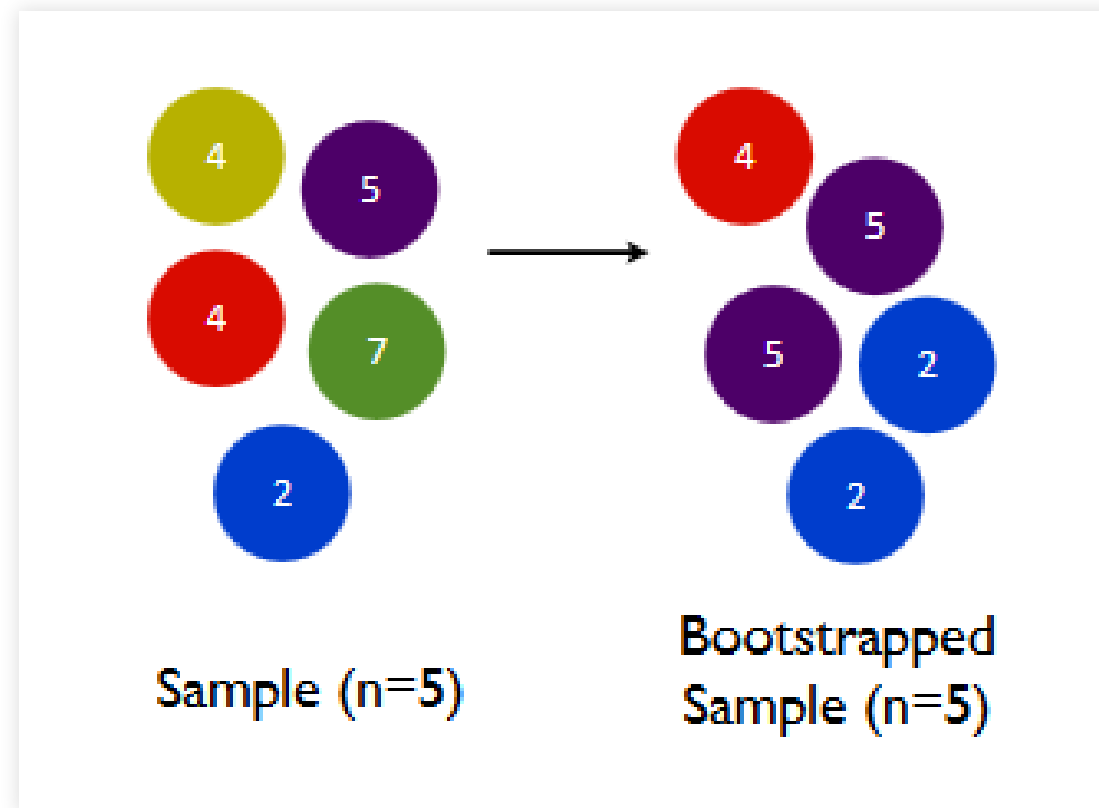
# Sampling with replacement is key!

Bootstrapped sample 2

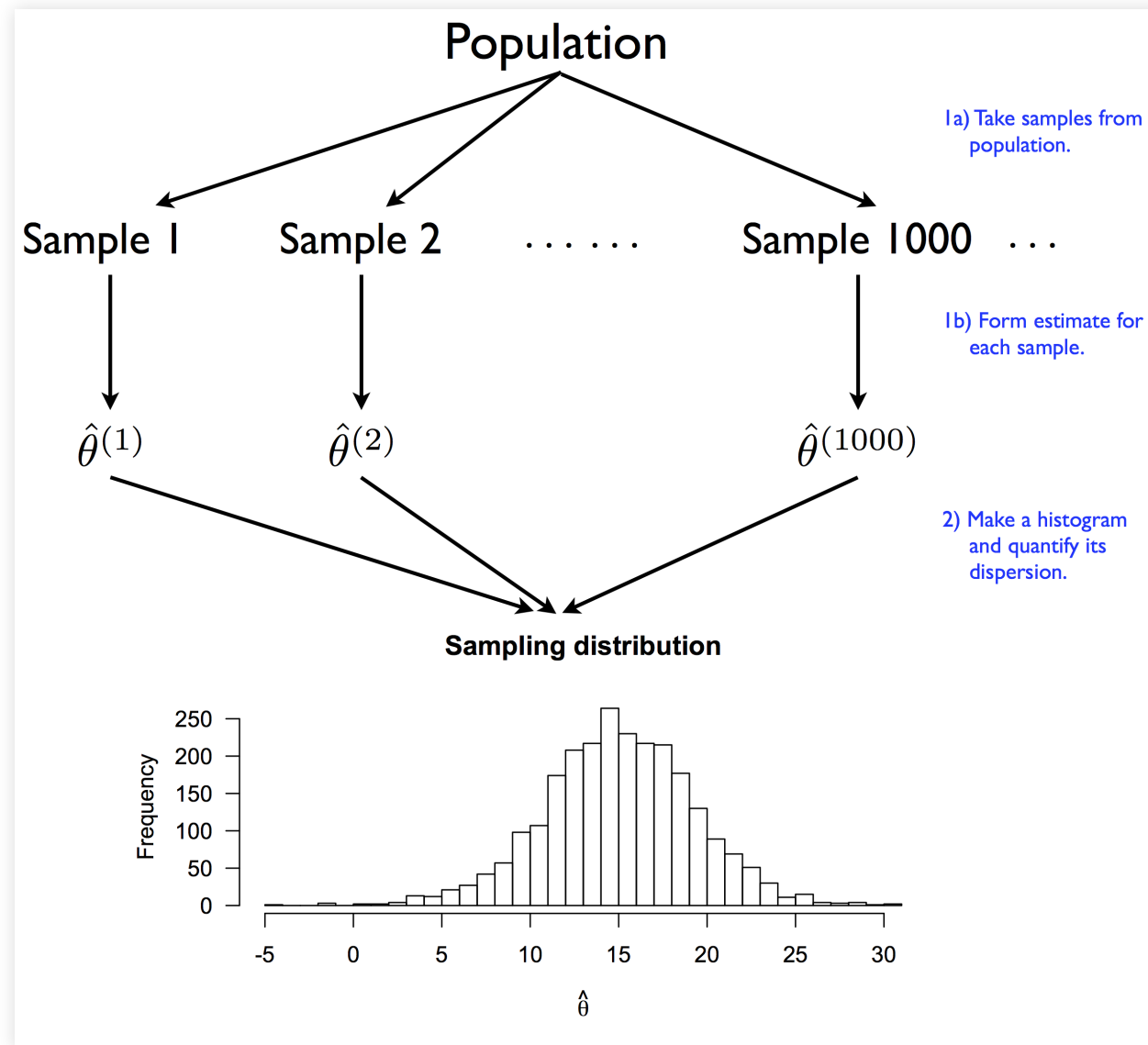


# Sampling with replacement is key!

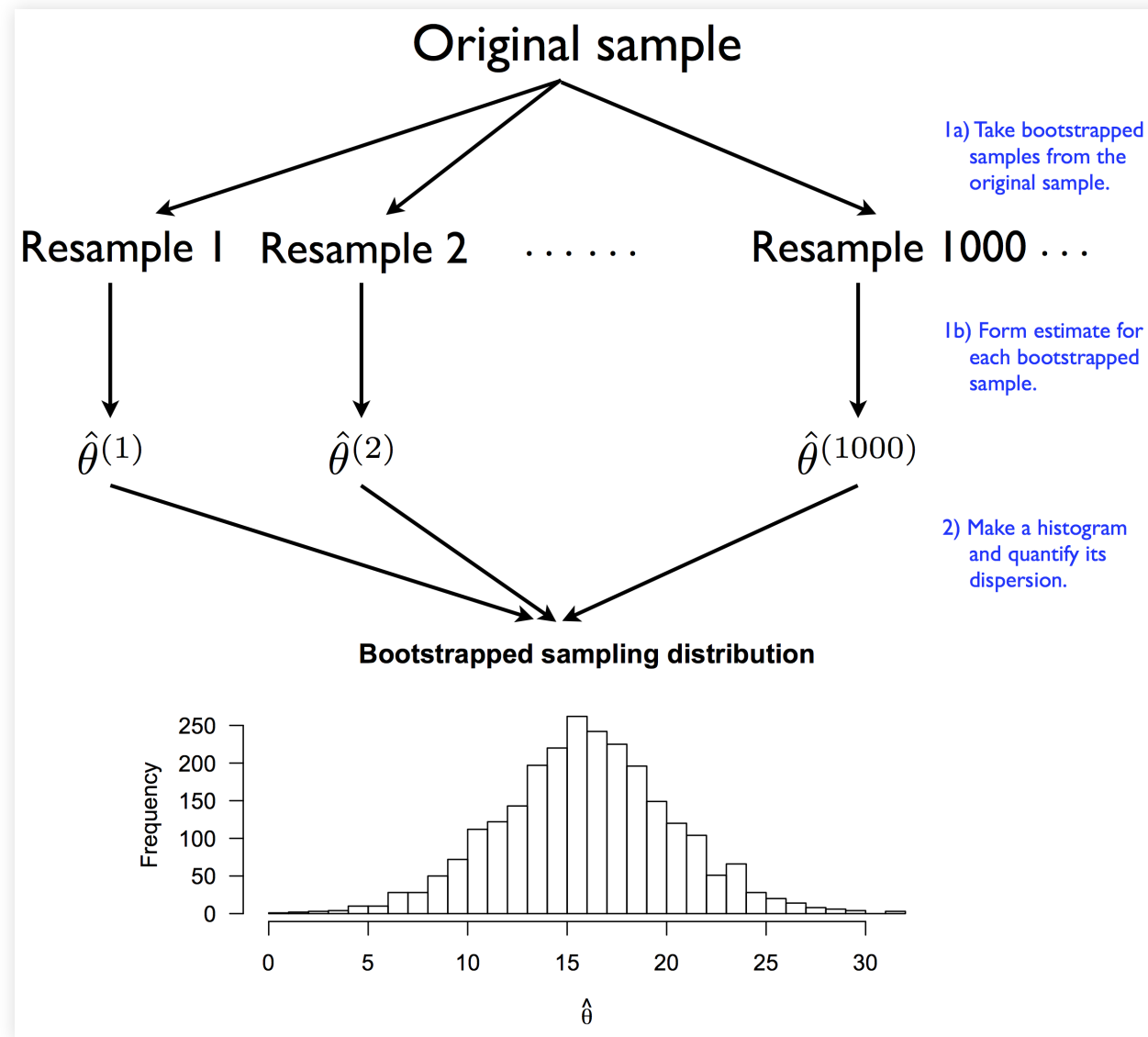
Bootstrapped sample 3



# The true sampling distribution



# The bootstrapped sampling distribution



# The bootstrapped sampling distribution

- Each bootstrapped sample has its own pattern of duplicates and omissions from the original sample.
- These duplicates and omissions create variability in  $\hat{\theta}$  from one bootstrapped sample to the next.
- This variability mimics the *true* sampling variability you'd expect to see across real repeated samples from the population.



# Bootstrapping: pseudo-code

- Start with your original sample  $S = \{X_1, \dots, X_N\}$  and original estimate  $\hat{\theta}_N$ .
- For  $b = 1, \dots, B$ :
  1. Take a bootstrapped sample  $S^{(b)} = \{X_1^{(b)}, \dots, X_N^{(b)}\}$
  2. Use  $S^{(b)}$  to re-form the estimate  $\hat{\theta}_N^{(b)}$ .
- Result: a set of  $B$  different estimates  $\hat{\theta}_N^{(1)}, \hat{\theta}_N^{(b)}, \dots, \hat{\theta}_N^{(B)}$  that approximate the sampling distribution of  $\hat{\theta}_N$ .

# Then what?

Calculate the *bootstrapped standard error* as the standard deviation of the bootstrapped estimates:

$$\hat{se}(\hat{\theta}_N) = \text{std dev} \left( \hat{\theta}_N^{(1)}, \hat{\theta}_N^{(b)}, \dots, \hat{\theta}_N^{(B)} \right)$$

This isn't the true standard error, but it's often a good approximation!

# Then what?

Or form an interval estimate: a range of plausible values for the parameter of interest.

The simplest way is to use the quantiles (e.g. the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles):

$$\theta \in (q_{2.5}, q_{97.5})$$

There's some very hairy mathematics showing that these intervals will contain the true value approximately 95% of the time (or whatever your coverage level is).

# Example

Let's dig in to some R code and data:

`creatinine_bootstrap.R` **and** `creatinine.csv` (both on class website).

We'll bootstrap two estimators:

- the sample mean
- the OLS estimate of a slope

# Summary

- The *standard error* is the standard deviation of the sampling distribution.
- Roughly speaking, it answers the question: how far off do I expect my estimate to be from the truth?
- A practical way of estimating the standard error is by *bootstrapping*: repeatedly re-sampling with replacement from the original sample, and re-calculating the estimate each time.

# Example 1: nonparametric regression

Let's see this example in nonparametric regression, where

$$y_i = f(x_i) + e_i$$

Suppose we use a nonparametric method to form an estimate  $\hat{f}(x)$  (e.g. using K-nearest neighbors), and we want to quantify our uncertainty about how well we've estimated the true  $f$ .

# Example 1: nonparametric regression

- Question: “how might my estimate  $\hat{f}(x)$  have been different if I'd seen a different sample of  $(x_i, y_i)$  pairs from the same population?”
- Assumption: each  $(x_i, y_i)$  is a random sample from a joint distribution  $P(x, y)$  describing the population from which your sample was drawn.
- Problem: We don't know  $P(x, y)$ .
- Solution: Approximate  $P(x, y)$  by  $\hat{P}(x, y)$ , the empirical joint distribution of the data in your sample.
- Key fact for implementation: sampling from  $\hat{P}(x, y)$  is equivalent to sampling with replacement from the original sample.

# Example 1: nonparametric regression

This leads to the following algorithm. For  $b = 1$  to  $B$ :

- Construct a bootstrap sample from  $\hat{P}(x, y)$  by sampling  $N$  pairs  $(x_i, y_i)$  *with replacement* from the original sample.
- Refit the model to each bootstrapped sample, giving you  $\hat{f}^{(b)}$ .

This gives us  $B$  draws from the bootstrapped sampling distribution of  $\hat{f}(x)$ .

Use these draws to form (approximate) confidence intervals and standard errors for  $f(x)$ .



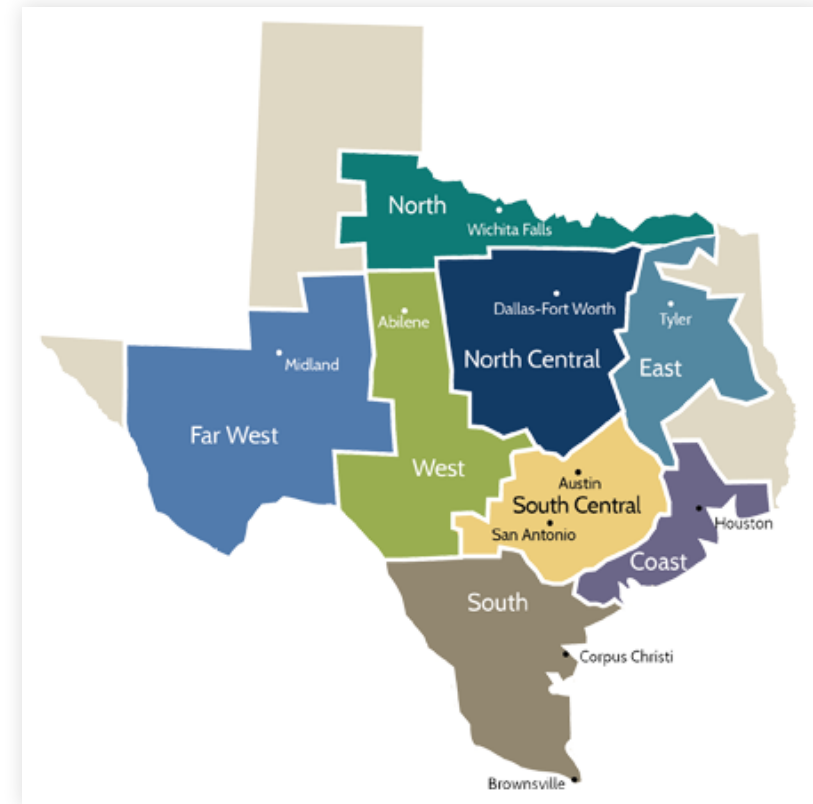
# Predicting electricity demand



# Predicting electricity demand

ERCOT operates the electricity grid for 75% of Texas.

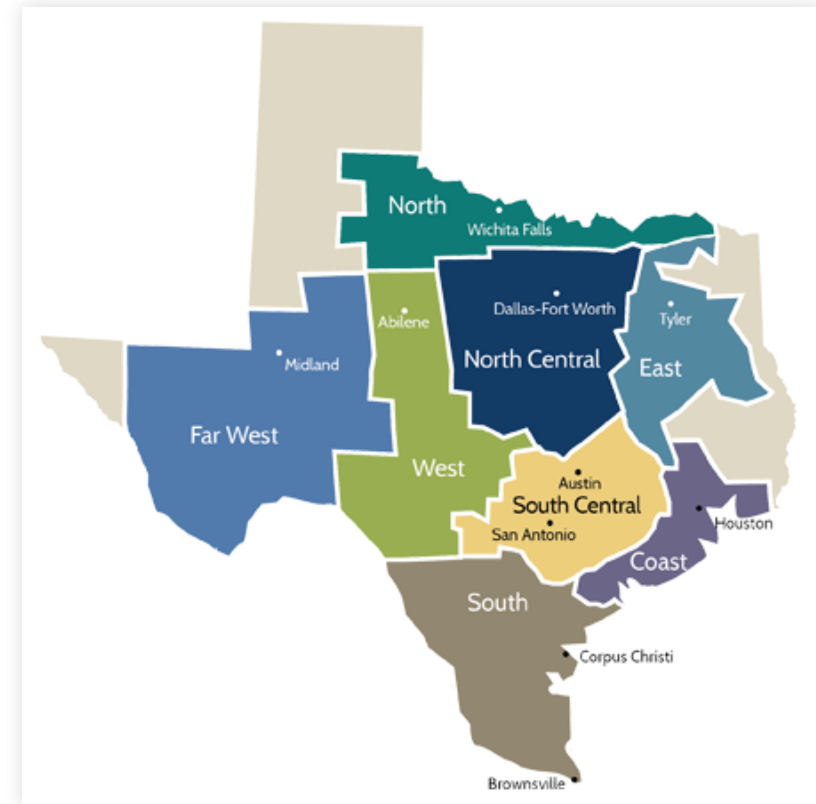
The 8 ERCOT regions are shown at right.



# Example: predicting electricity demand

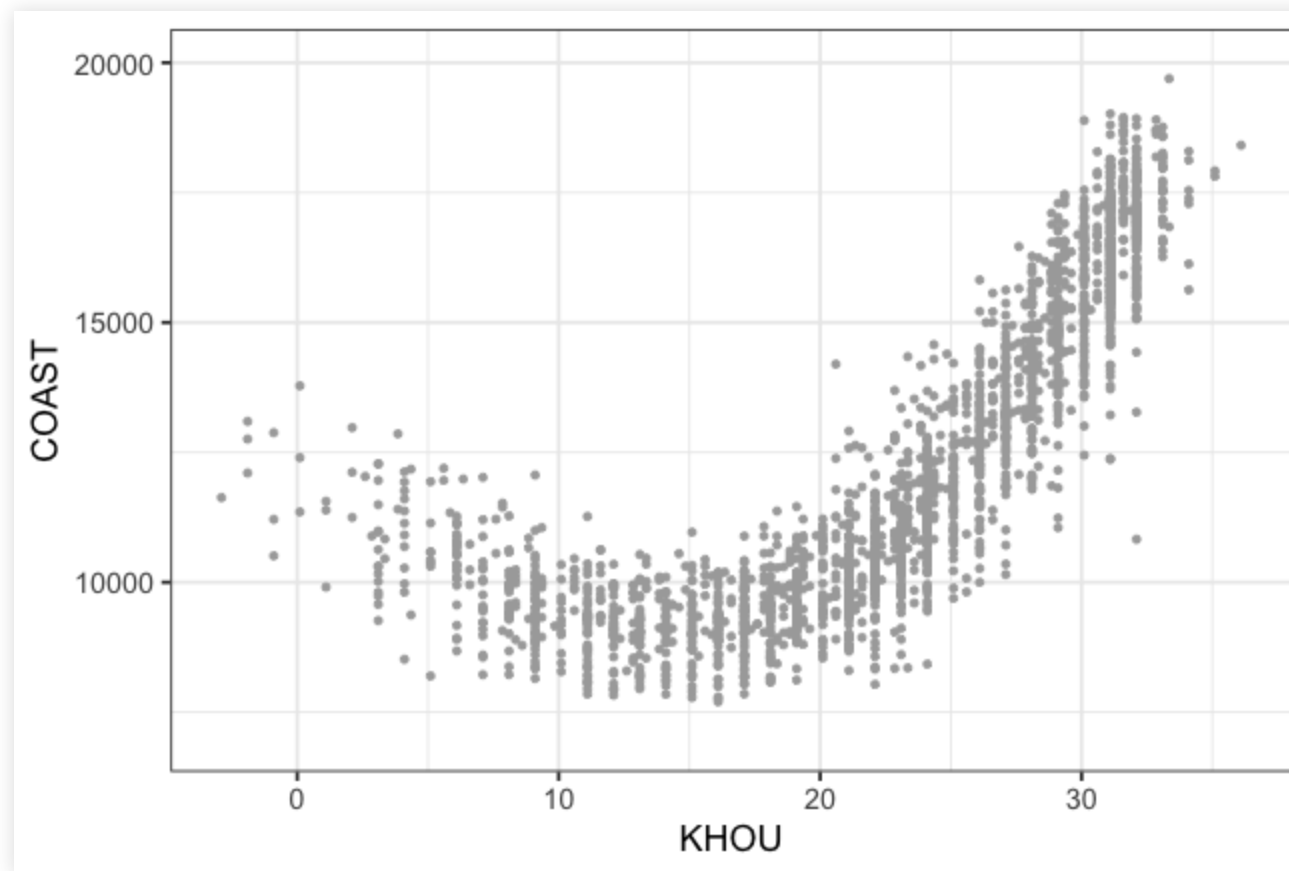
We'll focus on a basic prediction task:

- $y$  = demand (megawatts) in the Coast region at 3 PM, every day from 2010-2016.
- $x$  = average daily temperature measured at Houston's Hobby Airport (degrees Celsius)
- Data sources: scraped from the ERCOT website and the National Weather Service



# Example: predicting electricity demand

```
ggplot(data = loadhou) +  
  geom_point(mapping = aes(x = KHOU, y = COAST), color='darkgrey') +  
  ylim(7000, 20000)
```



# Example: predicting electricity demand

Suppose we want to know  $f(5)$  and  $f(25)$ , i.e. the expected values of COAST when KHOU = 5 and KHOU = 25, respectively. Let's bootstrap a KNN model, with  $K = 40$ :

```
library(mosaic)
library(FNN)

X_test = data.frame(KHOU=c(5,25))
boot20 = do(500)*{
  loadhou_boot = resample(loadhou) # construct a bootstrap sample
  X_boot = select(loadhou_boot, KHOU)
  y_boot = select(loadhou_boot, COAST)
  knn20_boot = knn.reg(X_boot, X_test, y_boot, k=40)
  knn20_boot$pred
}
head(boot20, 3) # first column is f(5), second is f(25)
```

	V1	V2
1	10708.95	11882.67
2	10802.91	11997.82
3	10513.39	11812.59

# Example: predicting electricity demand

Now we can calculate standard errors and/or confidence intervals.

- Standard errors: take the standard deviation of each column.

```
se_hat = apply(boot20, 2, sd)
se_hat
```

```
      V1      V2
172.5259 156.6715
```

- Confidence intervals: calculate quantiles for each column

```
apply(boot20, 2, quantile, probs=c(0.025, 0.975))
```

```
      V1      V2
2.5% 10283.88 11532.70
97.5% 10974.92 12125.45
```

# Example: predicting electricity demand

- Shortcut:

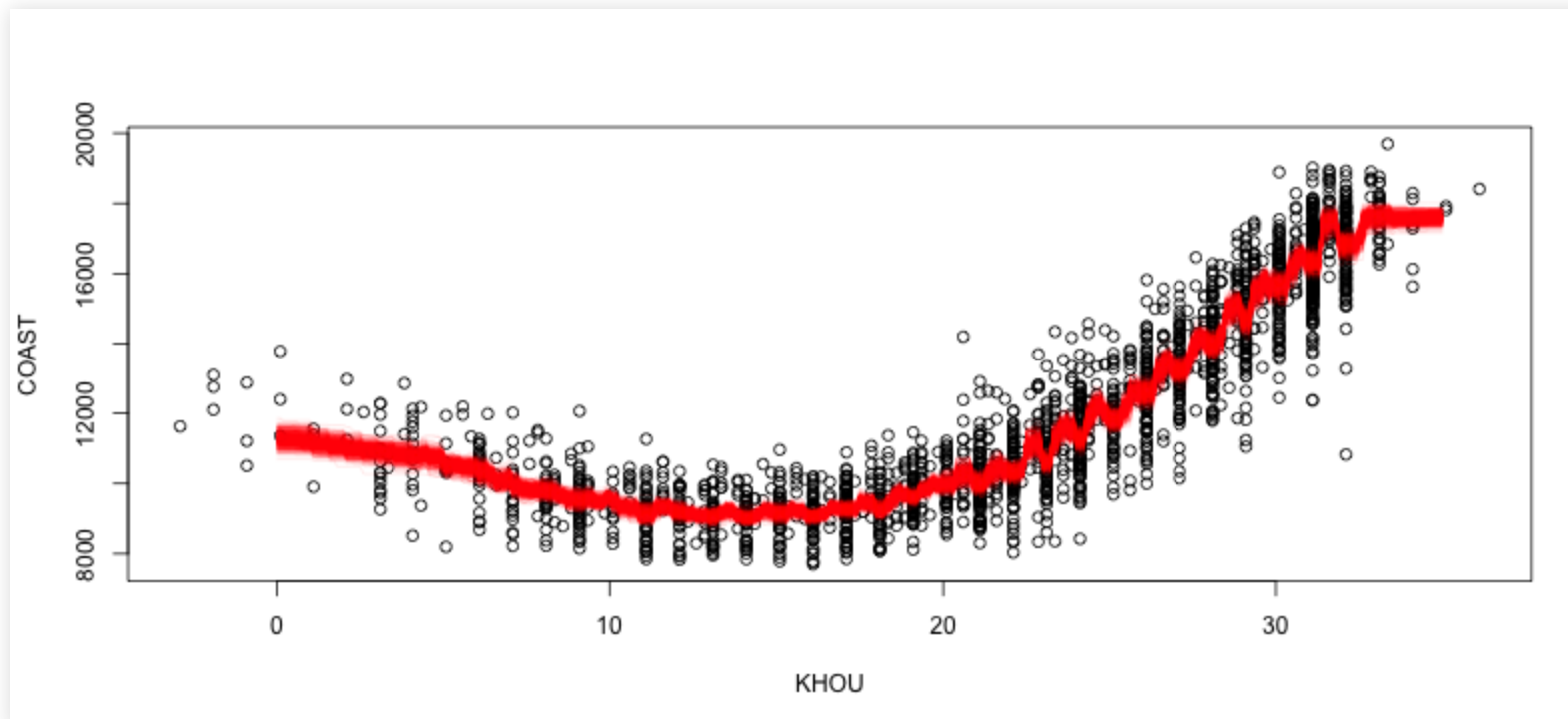
```
confint (boot20)
```

	name	lower	upper	level	method	estimate
1	V1	10283.88	10974.92	0.95	percentile	10638.78
2	V2	11532.70	12125.45	0.95	percentile	11906.23



# A spaghetti plot

```
X_test = data.frame(KHOU=seq(0, 35, by=0.1))
plot(COAST ~ KHOU, data=loadhou)
for(i in 1:500) {
  loadhou_boot = resample(loadhou) # construct a bootstrap sample
  X_boot = select(loadhou_boot, KHOU)
  y_boot = select(loadhou_boot, COAST)
  knn20_boot = knn.reg(X_boot, X_test, y_boot, k=40)
  knn20_boot$pred
  lines(X_test$KHOU, knn20_boot$pred, col=rgb(1, 0, 0, 0.1))
}
```





## Example 2: portfolio modeling

Suppose that you're trying to construct a portfolio: that is, to decide how to allocate your wealth among  $D$  financial assets. Things you want might to track include:

- the expected value of your portfolio at some point in the future (e.g. when you retire).
- the variance of your portfolio's value at some point in the future.
- the probability of losing some specific amount of money (10K, 20% of total value, etc)
- some measure of “tail risk,” i.e. what a bad week/month/year might look like.

Key idea: **use the bootstrap to simulate portfolio performance.**

# Example 2: portfolio modeling

Notation:

- Let  $T$  be our investing horizon (e.g.  $T = 20$  days,  $T = 40$  years, etc), and let  $t$  index discrete time steps along the way.
- Let  $X_{t,j}$  be the value of asset  $j = 1, \dots, D$  at time period  $t$ .
- Let  $R_{t,j}$  be the *return* of asset  $j$  in period  $t$ , so that we have the following recursive update:

$$X_{t,j} = X_{t-1,j} \cdot (1 + R_{t,j})$$

# Example 2: portfolio modeling

Notation:

- A portfolio is a set of investment weights over assets:  $(w_{t1}, w_{t2}, \dots, w_{tD})$ . Note: these weights might be fixed, or they might change over time.
- The value of your portfolio is the weighted sum of the value of your assets:

$$W_t = \sum_{j=1}^D w_{t,j} X_{t,j}$$

## Example 2: portfolio modeling

We care about  $W_T$ : the random variable describing your terminal wealth after  $T$  investment periods.

Problem: this random variable is a super-complicated, nonlinear function of  $T \times D$  individual asset returns:

$$W_T = f(R) \quad \text{where} \quad R = \{R_{t,j} : t = 1, \dots, T; j = 1, \dots, D\}$$

## Example 2: portfolio modeling

If we knew the asset returns, we could evaluate this function recursively, starting with initial wealth  $W_0$  at time  $t = 0$  and sweeping through time  $t = T$ :

Starting with initial wealth  $X_{1,j}^{(i)}$  in each asset, we sweep through from  $t = 1$  to  $t = T$ :

$$X_{t,j}^{(f)} = X_{t,j}^{(i)} \cdot (1 + R_{t,j}) \quad (\text{Update each asset})$$

$$W_t = \sum_{j=1}^D w_{t,j} X_{t,j}^{(f)} \quad (\text{Sum over assets})$$

$$X_{t+1,j}^{(i)} = w_{t+1,j} \cdot W_t \quad (\text{Rebalance})$$

## Example 2: portfolio modeling

But of course, we don't know the asset returns! This suggests that we should use a Monte Carlo simulation, where we repeat the following `for` loop many times.

For  $t = 1, \dots, T$ :

1. Simulate  $R_t = (R_{t1}, R_{t2}, \dots, R_{tD})$  from the joint probability distribution of asset returns at time  $t$ .
2. Use these returns to update  $X_{j,t}$ , the value of your holdings in each asset at step  $t$ .
3. Rebalance your portfolio to the target allocation.

The precise math of the update and rebalance steps are on the previous slide.

## Example 2: portfolio modeling

The difficult step here is (1): simulate a high-dimensional vector of asset returns from its joint probability distribution.

- very complicated correlation structure
- probably not something simple like a Gaussian!

In general, using simple parametric probability models (e.g. multivariate Gaussian) to describe high-dimensional joint distributions is a very dicey proposition.

# A simple approach: bootstrap resampling

Suppose we have  $M$  past samples of the asset returns, stacked in a matrix:

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} & \cdots & R_{1D} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} & \cdots & R_{2D} \\ \vdots & & & \\ R_{M1} & R_{M2} & \cdots & R_{MD} \end{pmatrix}$$

where  $R_{tj}$  is the return of asset  $j$  in period  $t$ .



# A simple approach: bootstrap resampling

The key idea of bootstrap resampling is the following:

- We may not be able to describe what the joint distribution  $P(R_1, \dots, R_D)$  is.
- But we *do know that every row of this  $R$  matrix is a sample from this joint distribution.*
- So instead of sampling from some theoretical joint distribution, we will sample from the sample—i.e. we will bootstrap the past data.
- Thus every time we need a new draw from the joint distribution  $P(R_1, \dots, R_D)$ , we randomly sample (with replacement) a single row of  $R$ .

# A simple approach: bootstrap resampling

Thus our Monte Carlo simulation looks like the following at each draw.

For  $t = 1, \dots, T$ :

1. Simulate  $R_t = (R_{t1}, R_{t2}, \dots, R_{tD})$  by drawing a whole row, with replacement, from our matrix of past returns.
2. Use these returns to update  $X_{j,t}$ , the value of your holdings in each asset at step  $t$ .
3. Rebalance your portfolio to the target allocation.

# Example

Let's go to the R code! See `portfolio.R` on the website.

# Key discussion question

**Why do we draw an entire row of  $R$  at a time?**