A guided tour in targeted learning territory

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1 Introduction

```
set.seed(54321) ## because reproducibility matters...
suppressMessages(library(R.utils)) ## make sure it is installed
suppressMessages(library(tidyverse)) ## make sure it is installed
suppressMessages(library(caret)) ## make sure it is installed
suppressMessages(library(ggdag)) ## make sure it is installed
expit <- plogis
logit <- qlogis

redo_fixed <- c(TRUE, FALSE)[2]
redo_varying <- c(TRUE, FALSE)[2]
## if 'redo_$' then recompute 'learned_features_$_sample_size', otherwise
## upload it if it is not already in the environment.
if (!redo_fixed) {
   if (!exists("learned_features_fixed_sample_size")) {
      learned_features_fixed_sample_size <-</pre>
```

```
loadObject("data/learned_features_fixed_sample_size_new.xdr")
}

if (!redo_varying) {
   if (!exists("learned_features_varying_sample_size")) {
     learned_features_varying_sample_size <-
        loadObject("data/learned_features_varying_sample_size_new.xdr")
}
</pre>
```

Function expit implements the link function expit : $\mathbb{R} \to]0,1[$ given by $\exp it(x) \equiv (1+e^{-x})^{-1}$. Function logit implements its inverse function logit : $]0,1[\to\mathbb{R}$ given by $\log it(p) \equiv \log[p/(1-p)]$.

2 A simulation study

blabla

2.1 Reproducible experiment as a law. We are interested in a reproducible experiment. The generic summary of how one realization of the experiment unfolds, our observation, is called O. We view O as a random variable drawn from what we call the law P_0 of the experiment. The law P_0 is viewed as an element of what we call the model. Denoted by \mathcal{M} , the model is the collection of all laws from which O can be drawn and that meet some constraints. The constraints translate the knowledge we have about the experiment. The more we know about the experiment, the smaller is \mathcal{M} . In all our examples, model \mathcal{M} will put very few restrictions on the candidate laws.

Consider the following chunk of code:

```
run_experiment <- function(n, ideal = FALSE) {</pre>
  ## preliminary
  n <- Arguments$getInteger(n, c(1, Inf))</pre>
  ideal <- Arguments$getLogical(ideal)</pre>
  ## ## 'Gbar' and 'Qbar' factors
  Gbar <- function(W) {</pre>
    expit(1 + 2 * W - 4 * sqrt(abs((W - 5/12))))
  Qbar <- function(AW) {
    A \leftarrow AW[, 1]
    W \leftarrow AW[, 2]
    ## A * (\cos((1 + W) * pi / 4) + (1/3 \le W \& W \le 1/2) / 5) +
    ## (1 - A) * (\sin(4 * W^2 * pi) / 4 + 1/2)
    A * (cos((-1/2 + W) * pi) * 2/5 + 1/5 + (1/3 \le W & W \le 1/2) / 5 +
          (W >= 3/4) * (W - 3/4) * 2) +
      (1 - A) * (\sin(4 * W^2 * pi) / 4 + 1/2)
  7
  ## sampling
  ## ## context
  mixture_weights <-c(1/10, 9/10, 0)
  mins <-c(0, 11/30, 0)
  maxs <- c(1, 14/30, 1)
  latent <- findInterval(runif(n), cumsum(mixture_weights)) + 1</pre>
```

```
W <- runif(n, min = mins[latent], max = maxs[latent])</pre>
## ## counterfactual rewards
zeroW \leftarrow cbind(A = 0, W)
oneW \leftarrow cbind(A = 1, W)
Qbar.zeroW <- Qbar(zeroW)
Qbar.oneW <- Qbar(oneW)
Yzero <- rbeta(n, shape1 = 2, shape2 = 2 * (1 - Qbar.zeroW) / Qbar.zeroW)
Yone <- rbeta(n, shape1 = 3, shape2 = 3 * (1 - Qbar.oneW) / Qbar.oneW)
## ## action undertaken
A <- rbinom(n, size = 1, prob = Gbar(W))
## ## actual reward
Y \leftarrow A * Yone + (1 - A) * Yzero
## ## observation
if (ideal) {
  obs <- cbind(W = W, Yzero = Yzero, Yone = Yone, A = A, Y = Y)
  obs \leftarrow cbind(W = W, A = A, Y = Y)
attr(obs, "Gbar") <- Gbar</pre>
attr(obs, "Qbar") <- Qbar</pre>
attr(obs, "QW") <- function(W) {</pre>
  out <- sapply(1:length(mixture_weights),</pre>
                 function(ii){
                   mixture_weights[ii] *
                     dunif(W, min = mins[ii], max = maxs[ii])
                 })
  return(rowSums(out))
attr(obs, "qY") <- function(AW, Y, Qbar){</pre>
  A \leftarrow AW[, 1]
  W \leftarrow AW[, 2]
  Qbar.AW <- do.call(Qbar, list(AW)) # is call to 'do.call' necessary?
  shape1 <- ifelse(A == 0, 2, 3)
  dbeta(Y, shape1 = shape1, shape2 = shape1 * (1 - Qbar.AW) / Qbar.AW)
}
##
return(obs)
```

We can interpret run_experiment as a law P_0 since we can use the function to sample observations from a common law. It is even a little more than that, because we can tweak the experiment, by setting its ideal argument to TRUE, in order to get what appear as intermediary (counterfactual) variables in the regular experiment. The next chunk of code runs the (regular) experiment five times independently and outputs the resulting observations:

```
(five_obs <- run_experiment(5))</pre>
```

```
## [1,] 0.4533028 0 0.8979460
## [2,] 0.3716077 0 0.9905312
## [3,] 0.3875802 0 0.8080567
## [4,] 0.4008279 1 0.9954100
## [5,] 0.4038325 0 0.9772926
```

```
## attr(,"Gbar")
## function (W)
## {
##
                      expit(1 + 2 * W - 4 * sqrt(abs((W - 5/12))))
## }
## <bytecode: 0x7ff22d36e4a0>
## <environment: 0x7ff22da7e108>
## attr(,"Qbar")
## function (AW)
## {
##
                      A \leftarrow AW[, 1]
##
                      W \leftarrow AW[, 2]
                      A * (cos((-1/2 + W) * pi) * 2/5 + 1/5 + (1/3 <= W & W <=
##
                                   1/2)/5 + (W >= 3/4) * (W - 3/4) * 2) + (1 - A) * (sin(4 * 3/4)) * (Sin(4
##
##
                                  W^2 * pi)/4 + 1/2
## }
## <bytecode: 0x7ff22bd61040>
## <environment: 0x7ff22da7e108>
## attr(,"QW")
## function (W)
## {
##
                      out <- sapply(1:length(mixture_weights), function(ii) {</pre>
##
                                   mixture_weights[ii] * dunif(W, min = mins[ii], max = maxs[ii])
##
##
                      return(rowSums(out))
## <bytecode: 0x7ff1e4ad3638>
## <environment: 0x7ff22da7e108>
## attr(,"qY")
## function (AW, Y, Qbar)
## {
##
                      A \leftarrow AW[, 1]
##
                      W \leftarrow AW[, 2]
##
                      Qbar.AW <- do.call(Qbar, list(AW))</pre>
##
                      shape1 <- ifelse(A == 0, 2, 3)
##
                      dbeta(Y, shape1 = shape1, shape2 = shape1 * (1 - Qbar.AW)/Qbar.AW)
## }
## <bytecode: 0x7ff1e4e855f0>
## <environment: 0x7ff22da7e108>
```

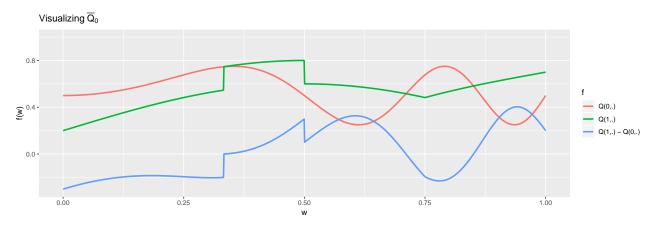
We can view the attributes of object five_obs because, in this section, we act as oracles, i.e., we know completely the nature of the experiment. In particular, we have included several features of P_0 that play an important role in our developments. The attribute QW describes the density of W, of which the law $Q_{0,W}$ is a mixture of the uniform laws over [0,1] (weight 1/10) and [11/30,14/30] (weight 9/10).* The attribute Gbar describes the conditional probability of action A=1 given W. For each $a\in\{0,1\}$, we denote $\bar{G}_0(W)\equiv \Pr_{P_0}(A=1|W)$ and $\ell\bar{G}_0(a,W)\equiv \Pr_{P_0}(A=a|W)$. Obvisously, $\ell\bar{G}_0(A,W)\equiv A\bar{G}_0(W)+(1-A)(1-\bar{G}_0(W))$. The attribute qY describes the conditional density of Y given A and W. For each $y\in]0,1[$, we denote by $q_{0,Y}(y,A,W)$ the conditional density evaluated at y of Y given A and W. Similarly, the attribute Qbar describes the conditional mean of Y given A and W, and we denote $\bar{Q}_0(A,W)=\mathbb{E}_{P_0}(Y|A,W)$ the conditional mean of Y given A and W.

^{*}We fine-tuned (or tweaked, or something else?) the marginal law of W to make it easier later on to drive home important messages. Specifically, . . . (do we explain what happens?)



1. Run the following chunk of code. It visualizes the conditional mean \bar{Q}_0 .

```
Gbar <- attr(five_obs, "Gbar")</pre>
Qbar <- attr(five_obs, "Qbar")</pre>
QW <- attr(five_obs, "QW")
features <- tibble(w = seq(0, 1, length.out = 1e3)) %>%
  mutate(Qw = QW(w),
         Gw = Gbar(w),
         Q1w = Qbar(cbind(A = 1, W = w)),
         QOw = Qbar(cbind(A = 0, W = w)),
         blip_Qw = Q1w - Q0w)
features %>% select(-Qw, -Gw) %>%
  rename("Q(1,.)" = Q1w,
         "Q(0,.)" = Q0w,
         Q(1,.) - Q(0,.)'' = blip_Qw %
  gather("f", "value", -w) %>%
  ggplot() +
  geom_line(aes(x = w, y = value, color = f), size = 1) +
  labs(y = "f(w)", title = bquote("Visualizing" ~ bar(Q)[0])) +
  ylim(NA, 1)
```



- 2. Adapt the above chunk of code to visualize the marginal density $Q_{0,W}$ and conditional probability \bar{G}_0 .
- 2.2 The parameter of interest, first pass. It happens that we especially care for a finite-dimensional feature of P_0 that we denote by ψ_0 . Its definition involves two of the aforementioned infinite-dimensional features:

$$\psi_0 \equiv \int \left(\bar{Q}_0(1, w) - \bar{Q}_0(0, w) \right) dQ_{0, W}(w)$$

$$= \mathcal{E}_{P_0} \left(\mathcal{E}_{P_0}(Y \mid A = 1, W) - \mathcal{E}_{P_0}(Y \mid A = 0, W) \right).$$
(1)

Acting as oracles, we can compute explicitly the numerical value of ψ_0 .

```
integrand <- function(w) {
  Qbar <- attr(five_obs, "Qbar")</pre>
```

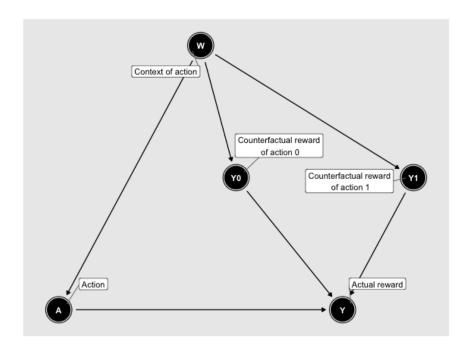


Figure 1: Causal graph summarizing the inner causal mechanism at play in 'run_experiment'.

```
QW <- attr(five_obs, "QW")
  ( Qbar(cbind(1, w)) - Qbar(cbind(0, w)) ) * QW(w)
}
(psi_zero <- integrate(integrand, lower = 0, upper = 1)$val)</pre>
```

[1] 0.08317711

Our interest in ψ_0 is of causal nature. Taking a closer look at run_experiment reveals indeed that the random making of an observation O drawn from P_0 can be summarized by the following causal graph and nonparametric system of structural equations:

and, for some deterministic functions f_w , f_a , f_y and independent sources of randomness U_w , U_a , U_y ,

1. sample the context where the counterfactual rewards will be generated, the action will be undertaken

and the actual reward will be obtained, $W = f_w(U_w)$;

- 2. sample the two counterfactual rewards of the two actions that can be undertaken, $Y_0 = f_y(0, W, U_y)$ and $Y_1 = f_y(1, W, U_y)$;
- 3. sample which action is carried out in the given context, $A = f_a(W, U_a)$;
- 4. define the corresponding reward, $Y = AY_1 + (1 A)Y_0$;
- 5. summarize the course of the experiment with the observation O = (W, A, Y), thus concealing Y_0 and Y_1 .

The above description of the experiment run_experiment is useful to reinforce what it means to run the "ideal" experiment by setting argument ideal to TRUE in a call to run_experiment. Doing so triggers a modification of the nature of the experiment, enforcing that the counterfactual rewards Y_0 and Y_1 be part of the summary of the experiment eventually. In light of the above enumeration, $\mathbb{O} \equiv (W, Y_0, Y_1, A, Y)$ is output, as opposed to its summary measure O. This defines another experiment and its law, that we denote \mathbb{P}_0 .

It is straightforward to show[†] that

$$\psi_0 = \mathcal{E}_{\mathbb{P}_0}(Y_1 - Y_0) = \mathcal{E}_{\mathbb{P}_0}(Y_1) - \mathcal{E}_{\mathbb{P}_0}(Y_0). \tag{2}$$

Thus, ψ_0 describes the average difference of the two counterfactual rewards. In other words, ψ_0 quantifies the difference in average of the reward one would get in a world where one would always enforce action a=1 with the reward one would get in a world where one would always enforce action a=0. This said, it is worth emphasizing that ψ_0 is a well-defined parameter beyond its causal interpretation, and that it describes a standardized association between the action A and reward Y.

To conclude this subsection, we use our position as oracles to sample observations from the ideal experiment. We call run_experiment with its argument ideal set to TRUE in order to numerically approximate ψ_0 . By the law of large numbers, the following code approximates ψ_0 and shows it approximate value.

```
B <- 1e6
ideal_obs <- run_experiment(B, ideal = TRUE)
(psi_approx <- mean(ideal_obs[, "Yone"] - ideal_obs[, "Yzero"]))</pre>
```

[1] 0.08332233

The object psi_approx contains an approximation to ψ_0 based on B observations from the ideal experiment. The random sampling of observations results in uncertainty in the numerical approximation of ψ_0 . This uncertainty can be quantified by constructing a 95% confidence interval for ψ_0 . The central limit theorem and Slutsky's lemma[‡] allow us to build such an interval as follows.

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{P}_{0}}(Y_{a}) &= \int \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{P}_{0}}(Y_{a} \mid W = w) dQ_{0,W}(w) = \int \mathbf{E}_{\mathbb{P}_{0}}(Y_{a} \mid A = a, W = w) dQ_{0,W}(w) \\ &= \int \mathbf{E}_{P_{0}}(Y \mid A = a, W = w) dQ_{0,W}(w) = \int \bar{Q}_{0}(a, W) dQ_{0,W}(w). \end{split}$$

The second equality follows from the conditional independence of the counterfactual rewards (Y_0, Y_1) and action A given W (in words, the randomization assumption " $(Y_0, Y_1) \perp A \mid W$ " is met under \mathbb{P}_0). The third equality results from the facts that the observed reward Y equals the counterfactual reward Y_a when A=a (in words, the consistency assumption " $Y_a=Y\mid A=a$ " is met under \mathbb{P}_0) and that $\Pr_{P_0}(\ell \bar{G}_0(a,W)>0)=1$ (in words, the positivity assumption is met under P_0 — this is needed for $\mathbb{E}_{P_0}(Y\mid A=a,W)$ to be well-defined).

 $\operatorname{E}_{P_0}(Y\mid A=a,W)$ to be well-defined). ${}^{\ddagger}\operatorname{Let} X_1,\ldots,X_n$ be independently drawn from a law such that $\sigma^2\equiv\operatorname{Var}(X_1)$ is finite. Let $m\equiv\operatorname{E}(X_1)$ and $\bar{X}_n\equiv n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ be the empirical mean. It holds that $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X}_n-m)$ converges in law as n grows to the centered Gaussian law with variance σ^2 . Moreover, if σ^2_n is a (positive) consistent estimator of σ^2 , then $\sqrt{n}/\sigma_n(\bar{X}_n-m)$ converges in law to the standard normal law. The empirical variance $n^{-1}\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i-\bar{X}_n)^2$ is such an estimator. In conclusion, denoting by Φ the standard normal

[†]For a = 0, 1,

```
sd_approx <- sd(ideal_obs[, "Yone"] - ideal_obs[, "Yzero"])
alpha <- 0.05
(psi_approx_CI <- psi_approx + c(-1, 1) * qnorm(1 - alpha / 2) * sd_approx / sqrt(B))</pre>
```

[1] 0.08271472 0.08392994

We note that the interpretation of this confidence interval is that in 95% of draws of size B from the ideal data generating experiment, the true value of ψ_0 will be contained in the generated confidence interval.



As discussed above, parameter ψ_0 (2) is the difference in average rewards if we enforce action a=1 rather than a=0. An alternative way to describe the rewards under different actions involves quantiles as opposed to averages.

Let $Q_{0,Y}(y,A,W) = \int_0^y q_{0,Y}(u,A,W)du$ be the conditional cumulative distribution of reward Y given A and W, evaluated at $y \in]0,1[$, that is implied by P_0 . For each action $a \in \{0,1\}$ and $c \in [0,1]$, introduce

$$\gamma_{0,a,c} \equiv \inf \left\{ y \in]0,1[: \int Q_{0,Y}(y,a,w)dQ_{0,W}(w) \ge c \right\}.$$
(3)

It is not difficult to check (see Problem 1 below) that

$$\gamma_{0,a,c} = \inf \{ y \in]0,1[: \Pr_{\mathbb{P}_0}(Y_a \le y) \ge c \}.$$
 (4)

Thus, $\gamma_{0,a,c}$ can be interpreted as a covariate-adjusted c-th quantile reward when action a is enforced. The difference

$$\delta_{0,c} \equiv \gamma_{0,1,c} - \gamma_{0,0,c}$$

is the c-th quantile counterpart to parameter ψ_0 (2).

- 1. Prove (4).
- 2. Compute the numerical value of $\gamma_{0,a,c}$ for each $(a,c) \in \{0,1\} \times \{1/4,1/2,3/4\}$ using the appropriate attributes of five_obs. Based on these results, report the numerical value of $\delta_{0,c}$ for each $c \in \{1/4,1/2,3/4\}$.
- 3. Approximate the numerical values of $\gamma_{0,a,c}$ for each $(a,c) \in \{0,1\} \times \{1/4,1/2,3/4\}$ by drawing a large sample from the "ideal" data experiment and using empirical quantile estimates. Deduce from these results a numerical approximation to $\delta_{0,c}$ for $c \in \{1/4,1/2,3/4\}$. Confirm that your results closely match those obtained in the previous problem.
- **2.3** The parameter of interest, second pass. Suppose we know beforehand that O drawn from P_0 takes its values in $\mathcal{O} \equiv [0,1] \times \{0,1\} \times [0,1]$ and that $\bar{G}(W) = P_0(A=1|W)$ is bounded away from zero and one $Q_{0,W}$ -almost surely (this is the case indeed). Then we can define model \mathcal{M} as the set of all laws P on \mathcal{O} such that $\bar{G}(W) \equiv P(A=1|W)$ is bounded away from zero and one Q_W -almost surely, where Q_W is the marginal law of W under P.

distribution function, $[\bar{X}_n \pm \Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha)\sigma_n/\sqrt{n}]$ is a confidence interval for m with asymptotic level $(1-2\alpha)$.

Let us also define generically \bar{Q} as

$$\bar{Q}(A, W) \equiv E_P(Y|A, W)$$
,

where, for simplicity, we have suppressed the dependence of \bar{Q} on P. Central to our approach is viewing ψ_0 as the value at P_0 of the statistical mapping Ψ from \mathcal{M} to [0,1] characterized by

$$\Psi(P) \equiv \int \left(\bar{Q}(1, w) - \bar{Q}(0, w)\right) dQ_W(w)$$

$$= \mathcal{E}_P\left(\bar{Q}(1, W) - \bar{Q}(0, W)\right),$$
(5)

a clear extension of (1). For instance, although the law $\Pi_0 \in \mathcal{M}$ encoded by default (i.e., with h=0) in run_another_experiment defined below differs starkly from P_0 ,

```
run_another_experiment <- function(n, h = 0) {</pre>
  ## preliminary
  n <- Arguments$getInteger(n, c(1, Inf))</pre>
  h <- Arguments$getNumeric(h)
  ## ## 'Gbar' and 'Qbar' factors
  Gbar <- function(W) {</pre>
    sin((1 + W) * pi / 6)
  Qbar <- function(AW, hh = h) {
    A \leftarrow AW[, 1]
    W \leftarrow AW[, 2]
    expit( logit( A * W + (1 - A) * W^2 ) +
            hh * 10 * sqrt(W) * A )
  }
  ## sampling
  ## ## context
  W \leftarrow runif(n, min = 1/10, max = 9/10)
  ## ## action undertaken
  A <- rbinom(n, size = 1, prob = Gbar(W))
  ## ## reward
  shape1 < -4
  QAW <- Qbar(cbind(A, W))
  Y <- rbeta(n, shape1 = shape1, shape2 = shape1 * (1 - QAW) / QAW)
  ## ## observation
  obs \leftarrow cbind(W = W, A = A, Y = Y)
  attr(obs, "Gbar") <- Gbar</pre>
  attr(obs, "Qbar") <- Qbar</pre>
  attr(obs, "QW") <- function(x){dunif(x, min = 1/10, max = 9/10)}
  attr(obs, "shape1") <- shape1</pre>
  attr(obs, "qY") <- function(AW, Y, Qbar, shape1){</pre>
    A \leftarrow AW[,1]; W \leftarrow AW[,2]
    Qbar.AW <- do.call(Qbar, list(AW))</pre>
    dbeta(Y, shape1 = shape1, shape2 = shape1 * (1 - Qbar.AW) / Qbar.AW)
  }
  ##
  return(obs)
}
```

the parameter $\Psi(\Pi_0)$ is well defined. Straightforward algebra confirms that $\Psi(\Pi_0) = 59/300$, which is confirmed by our numeric computation below.

```
five_obs_from_another_experiment <- run_another_experiment(5)
another_integrand <- function(w) {
   Qbar <- attr(five_obs_from_another_experiment, "Qbar")
   QW <- attr(five_obs_from_another_experiment, "QW")
   ( Qbar(cbind(1, w)) - Qbar(cbind(0, w)) ) * QW(w)
}
(psi_Pi_zero <- integrate(another_integrand, lower = 0, upper = 1)$val)</pre>
```

[1] 0.1966687



As above, we define $q_Y(y, A, W)$ to be the conditional density of Y given A and W, evaluated at y, that is implied by a generic $P \in \mathcal{M}$. Similarly, we use Q_Y to denote the corresponding cumulative distribution function. The covariate-adjusted c-th quantile reward for action $a \in \{0, 1\}$ may be viewed as a mapping $\Gamma_{a,c}$ from \mathcal{M} to [0, 1] characterized by

$$\Gamma_{a,c}(P) = \inf \left\{ y \in \left[0, 1\right[: \int Q_Y(y, a, w) dQ_W(w) \ge c \right\}.$$

The difference in c-th quantile rewards may similarly be viewed as a mapping Δ_c from \mathcal{M} to [0, 1], characterized by $\Delta_c(P) \equiv \Gamma_{1,c}(P) - \Gamma_{0,c}(P)$.

- 1. Compute the numerical value of $\Gamma_{a,c}(\Pi_0)$ for $(a,c) \in \{0,1\} \times \{1/4,1/2,3/4\}$ using the appropriate attributes of five_obs_from_another_experiment. Based on these results, report the numerical value of $\Delta_c(\Pi_0)$ for each $c \in \{1/4,1/2,3/4\}$.
- 2. Approximate the value of $\Gamma_{0,a,c}(\Pi_0)$ for $(a,c) \in \{0,1\} \times \{1/4,1/2,3/4\}$ by drawing a large sample from the "ideal" data experiment and using empirical quantile estimates. Deduce from these results a numerical approximation to $\Delta_{0,c}(\Pi_0)$ for each $c \in \{1/4,1/2,3/4\}$. Confirm that your results closely match those obtained in the previous problem.
- 3. Building upon the code you wrote to solve the previous problem, construct a confidence interval with asymptotic level 95% for $\Delta_{0,c}(\Pi_0)$, with $c \in \{1/4, 1/2, 3/4\}$.
- 2.4 The parameter of interest, third pass. In the previous subsection, we reoriented our view of the target parameter to be that of a statistical functional of the law of the observed data. Specifically, we viewed the parameter as a function of specific features of the observed data law, namely Q_W and \bar{Q} . It is

[§]Let X_1, \ldots, X_n be independently drawn from a continuous distribution function F. Set $p \in]0,1[$ and, assuming that n is large, find $k \ge 1$ and $l \ge 1$ such that $k/n \approx p - \Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha)\sqrt{p(1-p)/n}$ and $l/n \approx p + \Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha)\sqrt{p(1-p)/n}$, where Φ is the standard normal distribution function. Then $[X_{(k)}, X_{(l)}]$ is a confidence interval for $F^{-1}(p)$ with asymptotic level $1-2\alpha$.

straightforward \P to show an equivalent representation of the parameter as

$$\psi_0 = \int \frac{2a - 1}{\ell \bar{G}_0(a, w)} y dP_0(w, a, y)
= \mathcal{E}_{P_0} \left(\frac{2A - 1}{\ell \bar{G}_0(A, W)} Y \right).$$
(6)

Viewing again the parameter as a statistical mapping from \mathcal{M} to [0,1], it also holds that

$$\Psi(P) = \int \frac{2a-1}{\ell \bar{G}(a,w)} y dP(w,a,y)$$

$$= \mathcal{E}_P \left(\frac{2A-1}{\ell \bar{G}_0(A,W)} Y \right). \tag{7}$$

Our reason for introducing this alternative view of the target parameter will become clear when we discuss estimation of the target parameter. Specifically, the representations (1) and (6) naturally suggest different estimation strategies for ψ_0 . The former suggests building an estimator of ψ_0 using estimators of \bar{Q}_0 and of $Q_{W,0}$. The latter suggests building an estimator of ψ_0 using estimators of $\ell \bar{Q}_0$ and of $\ell \bar{Q$



1. Show that for $a' = 0, 1, \gamma_{0,a',c}$ as defined in (3) can be equivalently expressed as

$$\inf \left\{ z \in]0,1[: \int \frac{\mathbf{1}\{a=a'\}}{\ell \bar{G}(a',W)} \mathbf{1}\{y \le z\} dP_0(w,a,y) \ge c \right\}.$$

2.5 Smooth parameters, first pass. Within our view of the target parameter as a statistical mapping, it is natural to inquire of properties this functional enjoys. For example, we may be interested in asking how the value of $\Psi(P)$ changes as we consider laws that get nearer to P in \mathcal{M} . If small deviations from P_0 result in large changes in $\Psi(P_0)$, then we might hypothesize that it will be difficult to produce stable estimators of ψ_0 . Fortunately, this turns out not to be the case for the mapping Ψ , and so we say that Ψ is a smooth parameter mapping. We formalize this notion in Section 2.6, and here provide an informal description of smoothness.

To discuss how $\Psi(P)$ changes for distributions near P in the model, we require a more concrete definition of nearness. To that end, consider the law encoded in run_another_experiment as a function of the input parameter h.

Let $\Pi_h \in \mathcal{M}$ be the law encoded by run_another_experiment for a given $h \in [-1,1]$. Note that $\mathcal{P} \equiv \{\Pi_h : h \in [-1,1]\}$ defines a collection of laws, that is, a statistical model. We say that \mathcal{P} is a *submodel* of \mathcal{M} because $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{M}$. Moreover, we say that this submodel is *through* Π_0 since $\Pi_h \to \Pi_0$ as $h \to 0$. One could

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{E}\left(\frac{\mathbf{1}\{A=a\}Y}{\ell\bar{G}(a,W)}\right) &= \mathbf{E}\left(\mathbf{E}\left(\frac{\mathbf{1}\{A=a\}Y}{\ell\bar{G}(a,W)}\bigg|A,W\right)\right) = \mathbf{E}\left(\frac{\mathbf{1}\{A=a\}}{\ell\bar{G}(a,W)}\bar{Q}(A,W)\right) = \mathbf{E}\left(\frac{\mathbf{1}\{A=a\}}{\ell\bar{G}(a,W)}\bar{Q}(a,W)\right) \\ &= \mathbf{E}\left(\mathbf{E}\left(\frac{\mathbf{1}\{A=a\}}{\ell\bar{G}(a,W)}\bar{Q}(a,W)\bigg|W\right)\right) = \mathbf{E}\left(\frac{\ell\bar{G}(a,W)}{\ell\bar{G}(a,W)}\bar{Q}(a,W)\bigg|W\right) = \mathbf{E}\left(\bar{Q}(a,W)\right), \end{split}$$

where the first, fourth and sixth equalities follow from the tower rule, and the second and fifth hold by definition of the conditional expectation, This completes the proof.

[¶]We temporarily drop the subscript P_0 to save space and note, for the same reason, that (2a-1) equals 1 if a=1 and -1 if a=0. Now, for each a=0,1,

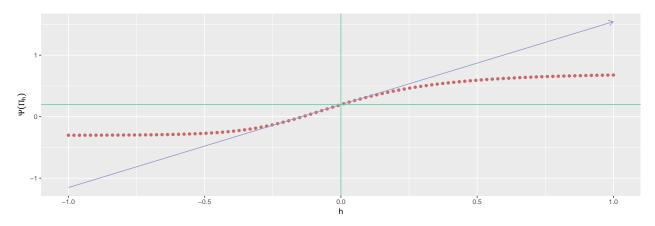


Figure 2: Evolution of statistical parameter Ψ along fluctuation $\{\Pi_h : h \in H\}$.

enumerate many possible submodels in \mathcal{M} through Π_0 . It turns out that all that matters for our purposes is the form of the submodel in a neighborhood of Π_0 . We informally say that this local behavior describes the direction of a submodel through Π_0 . We formalize this notion in the next subsection.

We now have a notion of how to move through the model space $P \in \mathcal{M}$ and can study how the value of the parameter changes as we move away from a law P. Above, we said that Ψ is a smooth parameter if it does not change "too much" as we move towards P in any particular direction. That is, we should hope that Ψ is differentiable along our submodel at P. This idea too is formalized in the next subsection, and we now turn to illustrating this idea numerically. The code below evaluates how the parameter changes for laws in \mathcal{P} , and approximates the derivative of the parameter along the submodel \mathcal{P} at Π_0 .

```
approx \leftarrow seq(-1, 1, length.out = 1e2)
psi Pi h <- sapply(approx, function(t) {</pre>
  obs_from_another_experiment <- run_another_experiment(1, h = t)
  integrand <- function(w) {</pre>
    Qbar <- attr(obs_from_another_experiment, "Qbar")</pre>
    QW <- attr(obs_from_another_experiment, "QW")
    (Qbar(cbind(1, w)) - Qbar(cbind(0, w))) * QW(w)
  integrate(integrand, lower = 0, upper = 1)$val
slope_approx <- (psi_Pi_h - psi_Pi_zero) / approx</pre>
slope_approx <- slope_approx[min(which(approx > 0))]
  geom_point(data = data.frame(x = approx, y = psi_Pi_h), aes(x, y),
             color = "#CC6666") +
  geom_segment(aes(x = -1, y = psi_Pi_zero - slope_approx,
                    xend = 1, yend = psi_Pi_zero + slope_approx),
               arrow = arrow(length = unit(0.03, "npc")),
               color = "#9999CC") +
  geom vline(xintercept = 0, color = "#66CC99") +
  geom_hline(yintercept = psi_Pi_zero, color = "#66CC99") +
  labs(x = "h", y = expression(Psi(Pi[h])))
```

The dotted curve represents the function $h \mapsto \Psi(\Pi_h)$. The blue line represents the tangent to the previous curve at h = 0, which indeed appears to be differentiable around h = 0. In the next subsection, we derive a closed-form expression for the slope of the blue curve from the chunk of code where run_another_experiment is defined.

Exercises

1. Adapt the code from problem 1 in Section ?? to visualize $E_{\Pi_h}(Y \mid A=1, W)$, $E_{\Pi_h}(Y \mid A=0, W)$, and $E_{\Pi_h}(Y \mid A=1, W) - E_{\Pi_h}(Y \mid A=0, W)$, for $h \in \{-1/2, 0, 1/2\}$.

Define a new experiment with law Π'_0 by adapting the code used to define run_another_experiment. Leave all aspects of the new experiment identical to Π_0 , but set

- 2. Repeat the previous problem for this new experiment. Comment on the similarities and differences between Π_0 and Π'_0 for different values of h.
- 3. Re-produce Figure 1 for law Π'_0 . Comment on the similarities and differences between this figure for Π_0 and Π'_0 . In particular, how does the behavior of the target parameter around h=0 compare between laws Π_0 and Π'_0 ?

2.6 Being smooth, second pass. Let us now formally define what it means for statistical mapping Ψ to be smooth at every $P \in \mathcal{M}$. For every $h \in H \equiv]-M^{-1}, M^{-1}[$, we can define a law $P_h \in \mathcal{M}$ by setting $P_h \ll P^{\parallel}$ and

$$\frac{dP_h}{dP} \equiv 1 + hs,\tag{8}$$

where $s: \mathcal{O} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a (measurable) function of O such that s(O) is not equal to zero P-almost surely, $E_P(s(O)) = 0$, and s bounded by M. We make the observation that

(i)
$$P_h|_{h=0} = P$$
, (ii) $\frac{d}{dh} \log \frac{dP_h}{dP}(O)\Big|_{h=0} = s(O)$. (9)

Because of (i), $\{P_h : h \in H\}$ is a submodel through P (also referred to as a fluctuation of P). As above note that the fluctuation is a one-dimensional submodel of \mathcal{M} with univariate parameter $h \in H$. We note that (ii) indicates that the score of this submodel at h = 0 is s. Thus, we say that the fluctuation is in the direction of s. Fluctuations of P do not necessarily take the same form as in (8). No matter how the fluctuation is built, for our purposes the most important feature of the fluctuation is its local shape in a neighborhood of P.

We are now prepared to provide a formal definition of smoothness of statistical mappings. We say that a statistical mapping Ψ is smooth at every $P \in \mathcal{M}$ if for each $P \in \mathcal{M}$, there exists a (measurable) function $D^*(P): \mathcal{O} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $E_P(D^*(P)(O)) = 0$, $\operatorname{Var}_P(D^*(P)(O)) < \infty$, and, for every fluctuation $\{P_h : h \in H\}$ with score s at h = 0, the real-valued mapping $h \mapsto \Psi(P_h)$ is differentiable at h = 0, with a derivative equal to

$$E_P\left(D^*(P)(O)s(O)\right). \tag{10}$$

That is, P_h is dominated by P: if an event A satisfies P(A) = 0, then necessarily $P_h(A) = 0$ too.

The object $D^*(P)$ in (10) is called a gradient of Ψ at P.

This terminology has a direct parallel to directional derivatives in the calculus of Euclidean geometry. Recall that if f is a differentiable mapping from \mathbb{R}^p to \mathbb{R} , then the directional derivative of f at x (a point in \mathbb{R}^p) in direction u (a unit vector in \mathbb{R}^p) is the dot product of the gradient of f and u. In words, the directional derivative of f at x can be represented as an inner product of the direction that we approach x and the change of the function's value at x. In the present problem, the law P is the point at which we evaluate the function Ψ , the score s of the fluctuation is the "direction" in which we approach the point, and the gradient describes the change in the function's value at the point.

In general, it is possible for many gradients to exist**. However, in the special case that the model is nonparametric, only a single gradient exists, which is sometimes referred to as the canonical gradient. In the more general setting, the canonical gradient may be defined as the minimizer of $D \mapsto \operatorname{Var}_P(D(O))$ over the set of all gradients.

2.7 Revisiting Section 2.5. It is not difficult (though cumbersome) to verify that, up to a constant, $\{\Pi_h : h \in [-1,1]\}$ is a fluctuation of Π_0 in the direction (in the sense of (8)) of

$$\sigma_0(O) \equiv -10\sqrt{W}A \times \beta_0(A,W) \left(\log(1-Y) + \sum_{k=0}^3 \left(k + \beta_0(A,W)\right)^{-1}\right) + \text{constant},$$
 where $\beta_0(A,W) \equiv \frac{1 - \bar{Q}_{\Pi_0}(A,W)}{\bar{Q}_{\Pi_0}(A,W)}$.

Consequently, the slope of the dotted curve in Figure 2 is equal to

$$\mathcal{E}_{\Pi_0}(D^*(\Pi_0)(O)\sigma_0(O)) \tag{11}$$

(since $D^*(\Pi_0)$ is centered under Π_0 , knowing σ_0 up to a constant is not problematic).

In the following code, we check this numerically by implementing the direction σ_0 with R function sigma0_run_another_experiment, which we use to numerically approximate (11) (pointwise and with a confidence interval of asymptotic level 95%):

```
sigma0_run_another_experiment <- function(obs) {
    ## preliminary
    Qbar <- attr(obs, "Qbar")
    QAW <- Qbar(obs[, c("A", "W")])
    shape1 <- Arguments$getInteger(attr(obs, "shape1"), c(1, Inf))
    ## computations
    betaAW <- shape1 * (1 - QAW) / QAW
    out <- log(1 - obs[, "Y"])
    for (int in 1:shape1) {
        out <- out + 1/(int - 1 + betaAW)
    }
    out <- - out * shape1 * (1 - QAW) / QAW * 10 * sqrt(obs[, "W"]) * obs[, "A"]</pre>
```

^{**}This may be at first surprising given the previous parallel drawn to Euclidean geometry. However, it is important to remember that the model dictates fluctuations of P that are valid submodels with respect to the full model. In turn, this determines the possible directions from which we may approach P. Thus, depending on the direction, (10) may hold with different choices of D^* .

```
## no need to center given how we will use it
  return(out)
}
## DEBUGGING:
## 1) drawing 'obs_from_another_experiment' here (duplicated)
## 2) adding definition of 'eic' here (duplicated)
obs_from_another_experiment <- run_another_experiment(B)
eic <- function(obs, psi) {
  Qbar <- attr(obs, "Qbar")</pre>
  Gbar <- attr(obs, "Gbar")</pre>
  QAW <- Qbar(obs[, c("A", "W")])</pre>
  QoneW <- Qbar(cbind(A = 1, W = obs[, "W"]))
  QzeroW <- Qbar(cbind(A = 0, W = obs[, "W"]))</pre>
  GW <- Gbar(obs[, "W", drop = FALSE])</pre>
  1GAW \leftarrow obs[, "A"] * GW + (1 - obs[, "A"]) * (1 - GW)
  out <- (QoneW - QzeroW - psi) + (2 * obs[, "A"] - 1) / 1GAW * (obs[, "Y"] - QAW)
  out <- as.vector(out)
  return(out)
}
vars <- eic(obs_from_another_experiment, psi = 59/300) *</pre>
  sigma0_run_another_experiment(obs_from_another_experiment)
sd_hat <- sd(vars)</pre>
(slope_hat <- mean(vars))</pre>
```

```
## [1] 1.359158
(slope_CI <- slope_hat + c(-1, 1) * qnorm(1 - alpha / 2) * sd_hat / sqrt(B))</pre>
```

[1] 1.353891 1.364425

Equal to 1.349 (rounded to three decimal places), the first numerical approximation slope_approx is not too off.

2.8 Influence functions and the efficient influence function. If an estimator ψ_n of $\Psi(P)$ can be written as

$$\psi_n = \Psi(P) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \text{IF}(O_i) + o_P(1/\sqrt{n})$$

for some function IF : $\mathcal{O} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $E_P(\mathrm{IF}(O)) = 0$ and $\mathrm{Var}_P(\mathrm{IF}(O)) < \infty$, then we say that ψ_n is asymptotically linear with influence function IF. We note that weak convergence of asymptotically linear estimators is implied by the central limit theorem. That is, if ψ_n is asymptotically linear with influence function IF, then $\sqrt(n)(\psi_n - \Psi(P)) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(n)}} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathrm{IF}(O_i) + o_P(1)$. The central limit theorem implies the the right-hand-side converges in law to a centered Gaussian distribution with variance $\mathrm{Var}_P(\mathrm{IF}(O))$.

As it happens, influence functions of regular^{††} estimators are intimately related to gradients. In fact, if ψ_n is a regular, asymptotically linear estimator of $\Psi(P)$ with influence function IF, then it must be true that Ψ is a smooth at P and that IF is a gradient of Ψ at P.

These results, combined with the definition of the canonical gradient, imply that if ψ_n is a regular, asymptotically linear estimator of $\Psi(P)$ built from n independent observations drawn from P, then the asymptotic variance of $\sqrt{n}(\psi_n - \Psi(P))$ cannot be smaller than the variance of the canonical gradient of Ψ at P,

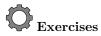
$$\operatorname{Var}_{P}(D^{*}(P)(O)). \tag{12}$$

That is, (12) is the lower bound on the asymptotic variance of any regular, asymptotically linear estimator of $\Psi(P)$. This bound is referred to as the *Cramér-Rao bound*. Any regular estimator that achieves this variance bound is said to be asymptotically efficient at P. Since, the canonical gradient is the influence function of an asymptotically efficient estimator, it is often referred to as the efficient influence function or the efficient influence curve.

It is not difficult to check (do we give the proof?) that the efficient influence function of Ψ at $P \in \mathcal{M}$ can be written as $D^*(P) \equiv D_1^*(P) + D_2^*(P)$ where

$$D_1^*(P)(O) \equiv \bar{Q}(1, W) - \bar{Q}(0, W) - \Psi(P),$$

$$D_2^*(P)(O) \equiv \frac{2A - 1}{\ell \bar{G}(A, W)} (Y - \bar{Q}(A, W)).$$
(13)



- 1. Numerically approximate the Cramér-Rao bound at P_0 and at Π_0 . With a large sample and using regular estimators, can we more precisely estimate $\Psi(P_0)$ or $\Psi(\Pi_0)$?
- 2. Numerically approximate the Cramér-Rao bound at the law encoded for problems 2 and 3 of Section ??. Compare this bound with those computed in problem 1.
- **2.9** Linear approximations of parameters In the last subsection, we learned that the stochastic behavior of a regular, asymptotically linear estimator of $\Psi(P)$ can be characterized by its influence function. Moreover, we said that this influence function must in fact be a gradient of Ψ at P. In this section, we show that the converse is also true: given a gradient D^* of Ψ at P, under regularity conditions, it is possible to construct an estimator with influence function equal to $D^*(P)$. This fact will suggest concrete strategies for generating efficient estimators of smooth parameters. In this section, we take the first step towards generating such estimators: linearizing the parameter.

Drawing another parallel to Euclidean geometry, recall that if f is a differentiable mapping from \mathbb{R}^p to \mathbb{R} , we can use a Taylor series to approximate f at a point $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p$, $f(x_0) \approx f(x) + (x_0 - x) \cdot \nabla f(x)$, where x is a point in \mathbb{R}^p and $\nabla f(x)$ is the gradient of f evaluated at x. As the distance between x and x_0 decreases, the linear approximation to $f(x_0)$ becomes more accurate.

Returning to the present problem with this in mind, we find that indeed a similar approximation strategy may be applied. In particular, if Ψ is pathwise differentiable uniformly over directions, then for any given

^{††}We can view ψ_n as the by product of an algorithm $\widehat{\Psi}$ trained on independent observations O_1,\ldots,O_n drawn from P. We say that the estimator is regular at P if, for any direction $s \neq 0$ such that $\operatorname{E}_P(s(O)) = 0$ and $\operatorname{Var}_P(s(O)) < \infty$ and fluctuation $\{P_h: h \in H\}$ satisfying (9), the estimator $\psi_{n,1/\sqrt{n}}$ of $\Psi(P_{1/\sqrt{n}})$ obtained by training $\widehat{\Psi}$ on independent observations O_1,\ldots,O_n drawn from $P_{1/\sqrt{n}}$ is such that $\sqrt{n}(\psi_{n,1/\sqrt{n}} - \Psi(P_{1/\sqrt{n}}))$ converges in law to a limit that does not depend on s.

 $P \in \mathcal{M}$, we can write

$$\Psi(P_0) = \Psi(P) + (P_0 - P)D^*(P) - \text{Rem}_{P_0}(P), \tag{14}$$

where $\operatorname{Rem}_{P_0}(P)$ is a remainder term satisfying that

$$\frac{\operatorname{Rem}_{P_0}(P)}{d(P, P_0)} \to 0 \text{ as } d(P, P_0) \to 0,$$

where d is a measure of discrepancy for distributions in \mathcal{M} . In (14), we introduced a new shorthand notation. For any measurable function g of the observed data O, we will write $Pg \equiv E_P(g(O))$. Thus, 14 could be equivalently written as

$$\Psi(P_0) = \Psi(P) + \mathcal{E}_{P_0}(D^*(P)(O)) - \mathcal{E}_P(D^*(P)(O)) - \text{Rem}_{P_0}(P).$$

The remainder term formalizes the notion that if P is "close" to P_0 (i.e., $d(P, P_0)$ is small) then the linear approximation of $\Psi(P_0)$ is more accurate.

The equations for the definition of the parameter (5), form of the canonical gradient (13), and linearization of parameter (14) combine to determine the remainder,

$$\operatorname{Rem}_{P_0}(P) = \Psi(P) - \Psi(P_0) - (P_0 - P)D^*(P)$$

$$= \operatorname{E}_{P_0} \left[\{ \bar{G}_0(W) - \bar{G}(W) \} \left\{ \frac{\bar{Q}_0(1, W) - \bar{Q}(1, W)}{\ell \bar{G}(1, W)} + \frac{\bar{Q}_0(0, W) - \bar{Q}(0, W)}{\ell \bar{G}(0, W)} \right\} \right]. \tag{15}$$

Could we add a method for evaluating the remainder?
e.g., using integrate and/or approximating with large sample

Exercises

- 1. [Pending the addition of above method] Use the available code to numerically confirm equation (14) by approximating each term in the equation separately and showing approximate equality between the two sides of the equation.
- 2. Compute $\operatorname{Rem}_{\Pi_0}(\Pi_h)$ for $h \in [-1, 1]$ and plot your results.

2.10 Double-robustness The efficient influence curve $D^*(P)$ at $P \in \mathcal{M}$ enjoys a rather remarkable property: it is double-robust. Specifically, the remainder satisfies

$$\operatorname{Rem}_{P}(\bar{Q}', \bar{G}')^{2} \leq \|\bar{Q}' - \bar{Q}\|_{P}^{2} \times \|(\bar{G}' - \bar{G})/\ell\bar{G}'\|_{P}^{2}. \tag{16}$$

In particular, if

$$E_P(D^*(P')(O)) = 0,$$
 (17)

and either $\bar{Q}' = \bar{Q}$ or $\bar{G}' = \bar{G}$, then $\operatorname{Rem}_P(\bar{Q}', \bar{G}') = 0$ hence $\Psi(P') = \Psi(P)$. In words, if P' solves the so called P-specific efficient influence curve equation (17) and if, in addition, P' has the same \bar{Q} -component or \bar{G} -component as P, then $\Psi(P') = \Psi(P)$ no matter how P' may differ from P otherwise. This property is useful to build consistent estimators of $\Psi(P)$.



Confirm the double-robustness of the efficient influence function by doing the following:

- 1. Will modify to reflect the final structure of 'LAW' methods, etc... Replace Gbar in the law of experiment with some other function of W, and confirm (via numerical approximation) that the mean of the efficient influence function is zero. Repeat for several choices of Gbar.
- 2. Will modify to reflect the final structure of 'LAW' methods, etc... Replace Qbar in the law of experiment with some other function of W, and confirm (via numerical approximation) that the mean of the efficient influence function is zero. Repeat for several choices of Gbar.

I am suggesting that we now start a new section on building estimators. Thus, everything in section 2 is about parameters, efficiency theory etc..., i.e., building up the theoretical tools we need to construct estimators. Now Section 3 will all be about strategies for estimation. Tentative outline (definitely open for discussion): Sec. 3.1: Discuss how we can do the above expansion at a \hat{P}_n and go through the exercise to isolate $P_nD^*(\hat{P}_n)$. Discuss various strategies for dealing with it (i.e., one-step, TMLE, maybe an aside about estimating equations). Sec 3.2: Revisit double-robustness with the below comments? Sec 3.3: Discuss IPTW estimators with known/unknown \bar{G} ? Sec 3.4: Discuss inference for all the estimators? Sec 3.5: Briefly mention other extensions? Double-robust inference?

Let $P_n^0 \in \mathcal{M}$ be an element of model \mathcal{M} of which the choice is data-driven, based on observing n independent draws from P. Equality $\ref{eq:posterior}$ reveals that the statistical behavior of the corresponding substitution estimator $\psi_n^0 \equiv \Psi(P_n^0)$ is easier to analyze when the remainder term $\operatorname{Rem}_P(\bar{Q}_n^0, \bar{G}_n^0)$ goes to zero at a fast (relative to n) enough rate. In light of 16, this happens if the features \bar{Q}_n^0 and \bar{G}_n^0 of P_n^0 converge to their counterparts under P at rates of which the product is fast enough.

2.11 Inference assuming \bar{G}_0 known, or not, first pass. Let O_1, \ldots, O_n be a sample of independent observations drawn from P_0 . Let P_n be the corresponding empirical measure, *i.e.*, the law consisting in drawing one among O_1, \ldots, O_n with equal probabilities n^{-1} .

Let us assume for a moment that we know \bar{G}_0 . This may be the case indeed if P_0 was a controlled experiment. Note that, on the contrary, assuming \bar{Q}_0 known would be difficult to justify.

```
## Debug -- couldn't find obs when I tried to compile
obs <- run_experiment(B)
Gbar <- attr(obs, "Gbar")
iter <- 1e3</pre>
```

Then, the alternative expression 6 suggests to estimate ψ_0 with

$$\psi_n^b \equiv \mathcal{E}_{P_n} \left(\frac{2A - 1}{\ell \bar{G}_0(A, W)} Y \right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{2A_i - 1}{\ell \bar{G}_0(A_i, W_i)} Y_i \right). \tag{18}$$

Note how P_n is substituted for P_0 in (18) relative to (6).

It is easy to check that ψ_n^b estimates ψ_0 consistently, but this is too little to request from an estimator of ψ_0 . Better, ψ_n^b also satisfies a central limit theorem: $\sqrt{n}(\psi_n^b - \psi_0)$ converges in law to a centered Gaussian law with asymptotic variance

$$v^b \equiv \operatorname{Var}_{P_0} \left(\frac{2A-1}{\ell \bar{G}_0(A,W)} Y \right),$$

where v^b can be consistently estimated by its empirical counterpart

$$v_n^b \equiv \text{Var}_{P_n} \left(\frac{2A - 1}{\ell \bar{G}_0(A, W)} Y \right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{2A_i - 1}{\ell \bar{G}_0(A_i, W_i)} Y_i - \psi_n^b \right)^2.$$
 (19)

Let us investigate how ψ_n^b behaves based on obs. Because we are interested in the law of ψ_n^b , the next chunk of code constitutes iter = 1000 independent samples of independent observations drawn from P_0 , each consisting of n equal to row(obs)/iter = 1000 data points, and computes the realization of ψ_n^b on all samples.

Before proceeding, let us introduce

$$\psi_n^a \equiv \mathcal{E}_{P_n} (Y|A=1) - \mathcal{E}_{P_n} (Y|A=0)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1} \{A_i = 1\} Y_i - \frac{1}{n_0} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1} \{A_i = 0\} Y_i$$

$$= \frac{1}{n_1} \sum_{i=1}^n A_i Y_i - \frac{1}{n_0} \sum_{i=1}^n (1 - A_i) Y_i,$$

where $n_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n A_i = n - n_0$ is the number of observations O_i such that $A_i = 1$. It is an estimator of

$$E_{P_0}(Y|A=1) - E_{P_0}(Y|A=0).$$

We seize this opportunity to demonstrate numerically the obvious fact that ψ_n^a does not estimate ψ_0 .

```
## # A tibble: 2 x 2
     type
              bias
     <chr>>
             <dbl>
## 1 a
            1.32
## 2 b
           -0.0431
fig <- ggplot() +
  geom\_line(aes(x = x, y = y),
            data = tibble(x = seq(-3, 3, length.out = 1e3),
                          y = dnorm(x)),
            linetype = 1, alpha = 0.5) +
  geom_density(aes(clt, fill = type, colour = type),
               psi hat ab, alpha = 0.1) +
  geom_vline(aes(xintercept = bias, colour = type),
```

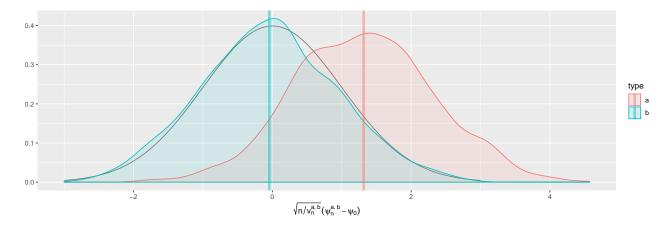


Figure 3: Kernel density estimators of the law of two estimators of ψ_0 (recentered with respect to ψ_0 , and renormalized), one of them misconceived (a), the other assuming that \bar{G}_0 is known (b). Built based on iter independent realizations of each estimator.

Let v_n^a be n times the empirical variance of the iter realizations of ψ_n^a . By the above chunk of code, the averages of $\sqrt{n/v_n^a}(\psi_n^a-\psi_0)$ and $\sqrt{n/v_n^b}(\psi_n^b-\psi_0)$ computed across the realizations of the two estimators are respectively equal to 1.316 and -0.043 (both rounded to three decimal places — see bias_ab). Interpreted as amounts of bias, those two quantities are represented by vertical lines in Figure 3. The red and blue bell-shaped curves represent the empirical laws of ψ_n^a and ψ_n^b (recentered with respect to psi_0 , and renormalized) as estimated by kernel density estimation. The latter is close to the black curve, which represents the standard normal density.

2.12 Inference assuming \bar{G}_0 known, or not, second pass. At the beginning of Section 2.11, we assumed that \bar{G}_0 was known. Let us suppose now that it is not. The definition of ψ_n^b can be adapted to overcome this difficulty, by substituting an estimator of $\ell\bar{G}_0$ for $\ell\bar{G}_0$ in (18).

For simplicity, we consider the case that \bar{G}_0 is estimated by minimizing a loss function on a single working model, both fine-tune-parameter-free. By adopting this stance, we exclude estimating procedures that involve penalization (e.g. the LASSO) or aggregation of competing estimators (via stacking/super learning) – see Section ??. Defined in the next chunk of code, the generic function estimate_G fits a user-specified working model by minimizing the empirical risk associated to the user-specified loss function and provided data.

Comment on new structure of estimate_G and say a few words about compute_lGhatAW.

```
estimate_G <- function(dat, algorithm, ...) {
  if (!is.data.frame(dat)) {
    dat <- as.data.frame(dat)
  }
  if (!attr(algorithm, "ML")) {
    fit <- algorithm[[1]](formula = algorithm[[2]], data = dat)
  } else {
    fit <- algorithm[[1]](dat, ...)</pre>
```

```
fit$type_of_preds <- algorithm$type_of_preds
return(fit)
}

compute_lGhatAW <- function(A, W, Ghat, threshold = 0.05) {
   dat <- data.frame(A = A, W = W)
   Ghat_W <- predict(Ghat, newdata = dat, type = Ghat$type_of_preds)
   lGAW <- A * Ghat_W + (1 - A) * (1 - Ghat_W)
   pred <- pmin(1 - threshold, pmax(lGAW, threshold))
   return(pred)
}</pre>
```

Note how the prediction of any $\ell \bar{G}_0(A, W)$ is manually bounded away from 0 and 1 at the last but one line of compute_1GhatAW. This is desirable because the *inverse* of each $\ell \bar{G}_0(A_i, W_i)$ appears in the definition of ψ_n^b (18).

For sake of illustration, we choose argument working model_G_one of function estimate_G as follows:

```
## A ~ I(W^0.5) + I(abs(W - 5/12)^0.5) + I(W^1) + I(abs(W - 5/12)^1) + I(W^1.5) + I(abs(W - 5/12)^1.5)
```

In words, we choose the so called logistic (or negative binomial) loss function L_a given by

$$-L_a(f)(A, W) \equiv A \log f(W) + (1 - A) \log(1 - f(W)) \tag{20}$$

for any function $f:[0,1] \to [0,1]$ paired with the working model $\mathcal{F} = \{f_{\theta}: \theta \in \mathbb{R}^5\}$ where, for any $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^5$, logit $f_{\theta}(W) \equiv \theta_0 + \sum_{j=1}^4 \theta_j W^{j/2}$. The working model is well specified: it happens that \bar{G}_0 is the unique minimizer of the risk entailed by L_a over \mathcal{F} :

$$\bar{G}_0 = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{f_\theta \in \mathcal{F}} \mathrm{E}_{P_0} \left(L_a(f_\theta)(A, W) \right).$$

Therefore, the estimator \bar{G}_n output by estimate_G and obtained by minimizing the empirical risk

$$E_{P_n}(L_a(f_\theta)(A, W)) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L_a(f_\theta)(A_i, W_i)$$

over \mathcal{F} consistently estimates \bar{G}_0 .

In light of (18), introduce

3 c

0.0201

$$\psi_n^c = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{2A_i - 1}{\ell \bar{G}_n(A_i, W_i)} Y_i \right). \tag{21}$$

Because \bar{G}_n minimizes the empirical risk over a finite-dimensional and well-specified working model, $\sqrt{n}(\psi_n^c - \psi_0)$ converges in law to a centered Gaussian law. Let us compute ψ_n^c on the same iter = 1000 independent samples of independent observations drawn from P_0 as in Section 2.11:

```
if (redo_fixed) {
  learned features fixed sample size <-
    obs %>% as_tibble() %>%
    mutate(id = (seq_len(n()) - 1) %% iter) %>%
   nest(-id, .key = "obs") %>%
    mutate(Ghat = map(obs, ~ estimate_G(., algorithm = working_model_G_one))) %>%
    mutate(lGAW = map2(Ghat, obs, ~ compute_lGhatAW(.y$A, .y$W, .x)))
}
psi_hat_abc <-
  learned_features_fixed_sample_size %>%
  unnest(obs, 1GAW) %>%
  group_by(id) %>%
  summarize(est = mean(Y * (2 * A - 1) / 1GAW)) %>%
  mutate(std = sd(est),
         clt = (est - psi_approx) / std,
         type = "c") %>%
  full_join(psi_hat_ab)
## DEBUG : This was breaking when I compiled.
(bias_abc <- psi_hat_abc %>% group_by(type) %>% summarise(bias = mean(clt)))
## # A tibble: 3 x 2
##
     type
              bias
             <dbl>
##
     <chr>>
## 1 a
            1.32
## 2 b
           -0.0431
```

Note how we exploit the independent realizations of ψ_n^c to estimate the asymptotic variance of the estimator with v_n^c/n . By the above chunk of code, the average of $\sqrt{n/v_n^c}(\psi_n^c-\psi_0)$ computed across the realizations is equal to 0.02 (rounded to three decimal places — see bias_abc). We represent the empirical laws of the recentered (with respect to

 psi_0) and renormalized ψ_n^a , ψ_n^b and ψ_n^c in Figures 4 (kernel density estimators) and 5 (quantile-quantile plots).

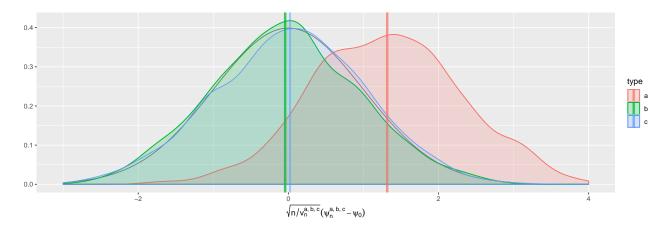


Figure 4: Kernel density estimators of the law of three estimators of ψ_0 (recentered with respect to ψ_0 , and renormalized), one of them misconceived (a), one assuming that \bar{G}_0 is known (b) and one that hinges on the estimation of \bar{G}_0 (c). The present figure includes Figure 3 (but the colors differ). Built based on iter independent realizations of each estimator.

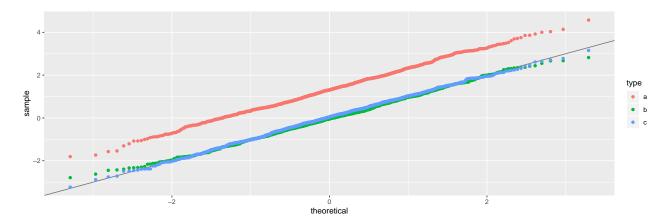


Figure 5: Quantile-quantile plot of the standard normal law against the empirical laws of three estimators of ψ_0 , one of them misconceived (a), one assuming that \bar{G}_0 is known (b) and one that hinges on the estimation of \bar{G}_0 (c). Built based on iter independent realizations of each estimator.

Figures 4 and 5 reveal that ψ_n^c behaves as well as ψ_n^b — but remember that we did not discuss how to estimate its asymptotic variance.



- 1. Compute a numerical approximation of $E_{P_0}(Y|A=1) E_{P_0}(Y|A=0)$. How accurate is it? I would perhaps suggest moving this exercise and the discussion of this parameter to earlier. I.e., could have a whole section on how our target parameter differs from this guy. Then could return to it in Sec. 3 with estimators?
- 2. Building upon the piece of code devoted to the repeated computation of ψ_n^b and its companion quantities, construct confidence intervals for ψ_0 of (asymptotic) level 95%, and check if the empirical coverage is satisfactory. Note that if the coverage was exactly 95%, then the number of confidence intervals that would contain ψ_0 would follow a binomial law with parameters iter and 0.95, and recall that function binom.test performs an exact test of a simple null hypothesis about the probability of success in a Bernoulli experiment against its three one-sided and two-sided alternatives.
- 3. The call to compute_1GhatAW makes predictions on the same data points as those exploited to learn \bar{G}_0 by fitting the user-supplied working model. Why could that be problematic? Can you think of a simple workaround, implement and test it?
- 4. Discuss what happens when the dimension of the (still well-specified) working model grows. You could use the following chunk of code

play around with argument powers (making sure that 1/2 and 1 belong to it), and plot graphics similar to those presented in Figures 4 and 5.

5. Discuss what happens when the working model is mis-specified. You could use the following chunk of code:

```
),
  type_of_preds = "response"
)
attr(working_model_G_three, "ML") <- FALSE
(working_model_G_three$formula)</pre>
```

```
## A ~ I(cos(W)) + I(sin(W)) + I(sqrt(W)) + I(log(W)) + I(exp(W))
```

- 6. Prawing inspiration from (19), one may consider estimating the asymptotic variance of ψ_n^c with the counterpart of v_n^b obtained by substituting $\ell \bar{G}_n$ for $\ell \bar{G}_0$ in (19). By adapting the piece of code devoted to the repeated computation of ψ_n^b and its companion quantities, discuss if that would be legitimate.
- 2.13 Inference based on the estimation of \bar{Q}_0 . Comment on structure of estimate_Q, similar to that of estimate_G.

Demonstrating the inference of ψ_0 based on the estimation of \bar{Q}_0 (and of the marginal law of W). Once based on a (mis-specified) working model, and once based on a non-parametric algorithm.

```
estimate_Q <- function(dat, algorithm, ...) {</pre>
  if (!is.data.frame(dat)) {
    dat <- as.data.frame(dat)</pre>
  if (!attr(algorithm, "ML")) {
    fit <- algorithm[[1]](formula = algorithm[[2]], data = dat)</pre>
  } else {
    fit <- algorithm[[1]](dat, ...)</pre>
  }
  fit$type_of_preds <- algorithm$type_of_preds</pre>
  return(fit)
}
compute_QhatAW <- function(Y, A, W, Qhat, blip = FALSE) {</pre>
  if (!blip) {
    dat <- data.frame(Y = Y, A = A, W = W)
    pred <- predict(Qhat, newdata = dat, type = Qhat$type_of_preds)</pre>
    pred <- predict(Qhat, newdata = data.frame(A = 1, W = W),</pre>
                     type = Qhat$type_of_preds) -
      predict(Qhat, newdata = data.frame(A = 0, W = W),
               type = Qhat$type_of_preds)
  }
  return(pred)
}
working_model_Q_one <- list(</pre>
  model = function(...) {trim_glm_fit(glm(family = binomial(), ...))},
  formula = as.formula(
    paste("Y ~ A * (",
          paste("I(W^", seq(1/2, 3/2, by = 1/2), sep = "", collapse = ") + "),
  ),
  type_of_preds = "response"
```

```
attr(working_model_Q_one, "ML") <- FALSE</pre>
working_model_Q_one$formula
## Y ~ A * (I(W^0.5) + I(W^1) + I(W^1.5))
## k-NN
kknn algo <- list(
  algo = function(dat, ...) {
    args <- list(...)</pre>
    if ("Subsample" %in% names(args)) {
      keep <- sample.int(nrow(dat), args$Subsample)</pre>
      dat <- dat[keep, ]</pre>
    }
    fit <- caret::train(Y ~ I(10*A) + W, ## a tweak
                         data = dat,
                         method = "kknn",
                         verbose = FALSE,
                         ...)
    fit$finalModel$fitted.values <- NULL</pre>
    ## nms <- names(fit$finalModel$data)</pre>
    ## for (ii in match(setdiff(nms, ".outcome"), nms)) {
    ## fit$finalModel$data[[ii]] <- NULL</pre>
    ## }
    fit$trainingData <- NULL</pre>
    return(fit)
 },
 type_of_preds = "raw"
)
attr(kknn_algo, "ML") <- TRUE</pre>
kknn_grid <- expand.grid(kmax = 5, distance = 2, kernel = "gaussian")
control <- trainControl(method = "cv", number = 2,</pre>
                         predictionBounds = c(0, 1),
                         trim = TRUE,
                         allowParallel = TRUE)
if(redo_fixed) {
  learned_features_fixed_sample_size <-</pre>
    learned_features_fixed_sample_size %>% # head(n = 100) %>%
    mutate(Qhat_d = map(obs, ~ estimate_Q(., algorithm = working_model_Q_one)),
           Qhat_e = map(obs, ~ estimate_Q(., algorithm = kknn_algo,
                                            trControl = control,
                                            tuneGrid = kknn_grid))) %>%
    mutate(blip_QW_d = map2(Qhat_d, obs,
                             ~ compute_QhatAW(.y$Y, .y$A, .y$W, .x, blip = TRUE)),
           blip_QW_e = map2(Qhat_e, obs,
                             compute_QhatAW(.y$Y, .y$A, .y$W, .x, blip = TRUE)))
}
psi_hat_de <- learned_features_fixed_sample_size %>%
 unnest(blip_QW_d, blip_QW_e) %>%
  group_by(id) %>%
  summarize(est_d = mean(blip_QW_d),
            est_e = mean(blip_QW_e)) %>%
```

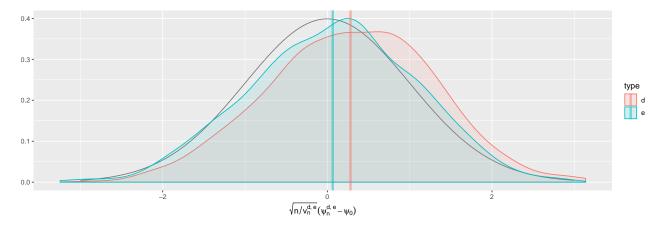


Figure 6: Write caption.

```
mutate(std_d = sd(est_d),
        std_e = sd(est_e),
         clt_d = (est_d - psi_approx) / std_d,
        clt_e = (est_e - psi_approx) / std_e) %>%
  gather("key", "value", -id) %>%
  extract(key, c("what", "type"), "([^_]+)_([de])") %>%
  spread(what, value)
(bias_de <- psi_hat_de %>% group_by(type) %>% summarize(bias = mean(clt)))
## # A tibble: 2 x 2
##
     type
            bias
     <chr> <dbl>
##
## 1 d
          0.281
## 2 e
          0.0655
fig <- ggplot() +
  geom_line(aes(x = x, y = y),
            data = tibble(x = seq(-3, 3, length.out = 1e3),
                         y = dnorm(x)),
            linetype = 1, alpha = 0.5) +
  geom_density(aes(clt, fill = type, colour = type),
              psi_hat_de, alpha = 0.1) +
  geom_vline(aes(xintercept = bias, colour = type),
            bias_de, size = 1.5, alpha = 0.5)
fig +
 labs(y = "",
       x = \exp(n/v[n]^{list(d, e)})*(psi[n]^{list(d, e)} - psi[0])))
```

No that bad! Yet, we know that \sqrt{n} times bias is bound to increase with sample size. To see this, check out the next chunks of code.

```
sample_size <- c(4e3, 9e3)
block_size <- sum(sample_size)

label <- function(xx, sample_size = c(1e3, 2e3)) {</pre>
```

```
by <- sum(sample_size)
xx <- xx[seq_len((length(xx) %/% by) * by)] - 1
prefix <- xx %/% by
suffix <- findInterval(xx %% by, cumsum(sample_size))
paste(prefix + 1, suffix + 1, sep = "_")
}

if (redo_varying) {
  learned_features_varying_sample_size <- obs %>% as.tibble %>%
    head(n = (nrow(.) %/% block_size) * block_size) %>%
    mutate(block = label(1:nrow(.), sample_size)) %>%
    nest(-block, .key = "obs")
}
```

First, we cut the data set into independent sub-data sets of sample size n in { 4000, 9000 }. Second, we infer ψ_0 as shown two chunks earlier. We thus obtain 76 independent realizations of each estimator derived on data sets of 2, increasing sample sizes.

```
if(redo_varying) {
  learned_features_varying_sample_size <-</pre>
    learned_features_varying_sample_size %>%
    mutate(Qhat_d = map(obs, ~ estimate_Q(., algorithm = working_model_Q_one)),
           Qhat_e = map(obs, ~ estimate_Q(., algorithm = kknn_algo,
                                           trControl = control,
                                          tuneGrid = kknn_grid))) %>%
    mutate(blip_QW_d = map2(Qhat_d, obs,
                            ~ compute_QhatAW(.y$Y, .y$A, .y$W, .x, blip = TRUE)),
           blip_QW_e = map2(Qhat_e, obs,
                            ~ compute_QhatAW(.y$Y, .y$A, .y$W, .x, blip = TRUE)))
}
root_n_bias <- learned_features_varying_sample_size %>%
  unnest(blip_QW_d, blip_QW_e) %>%
  group_by(block) %>%
  summarize(clt_d = sqrt(n()) * (mean(blip_QW_d) - psi_approx),
            clt_e = sqrt(n()) * (mean(blip_QW_e) - psi_approx)) %>%
  gather("key", "value", -block) %>%
  extract(key, c("what", "type"), "([^_]+)_([de])") %>%
  spread(what, value) %>%
  mutate(block = unlist(map(strsplit(block, "_"), ~.x[2])),
         sample_size = sample_size[as.integer(block)])
```

The tibble called root_n_bias reports root-n times bias for all combinations of estimator and sample size. The next chunk of code presents visually our findings, see Figure 7. Note how we include the realizations of the estimators derived earlier and contained in psi_hat_de (thus breaking the independence between components of root_n_bias, a small price to pay in this context).

```
gather("key", "clt", -id, -sample_size) %>%
  extract(key, c("what", "type"), "([^_]+)_([de])") %>%
  mutate(block = "0") %>% select(-id, -what) %>%
  full_join(root_n_bias)
root_n_bias %>%
  ggplot() +
  stat summary(aes(x = sample size, y = clt,
                   group = interaction(sample_size, type),
                   color = type),
               fun.data = mean_se, fun.args = list(mult = 2),
               position = position_dodge(width = 250), cex = 1) +
  stat_summary(aes(x = sample_size, y = clt,
                   group = interaction(sample_size, type),
                   color = type),
               fun.data = mean_se, fun.args = list(mult = 2),
               position = position_dodge(width = 250), cex = 1,
               geom = "errorbar", width = 750) +
  stat_summary(aes(x = sample_size, y = clt,
                   color = type),
               fun.y = mean,
               position = position_dodge(width = 250),
               geom = "polygon", fill = NA) +
  geom_point(aes(x = sample_size, y = clt,
                 group = interaction(sample_size, type),
                 color = type),
             position = position_dodge(width = 250),
             alpha = 0.1) +
  scale_x_continuous(breaks = unique(c(B / iter, sample_size))) +
  labs(x = "sample size n",
       y = expression(paste(sqrt(n) * (psi[n]^{list(d, e)} - psi[0]))))
## execute
## rm(learned_features_fixed_sample_size)
## as soon as possible!
```

2.14 One-step estimation. Function set_Qbar_Gbar implements the change of the Qbar and Gbar attributes of obs (which are accessible only by oracles).

```
set_Qbar_Gbar <- function(obs, Qhat, Ghat) {
  attr(obs, "Qbar") <- function(newdata) {
    if (!is.data.frame(newdata)) {
       newdata <- as.data.frame(newdata)
    }
    predict(Qhat, newdata = newdata, type = Qhat$type_of_preds)
}
attr(obs, "Gbar") <- function(newdata) {
    if (!is.data.frame(newdata)) {
       newdata <- as.data.frame(newdata)
    }
    predict(Ghat, newdata = newdata, type = Ghat$type_of_preds)
}
return(obs)</pre>
```

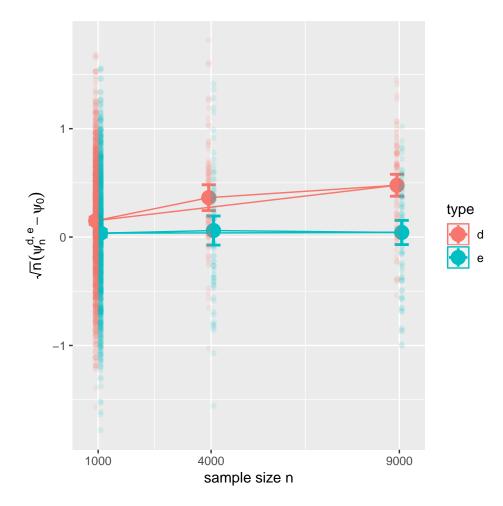


Figure 7: Evolution of root-n times bias versus sample size for two inference methodology of ψ_0 based on the estimation of \bar{Q}_0 . Big dots represent the average biases and vertical lines represent twice the standard error.

```
eic_hat <- function(obs, Qhat, Ghat, psi_hat) {</pre>
  Qbar <- function(newdata) {
    if (!is.data.frame(newdata)) {
      newdata <- as.data.frame(newdata)</pre>
    predict(Qhat, newdata = newdata, type = Qhat$type_of_preds)
  }
  Gbar <- function(newdata) {</pre>
    if (!is.data.frame(newdata)) {
      newdata <- as.data.frame(newdata)</pre>
    predict(Ghat, newdata = newdata, type = Ghat$type_of_preds)
  QAW <- Qbar(obs[, c("A", "W")])
  QoneW \leftarrow Qbar(cbind(A = 1, W = obs[, "W"]))
  QzeroW <- Qbar(cbind(A = 0, W = obs[, "W"]))</pre>
  GW <- Gbar(obs[, "W", drop = FALSE])</pre>
  1GAW \leftarrow obs[, "A"] * GW + (1 - obs[, "A"]) * (1 - GW)
  out <- (QoneW - QzeroW - psi_hat) + (2 * obs[, "A"] - 1) / 1GAW * (obs[, "Y"] - QAW)
  out <- out[[1]]
  return(out)
}
```

We first call function eic_hat to compute the values of the estimated efficient influence at the observations in obs. Constructing the one-step estimators is then straightforward.

```
psi_hat_de_one_step <- learned_features_fixed_sample_size %>%
  mutate(est_d = map(blip_QW_d, mean),
         est_e = map(blip_QW_e, mean)) %>%
  mutate(eic_obs_d = pmap(list(obs, Qhat_d, Ghat, est_d),
                          eic_hat),
         eic_obs_e = pmap(list(obs, Qhat_e, Ghat, est_e),
                          unnest(blip_QW_d, eic_obs_d,
        blip_QW_e, eic_obs_e) %>%
  group_by(id) %>%
  summarize(est_d = mean(blip_QW_d) + mean(eic_obs_d),
            std_d = sd(eic_obs_d),
           clt_d = sqrt(n()) * (est_d - psi_approx) / std_d,
           est_e = mean(blip_QW_e) + mean(eic_obs_e),
            std_e = sd(eic_obs_e),
            clt_e = sqrt(n()) * (est_e - psi_approx) / std_e) %>%
  gather("key", "value", -id) %>%
  extract(key, c("what", "type"), "([^_]+)_([de])") %>%
  spread(what, value) %>%
  mutate(type = paste0(type, "_one_step"))
(bias_de_one_step <- psi_hat_de_one_step %>%
   group_by(type) %>% summarize(bias = mean(clt)))
```

```
## # A tibble: 2 x 2
## type bias
```

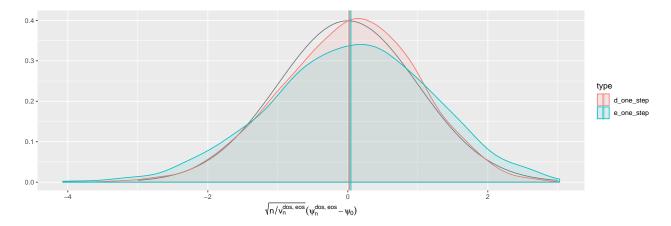


Figure 8: Write caption.

```
##
     <chr>>
                 <dbl>
## 1 d_one_step 0.0189
## 2 e_one_step 0.0379
ggplot() +
  geom\_line(aes(x = x, y = y),
            data = tibble(x = seq(-3, 3, length.out = 1e3),
                          y = dnorm(x)),
            linetype = 1, alpha = 0.5) +
  geom_density(aes(clt, fill = type, colour = type),
               psi_hat_de_one_step, alpha = 0.1) +
  geom_vline(aes(xintercept = bias, colour = type),
             bias_de_one_step, size = 1.5, alpha = 0.5) +
  labs(y = "",
       x = expression(
         paste(sqrt(n/v[n]^{list(dos, eos)}) * (psi[n]^{list(dos, eos)} - psi[0]))))
```

It seems that the one-step correction is quite good (in particular, compare bias_de with bias_de_one_step): bind_rows(bias_de, bias_de_one_step)

What about the estimation of the asymptotic variance, and of the mean-square errors of the estimators?

```
## # A tibble: 4 x 2
```

```
## type sd
## <chr> <dbl>
## 1 d NA
## 2 d_one_step 0.550
## 3 e NA
## 4 e_one_step 0.485
```

The sd (estimator of the asymptotic standard deviation) and se (empirical standard deviation) entries for type d_one_step are very similar: this indicates that the inference of the asymptotic variance of the d-variant of the one-step estimator based on the influence function is accurate. This comes as a surprise, since theory suggests that estimation should be conservative, that is, that the estimator should produce an upper bound to the actual asymptotic variance. On the contrary, the influence function-based estimator of the asymptotic variance is clearly very conservative for type e_one-step. As for the mean square error, it is diminished by the one-step update for type d and enlarged for type e, the d_one_step estimator exhibiting the smallest mean square error.

2.15 Targeted inference.

2.16 Appendix. For later...

```
working_model_Q_two <- list(</pre>
  model = function(...) {trim_glm_fit(glm(family = binomial(), ...))},
  formula = as.formula(
    paste("Y ~ A * (",
          paste("I(W^", seq(1/2, 3, by = 1/2), sep = "", collapse = ") + "),
          "))")
  ),
  type_of_preds = "response"
attr(working_model_Q_two, "ML") <- FALSE</pre>
## xgboost based on trees
xgb_tree_algo <- list(</pre>
  algo = function(dat, ...) {
    caret::train(Y ~ I(10*A) + W,
                  data = dat,
                  method = "xgbTree",
                  trControl = control,
                  tuneGrid = grid,
                  verbose = FALSE)
  },
  type_of_preds = "response"
attr(xgb_tree_algo, "ML") <- TRUE</pre>
xgb_tree_grid <- expand.grid(nrounds = 350,</pre>
                               \max_{depth} = c(4, 6),
                               eta = c(0.05, 0.1),
                               gamma = 0.01,
                               colsample by tree = 0.75,
                               subsample = 0.5,
                               min child weight = 0)
```

```
## nonparametric kernel smoothing regression
npreg <- list(</pre>
  label = "Kernel regression",
  type = "Regression",
 library = "np",
  parameters = data.frame(parameter =
                             c("subsample", "regtype",
                               "ckertype", "ckerorder"),
                           class = c("integer", "character",
                                     "character", "integer"),
                           label = c("#subsample", "regtype",
                                     "ckertype", "ckerorder")),
  grid = function(x, y, len = NULL, search = "grid") {
    if (!identical(search, "grid")) {
      stop("No random search implemented.\n")
    } else {
      out <- expand.grid(subsample = c(50, 100),</pre>
                          regtype = c("lc", "ll"),
                          ckertype =
                            c("gaussian",
                              "epanechnikov",
                              "uniform").
                          ckerorder = seq(2, 8, 2))
    }
    return(out)
  },
  fit = function(x, y, wts, param, lev, last, classProbs, ...) {
    ny <- length(y)
    if (ny > param$subsample) {
      ## otherwise far too slow for what we intend to do here...
      keep <- sample.int(ny, param$subsample)</pre>
      x \leftarrow x[keep,]
      y <- y[keep]
    bw <- np::npregbw(xdat = as.data.frame(x), ydat = y,</pre>
                      regtype = param$regtype,
                       ckertype = param$ckertype,
                       ckerorder = param$ckerorder,
                      remin = FALSE, ftol = 0.01, tol = 0.01,
                       ...)
   np::npreg(bw)
 },
  predict = function (modelFit, newdata, preProc = NULL, submodels = NULL) {
    if (!is.data.frame(newdata)) {
      newdata <- as.data.frame(newdata)</pre>
    }
   np:::predict.npregression(modelFit, se.fit = FALSE, newdata)
  sort = function(x) {
    x[order(x$regtype, x$ckerorder), ]
 },
  loop = NULL, prob = NULL, levels = NULL
```