

# Data adaptive selection of the truncation level

June 30, 2016

## 1 Problem setting

For a single time point intervention, assume  $W$  is univariate and continuous.

Denote  $\Psi_0(\delta) = E_{P_0} \left[ \frac{g_0(d(W)|W)}{g_{0,\delta}(d(W)|W)} Q_{Y,0}(d(W), W) \right]$ .

Under the proper causal assumptions,  $\Psi_0(0) = EY^d$ .

Let  $\delta_n = \operatorname{argmin}_{\delta} MSE_n(\delta) \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_{\delta} E_{P_0} (\Psi_{n,g_n}(\delta) - EY^d)^2$ .

We'd like to find a method that would data-adaptively select a truncation level  $\hat{\delta}_n$  such that  $MSE_n(\hat{\delta}_n) \sim MSE_n(\delta_n)$ .

Minimizing  $MSE_n(\delta)$  (w.r.t.  $\delta$ ) from the data is tough: we would have to estimate the  $MSE'_n(\delta)$  which involves  $(b_0^2)'(\delta) = 2b_0(\delta)b'_0(\delta)$ . Since bias is necessarily as hard to estimate as  $EY^d$  itself, estimating  $MSE'_n(\delta)$  should be hard too.

We have to find a surrogate risk that is easier to estimate from the data. Let  $R_n(\delta) = b_0(\delta) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\sigma_0(\delta)$ . This risk might be easier to estimate, since  $b'_0(\delta)$  should be close to the finite difference  $\frac{\Psi_0(\delta+\Delta) - \Psi_0(\delta)}{\Delta}$ . Since for  $\delta$  large enough  $\Psi_0(\delta)$  and  $\Psi_0(\delta + \Delta)$  are "easy" to estimate, there's hope we can estimate the finite difference.

**We've convinced ourselves that  $\delta_n^* \equiv \operatorname{argmin}_{\delta} \sim \delta_n$  (we sketched a proof of this over email).**

## 2 A method to find $\hat{\delta}_n \sim \delta_n$

### 2.1 Estimating $b'_0(\delta)$

Define the "true finite difference"  $\Delta b_0(\delta) = \frac{b_0(\delta+\Delta) - b_0(\delta)}{\Delta}$

Denote the estimated finite difference  $\widehat{\Delta b}_n(\delta) = \frac{\hat{b}_n(\delta+\Delta) - \hat{b}_n(\delta)}{\Delta} = \frac{\hat{\Psi}_n(\delta+\Delta) - \hat{\Psi}_n(\delta)}{\Delta}$ .

Assume there exist  $1 > \beta \geq 0$  and  $1/2 > \gamma \geq 0$  such that  $b_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{1-\beta}$ ,  $b'_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{-\beta}$ ,  $\beta''_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{-\beta-1}$ ,  $\sigma_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{-\gamma}$ , and  $\sigma'_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{-\gamma-1}$ . Assume also that  $\beta < \gamma + 1$ .

Under these assumptions,  $R'(\delta_n^*) = 0$  implies that  $\delta^{-\beta} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\delta^{-\gamma} = 0$ , i.e.  $\delta_n^* \sim n^{-\frac{1}{2(\gamma+1-\beta)}}$ .

The typical error we make in estimating  $b'_n(\delta)$ , which I'll denote  $\sigma_{b'_0(\delta),n}$ , is the statistical error plus the approximation error. The approximation error is  $\Delta b''(\delta) + o(\Delta)$ . The standard deviation of  $\widehat{\Delta b}_n(\delta)$  can be upper bounded by  $n^{-1/2}\Delta^{-1}\sigma_0(\delta)$ . Therefore

$$\sigma_{b'_0(\delta),n} = \Delta b''(\delta) + n^{-1/2}\Delta^{-1}\sigma_0(\delta) \sim \Delta\delta^{-\beta-1} + \Delta^{-1}n^{-1/2}\delta^{-\gamma}.$$

For a given  $\delta$  and a given  $n$ , let's optimize it wrt  $\Delta$ . Setting  $\frac{d}{d\Delta}\sigma_{b'_0(\delta),n,\Delta} = 0$  yields  $\Delta(n, \delta) \sim n^{-1/4}\delta^{\frac{\beta+1-\gamma}{2}}$ . For this choice of  $\Delta$ ,  $\sigma_{b'_0(\delta_n^*),n,\Delta} \sim n^{-1/4}\delta_n^{-\frac{\gamma+1+\beta}{2}}$ .

We need the  $\sigma_{b'_0(\delta),n} \ll b'_0(\delta)$  to be able to estimate  $b'_0(\delta)$  from the finite difference  $\widehat{b}_n(\delta)$ . For the optimal choice  $\Delta(n, \delta)$ , and **for  $\delta$  small**,  $\sigma_{b'_0(\delta),n} \ll b'_0(\delta)$  is **equivalent to  $\delta \gg \delta_n^*$** .

**Thus, if we are to estimate anything related to  $b'_0(\delta)$ , we need to do it at a  $\tilde{\delta}_n$  such that  $\tilde{\delta}_n = o(\delta_n^*)$**

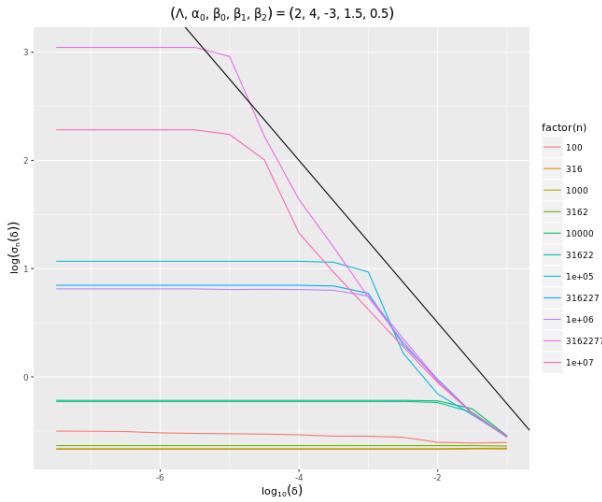
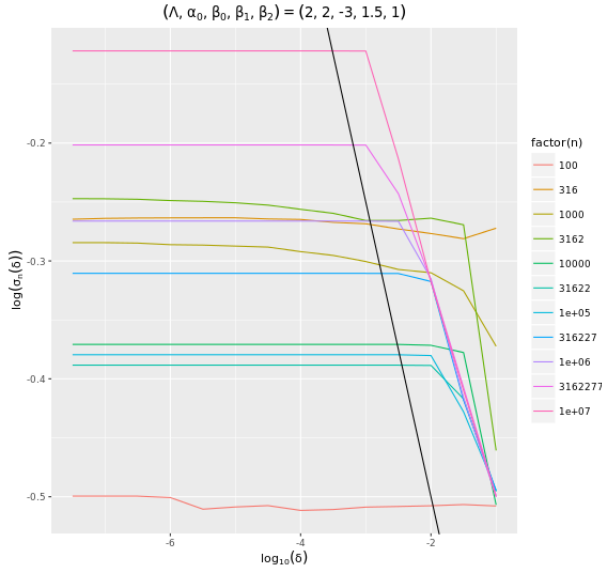
## 2.2 Estimating the rate in $\delta$ of $\sigma_0(\delta)$

Estimating the rate in  $\delta$  of  $\sigma_0(\delta)$  seems to be feasible. For various samples sizes and for a few target parameters, I plotted the  $\log \sigma_n(\delta)$  against  $\log(\delta)$ , where  $\sigma_n(\delta)$  is the empirical variance of the influence curve.

In my simulations I worked with a family of data-generating distributions defined by:

$$\begin{aligned} W &\sim \text{Exp}\left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right) \\ A &\sim \text{Bernoulli}(\text{expit}(\alpha_0 W)) \\ Y &\sim \text{Bernoulli}(\text{expit}(\beta_0 + \beta_1 A + \beta_2 W)) \end{aligned}$$

Here is what I got for  $(\lambda, \alpha_0, \beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2) = (2, 2, -3, 1.5, 1)$  and  $(\lambda, \alpha_0, \beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2) = (2, 4, -3, 1.5, 0.5)$ . These specifications of the data-generating distribution make  $EY_1$  weakly identifiable.



The black line has the true rate  $\gamma$  as slope. Seems like for  $n > 1e3$  we should be able to estimate  $\gamma$  decently well from our data, just by fitting a line to  $\sigma_n(\delta)$  in a region where  $\delta$  is neither too big (so that the behavior of  $\sigma_0(\delta)$  is asymptotic) and neither too small (so that we have asymptotic linearity of our TMLE).

### 2.3 Estimating the rate of $\delta_n$

Assume that we can estimate the rate  $-\gamma$  of  $\sigma_0(\delta)$  (see above section regarding feasibility of this).

For  $\eta > 1$ , let  $\delta_{n,\eta} = n^{-\frac{1}{2\eta(\gamma+1-\beta)}}$ .

Assume that  $\Psi_n(\delta_{n,\eta}) \sim \Psi_0(\delta_{n,\eta}, n) + P_n D_\delta(P_0)(O)$ . This should be fine for  $\delta_{n,\eta}, n$  slow enough (i.e. for  $\eta$  large enough).

Let  $g_{\eta,n}(\delta) = \sqrt{n} \left( \widehat{\Delta b_n}(\delta) \delta^{\gamma+1} \right)^\eta$ .

We have that  $g_{\eta,n}(\delta_{n,\eta-\epsilon}) \sim C^\eta n^{-\frac{\epsilon}{2(\eta-\epsilon)}} \rightarrow 0$ ,  $g_{\eta,n}(\delta_{n,\eta+\epsilon}) \sim C^\eta n^{\frac{\epsilon}{2(\eta+\epsilon)}} \rightarrow \infty$ , and  $g_{\eta,n}(\delta_{n,\eta}) \rightarrow C^\eta$ , for a certain constant  $C$ .

This suggests two different methods to estimate the optimal rate  $\frac{-1}{2(\gamma+1-\beta)}$ .

**First method.** Let  $\eta > 1$ . Solve  $g_{\eta,n}(\delta) = 1$ . The solution is  $\sim n^{-\frac{1}{2(\gamma+1-\beta)}}$ . Simulations show that the existence of a solution can require an extremely high  $n$ , since the constant  $\eta |\log C|$  can be large.

**Second method.** Since the constant  $C$  is problematic, another option is to check for different rates  $r_1, \dots, r_q$  whether  $g_{\eta,n}(n^{-r_i})$  is increasing, decreasing or stationary as  $n$  increases.

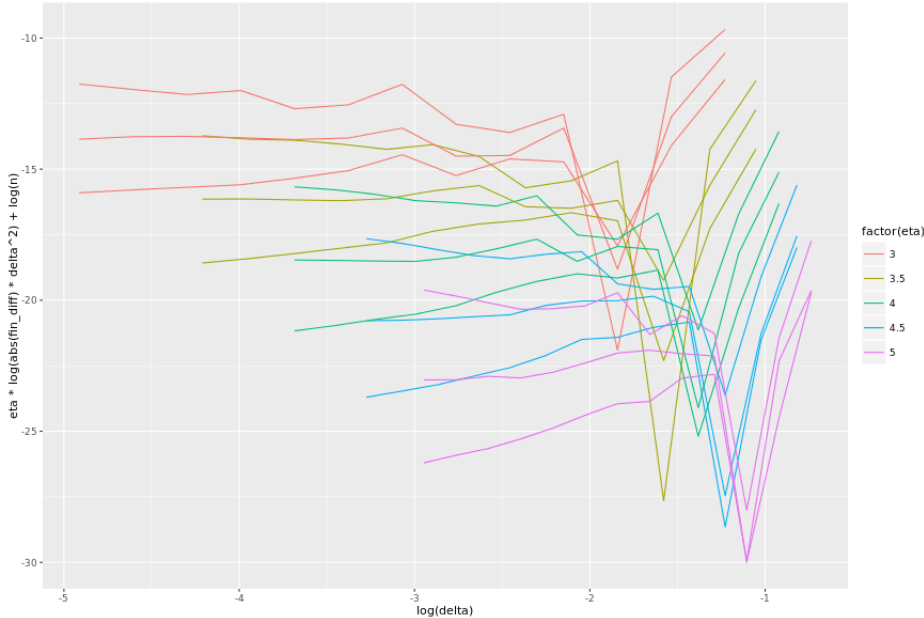
To be able to do this, we need to compare  $g_{\eta,n^{-r_i}}$  for different values of  $n$ . This suggest the following method. Let  $\mathcal{O}_n$  our sample. Let  $\mathcal{O}_n^1, \dots, \mathcal{O}_n^m$   $m$  subsamples of  $\mathcal{O}$  of size  $\tilde{n}$  (in my simulations I worked with  $\tilde{n} = n/3$  and  $\tilde{n} = n/10$ ). Compute the median of  $\{g_{\eta,n,\mathcal{O}_n}(n^{-r_i}) - g_{\eta,\tilde{n},\mathcal{O}_n^k}(\tilde{n}^{-r_i}) : k \in \{1, \dots, m\}\}$ . If for the rates  $r_i$  and  $r_{i+1}$  this median is respectively positive and negative, then we estimate the optimal rate by a value between  $r_i$  and  $r_{i+1}$ .

We can refine the interval  $[r_i, r_{i+1}]$  such that we find a rate  $r$  for which we have stationarity of  $g_{\eta,n}(n^{-r})$  from our subsamples to our full sample.

I did a bunch of simulations for the family of data-generating distribution specified above.

Here are some encouraging plots (figures 1 and 2).

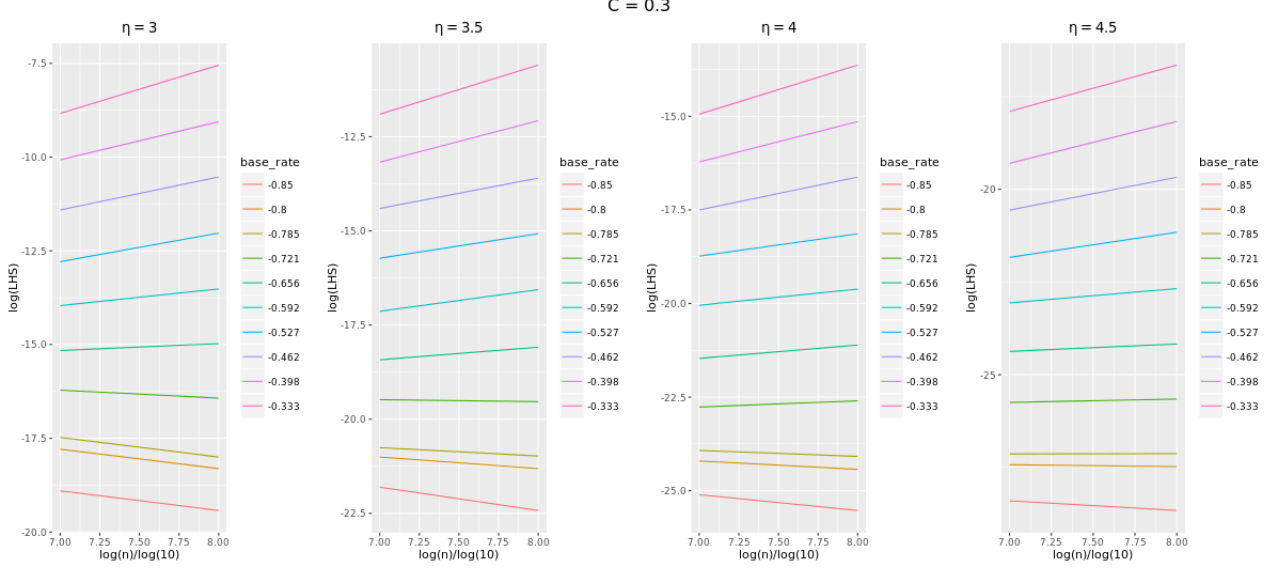
Figure 1:  $\log g_{n,\eta}(n^{-r/\eta})$  (y axis) for  $r \in \{0.95r^{optimal}, r^{optimal}, 1.05r^{optimal}\}$ , for various values of  $\eta$ . We observe that the stationary curves are the ones that correspond to  $r^{optimal}$ . x axis is  $\log(\delta)$



### 2.4 Remark on selection of the step of the finite difference

We need to know  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  to know the optimal  $\Delta(n, \delta)$ . We can probably access  $\gamma$  (the rate of  $\sigma_0(\delta)$ ) directly from the data, but it seems much harder to do so for  $\beta$ .

Figure 2:  $\log g_{n,\eta}(n^{-r/\eta})$  (y-axis) from  $n = 10^7$  to  $n = 10^8$ , for various candidate rates. x-axis:  $\log \delta$ . The optimal rates lies between two consecutive candidates rates for which we observe the slopes to change sign. That's good.



We probably don't need  $\Delta$  to be optimal to have  $\sigma_{b'_0(\delta_n^*),n} = o(b'_0(\delta_n^*))$ .

A suggestion is to act as if  $\beta$  was  $\gamma + 1 - \tilde{\epsilon}$  for a small  $\epsilon \in (0, \gamma + 1 - \beta)$  (but closer to zero than to  $\gamma + 1 - \beta$ ). We assume that  $\gamma$  is known. Let's see where this leads:

The "optimal"  $\Delta$  we would pick is then given by

$$\Delta^2 = \frac{n^{-1/2}\delta^{-\gamma}}{\delta^{-(\gamma+1-\tilde{\epsilon})}-1} = n^{-1/2}\delta^{2-\tilde{\epsilon}}$$

i.e.  $\Delta = n^{-1/4}\delta^{1-\tilde{\epsilon}/2}$ .

Let  $(\delta_n^+)_{n \geq 1}$  be such that  $\delta_n^+ = o(\delta_n)$ . Now let's check if we have  $\sigma_{b'_0(\delta_n^+),n} = o(b'_0(\delta_n^+))$ .

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{b'_0(\delta_n^+),n} &= \Delta \delta_n^{+ - \beta - 1} + n^{-1/2} \delta_n^{+ - \gamma} \Delta^{-1} \\ &= n^{-1/4} \delta_n^{+ - \beta - \tilde{\epsilon}/2} + n^{-1/4} \delta_n^{+ - \gamma - \tilde{\epsilon}/2 - 1} \\ &= n^{-1/4} \left( \delta_n^{+ - (\beta + \tilde{\epsilon}/2)} + \delta_n^{+ - (\gamma + 1 - \tilde{\epsilon}/2)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Since we pick  $\tilde{\epsilon}$  relatively small we have  $\gamma + 1 - \tilde{\epsilon}/2 > \beta + \tilde{\epsilon}/2$ .

Thus  $\sigma_{b'_0(\delta_n^+),n} \sim n^{-1/4} \delta_n^{+ - (\beta + \tilde{\epsilon}/2)} \sim \left( \frac{\delta_n}{\delta_n^+} \right)^{\beta + \tilde{\epsilon}/2} n^{\frac{2\beta - ((\gamma+1-\beta)-\tilde{\epsilon})}{4(\gamma+1-\beta)}}$ .

We have  $b'_0(\delta_n^+) \sim \left( \frac{\delta_n}{\delta_n^+} \right)^{\beta} n^{\frac{\beta}{2(\gamma+1-\beta)}}$ .

Since  $\tilde{\epsilon} < \gamma + 1 - \beta$  we have  $\sigma_{b'_0(\delta_n^+),n} = o(b'_0(\delta_n^+))$ .

That's hopeful since picking a small  $\tilde{\epsilon}$  is probably practically feasible.

### 3 Theoretical result

Given the above, I guess we can prove the following theorem:

**Theorem 1.** Assume there exist  $1 > \beta \geq 0$  and  $1/2 > \gamma \geq 0$  such that  $b_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{1-\beta}$ ,  $b'_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{-\beta}$ ,  $\beta''_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{-\beta-1}$ ,  $\sigma_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{-\gamma}$ , and  $\sigma'_0(\delta) \sim \delta^{-\gamma-1}$ .

Assume also that  $\beta < \gamma + 1$ .

Denote  $\delta_n$  the solution to  $MSE_n(\delta) = 0$ .

Assume that there exist  $\delta_n^+ \rightarrow 0$ , such that for any  $\tilde{\delta}_n$  that goes to zero slower than  $\delta_n^+$ ,

$$\hat{\Psi}_n(\tilde{\delta}_n) \sim \Psi_0(\tilde{\delta}_n) + P_n D_{\Psi_0(\tilde{\delta}_n)}^*.$$

Let  $\tilde{\epsilon} \in (0, \gamma + 1 - \beta)$ , and  $\Delta(\delta, n) = n^{-1/4} \delta^{1-\tilde{\epsilon}/2}$ . Let  $\eta > 1$  large enough so that  $n^{-\frac{1}{2\eta(\gamma+1-\beta)}}$  goes to zero slower than  $\delta_n^+$ .

Denote  $r_n$  the rate we find using the "second method" above. Then  $n^{-r_n} \sim C \delta_n^{1/\eta}$  for a certain constant  $C$ , and  $MSE_n(n^{-r_n}) \sim C' MSE_n(\delta_n)$  for a certain constant  $C'$ .

## 4 Discussion

I need to make this method work well for small sample sizes. Checking asymptotic linearity is key to this.

Shapiro-Wilks test for normality of  $Psi_n(\delta)$  for which I bootstrap the targeting step does not seem to be stringent enough.

For low sample sizes, it's kind of possible to check that things aren't behaving as expected from the asymptotics: the plots of the type of figure 1 and 2 then look messy.