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# CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS IN HIGH-DIMENSIONAL SETTINGS

Stijn Vansteelandt  
*Ghent University, Belgium*

# INTRODUCTION

# EVALUATING TREATMENT EFFECTS

- Evaluation of the effect of a treatment  $A$  on an outcome  $Y$  is commonly based on contrasts

$$E(Y^1 - Y^0)$$

of the expected outcome with ( $Y^1$ ) versus without ( $Y^0$ ) treatment.

- In observational studies, this demands adjustment for potentially **high-dimensional confounders**.
  - Such adjustment is not required in randomized experiments, but nonetheless desirable to boost precision.
- Two popular approaches are **standardisation** and **inverse probability weighting**.

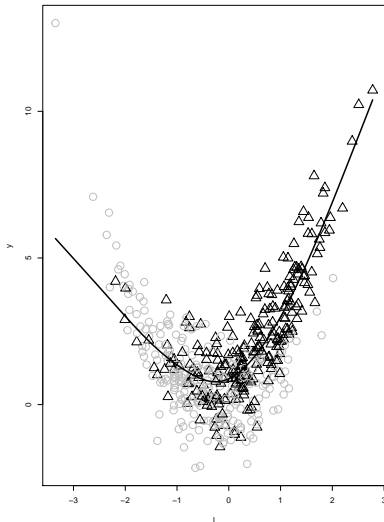
# STANDARDISATION / G-COMPUTATION

To estimate the mean outcome under treatment,

- train a prediction model for outcome in the treated, using confounders;
- use this to **predict** outcome for all;
- average these predictions.

This can be based on **statistical model building**.

The use of **machine learning** is increasingly popular.



# WHY MACHINE LEARNING?

- **Model misspecification** is likely, and difficult to diagnose when treated and untreated subjects have limited overlap.
  - Even models that fit the observed data well, may cause large extrapolation bias.
- The analysis can be made **more objective** by **pre-specifying** the machine learning algorithms.
  - In contrast, the human process of building a model is time-consuming and even more black box; pre-specifying it is difficult.
- If a more statistical approach is deemed preferable, then **stacking statistical and machine learners** allows one to do at least as good.

# PLAN FOR THIS LECTURE

- How best adjust for high-dimensional confounding when the aim is **valid inference** for  $E(Y^1 - Y^0)$ ?
  - I will not aim for estimates with e.g. minimal mean squared error.
- I will do this, **assuming** we have access to a collection of variables  $L$  that **suffices to adjust for confounding**.
  - I will sidestep the difficulty of excluding post-treatment variables, colliders, ... which should precede the analysis and be based on subject-matter knowledge.

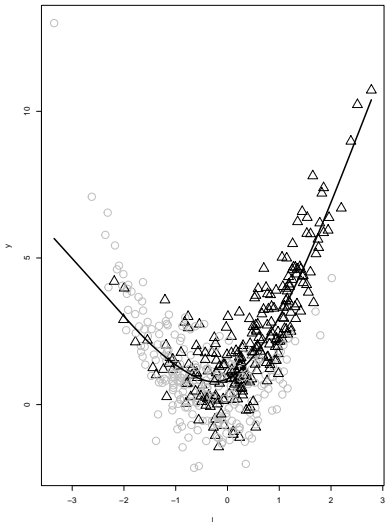
# WHY NAÏVE ML-BASED G-COMPUTATION DOES NOT WORK

# PROBLEM 1: NAILING THE WRONG TARGET...

- To avoid overfitting, we inevitably rely on modeling — e.g., learning  $E(Y \mid A = 1, L)$ .
- Standard statistical and ML methods aim to **optimize a bias-variance tradeoff**.
- But this tradeoff is tuned for **prediction accuracy**, not for causal effect estimation.
- The result? **Impressive predictions, biased effects**.



# WHY BIAS?



- Bias often comes from **oversmoothing** — even when models fit observed data well, they can fail badly where predictions matter.
- Bias can also arise from **dropping key confounders**: variables strongly predicting treatment are at risk to be trimmed away.
- This is known as **plug-in bias**: bias introduced when naïve predictions are plugged into causal effect estimators.

# PLUG-IN BIAS

- When using flexible machine learning algorithms, or consistent model selection over a rich class, plug-in bias shrinks with sample size...
- ...but painfully slowly.
- The bias can dominate the estimator's standard deviation, leading to confidence intervals with poor coverage and biased p-values.

## PROBLEM 2: UNDERESTIMATING UNCERTAINTY

- Statistical and ML models readily produce predictions of  $E(Y \mid A = 1, L)$ , but we often have **no clue how precise** they are...
- ...or **how this uncertainty propagates** into the causal effect estimate.
- Standard error formulas from statistical model-fitting routines **account for estimation uncertainty but not model uncertainty** — so they underestimate variability.
- Even **sample splitting** or the **bootstrap** fail to capture this properly.

(see e.g., Samworth, 2011)

# DEBIASED MACHINE LEARNING

# A BIT OF HISTORY...

- Foundations for a solution have been laid in the 80's - 90's.

(e.g. Pfanzagl, 1982; Bickel et al., 1998; Newey, 1990; Robins and Rotnitzky, 1995; van der Vaart, 1991)

- van der Laan made use of this theory  
to construct **debiased plug-in estimators** based on machine learning,  
which he called **Targeted Maximum Likelihood Estimators**.

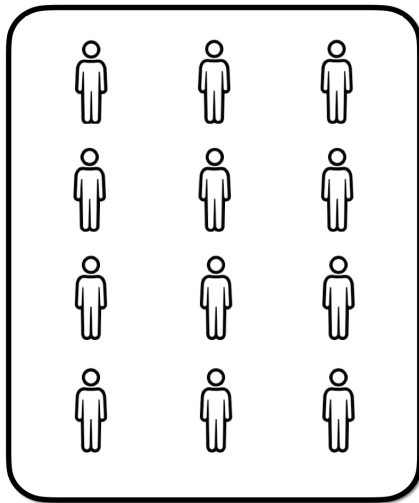
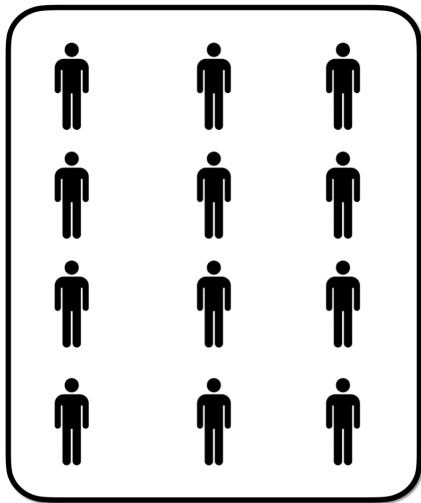
(van der Laan and Rubin, 2008; van der Laan and Rose, 2014)

- His approach is now called **targeted learning**.
- Chernozhukov, Newey, Robins, ... popularised this theory,  
under weaker conditions by invoking **sample splitting**.

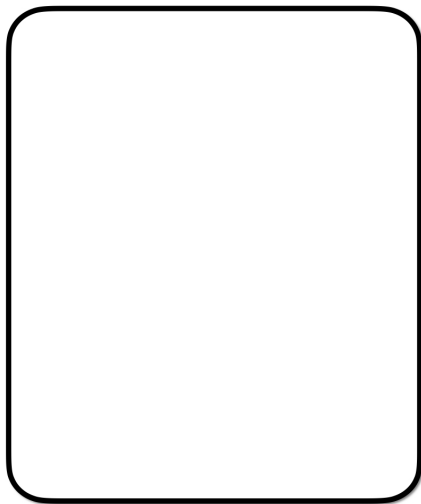
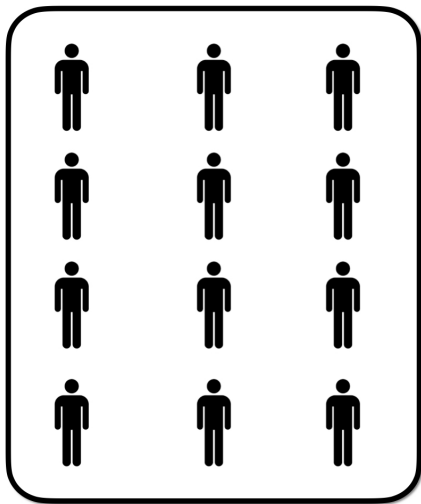
(Robins et al., 2008; Zheng and van der Laan, 2010; Chernozhukov et al., 2018)

- They refer to their approach as **double / debiased machine learning**.

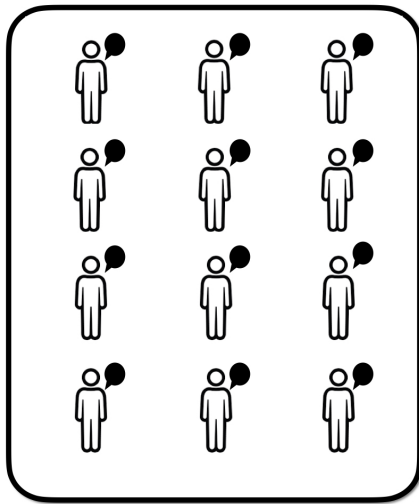
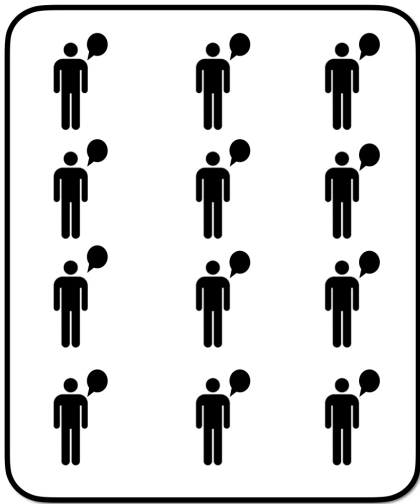
## OBSERVATIONAL DATA



## TRAIN IN TREATED, USING CONFOUNDERS

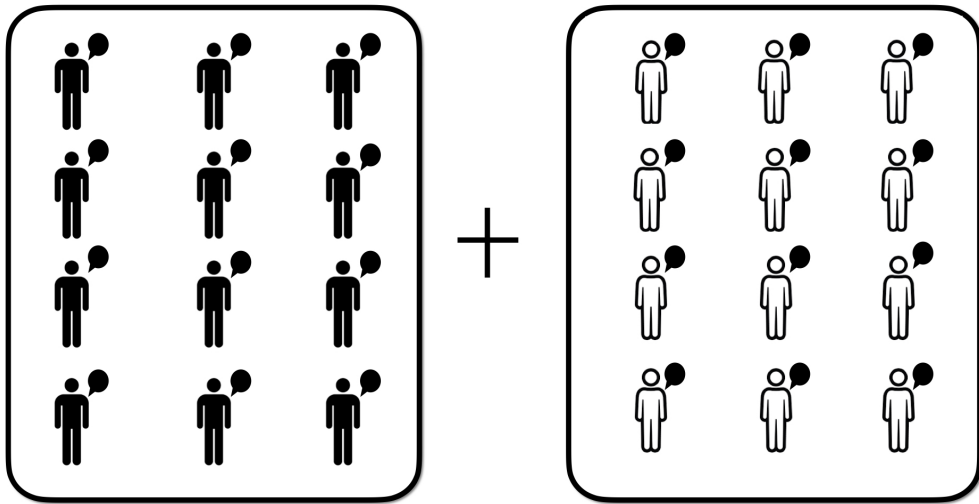


## PREDICT OUTCOME ON TREATMENT FOR ALL

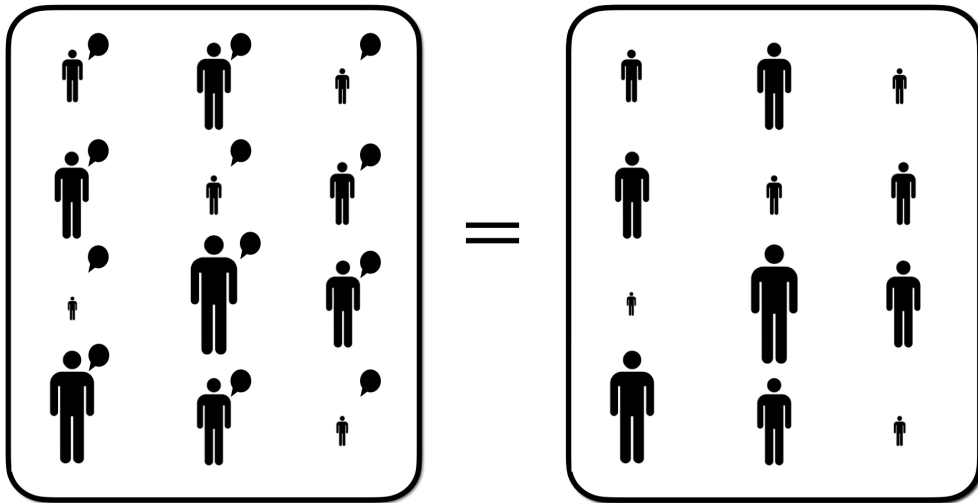




## AVERAGE PREDICTED TREATMENT OUTCOME OVER ALL



## HOW TO DEBIAS OUTCOME MEAN ON TREATMENT?



## HOW TO DEBIAS OUTCOME MEAN ON TREATMENT? (CONT'D)

- To learn the amount of plug-in bias, we evaluate prediction errors in the treated, but weigh them (inversely to the propensity score) to approximate bias in the full sample:

$$-\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{A_i}{\hat{P}(A_i = 1 \mid L_i)} \{Y_i - \hat{E}(Y_i \mid A_i = 1, L_i)\}$$

- Debiased machine learning **subtracts this bias** from the estimate:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{E}(Y_i \mid A_i = 1, L_i) + \frac{A_i}{\hat{P}(A_i = 1 \mid L_i)} \{Y_i - \hat{E}(Y_i \mid A_i = 1, L_i)\}$$

- This delivers the popular **augmented IPW estimator**, which uses standard ML for both the propensity score and outcome predictions.

# TARGETED LEARNING

- Instead of **subtracting bias** from a plug-in estimate, targeted learning **updates outcome predictions** to remove bias.
- E.g., for a binary outcome, it does this by building a logistic regression model around initial predictions  $\hat{E}^{(0)}(Y_i | A_i, L_i)$ :

$$\text{logit}E(Y_i | A_i, L_i) = \underbrace{\text{logit}\hat{E}^{(0)}(Y_i | A_i, L_i)}_{\text{qlogis(pred0)}} + \delta \underbrace{\frac{A_i}{\hat{P}(A_i = 1 | L_i)}}_{C = a/ps}$$

- In R:

```
model <- glm(  
  y ~ offset(qlogis(pred0)) + C,  
  family = binomial(),  
  data = dataset)
```

## TARGETED LEARNING (CONT'D)

- When this model is fitted using maximum likelihood, the updated estimator

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{E}^{(1)}(Y_i \mid A_i = 1, L_i)$$

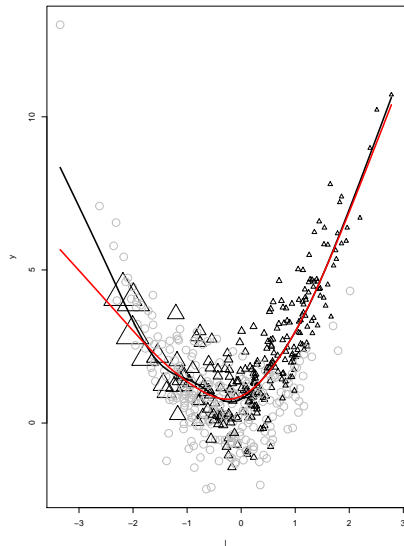
is free of plug-in bias.

- This estimator is equivalent to the AIPW estimator in large samples, but may have finite-sample benefits.

## PROBLEM 1 — HOW DID WE REMOVE PLUG-IN BIAS?

- In variable selection procedures, we eliminate plug-in bias because **confounders get two chances to be selected** — for both treatment and outcome models.
- In machine learning procedures, we reduce plug-in bias by **targeting prediction performance over the full covariate distribution**, not just where data are dense.

# TARGETED / DEBIASED LEARNING



## PROBLEM 2 — HOW CAN WE RECOVER UNCERTAINTY?

- Once plug-in bias is removed, estimator enjoys an **oracle property**: it behaves like an AIPW estimator based on the true propensity score and outcome regression:

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ E(Y_i | A_i = 1, L_i) + \frac{A_i}{P(A_i = 1 | L_i)} \{Y_i - E(Y_i | A_i = 1, L_i)\} \right]$$

- As a result, we can validly compute standard errors **as if no machine learning or model selection had been used**.
- This works the same for debiased and targeted learning.



# IMPLEMENTATION ON ACTG175 IN R

```
> install.packages("tmle")
> library(tmle)
> W = cbind(age,wtkg,hemo,homo,drugs,karnof,oprior,z30,zprior,preanti,race,gender,str2,
  strat,symptom,cd40)
> lib = c("SL.glm", "tmle.SL.dbarts.k.5", "SL.gam", "SL.glmnet", "SL.glm.interaction",
  "SL.ranger", "SL.nnet")
> tmle_est <- tmle(Y=Y,A=A,W=W,Q.SL.library=lib)
> summary(tmle_est)
```

Initial estimation of Q

Procedure: cv-SuperLearner, ensemble

Model:  $Y \sim \text{SL.glm\_All} + \dots$

Coefficients:

SL.glm_All	0
tmle.SL.dbarts.k.5_All	0.1071496
SL.gam_All	0.3746302
SL.glmnet_All	0.3434137
SL.glm.interaction_All	0
SL.ranger_All	0.1748065
SL.nnet_All	0

Cross-validated R squared : 0.393

# IMPLEMENTATION ON ACTG175 IN R (CONT'D)

Estimation of g (treatment mechanism)

Procedure: SuperLearner, ensemble Empirical AUC = 0.6177

Model:

```
A ~ SL.glm_All + tmle.SL.dbarts.k.5_All + SL.gam_All
```

Coefficients:

```
SL.glm_All      0.7703587
tmle.SL.dbarts.k.5_All  0.2296413
SL.gam_All      0
```

Additive Effect

```
Parameter Estimate: 49.514
Estimated Variance: 25.768
p-value: <2e-16
95% Conf Interval: (39.565, 59.463)
```

# IMPLEMENTATION ON ACTG175 IN R (CONT'D)

```
> t10 = lm(cd420~treat,data=ACTG175)
> summary(t10)
```

Coefficients:

	Estimate	Std. Error	t value	Pr(> t )
(Intercept)	336.139	6.210	54.125	< 2e-16 ***
treat	46.810	7.165	6.533	8.03e-11 ***

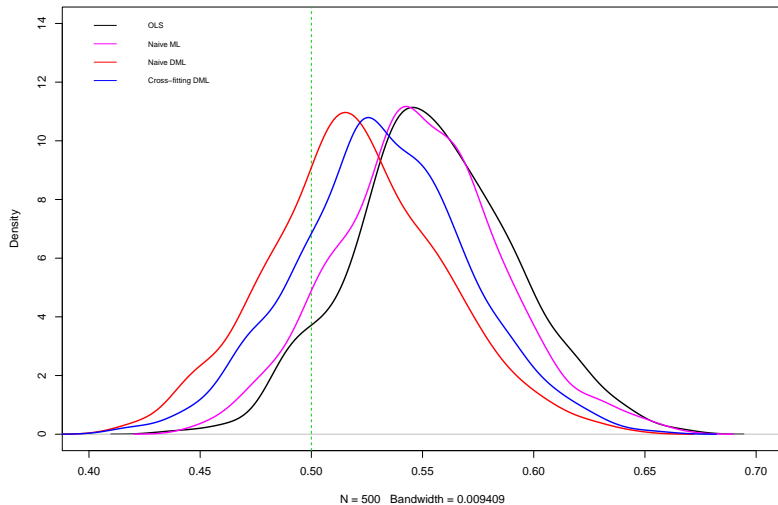
```
> confint(t10)
```

	2.5 %	97.5 %
(Intercept)	323.95990	348.31830
treat	32.75921	60.86179

## CAVEAT: SAMPLE SPLITTING

- Sample splitting helps avoid overfitting bias when ML is used.
- Information loss is 'minimized' via cross-fitting procedures, but these can introduce some finite-sample bias and excess variability.

# AN IMPRESSION FROM SIMULATION STUDIES



## CAVEAT (CONT'D): RESIDUAL BIAS

- Debiased (targeted learning) estimators are not completely unbiased, but their bias can be bounded (in absolute value) by:

$$E \left[ \left\{ \frac{P(A = 1 | L) - \hat{P}(A = 1 | L)}{\hat{P}(A = 1 | L)} \right\}^2 \right]^{1/2} E \left[ \{E(Y | A = 1, L) - \hat{E}(Y | A = 1, L)\}^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

- If this product shrinks faster than  $1/\sqrt{n}$ , then the residual bias is asymptotically negligible.

## CAVEAT (CONT'D): RATE DOUBLE ROBUSTNESS

- This is the case for many machine learning algorithms and consistent model selection over rich model classes, but **is not guaranteed** in general.
- It expresses **rate double robustness**: errors in one nuisance estimate can be offset by accuracy in the other.
- In randomized experiments, this is guaranteed:
  - if the **true propensity score** is used, or
  - if the **sample proportion** is used as propensity score, and the outcome predictions are consistent.
  - For targeted learning estimators, even this outcome consistency can be relaxed.

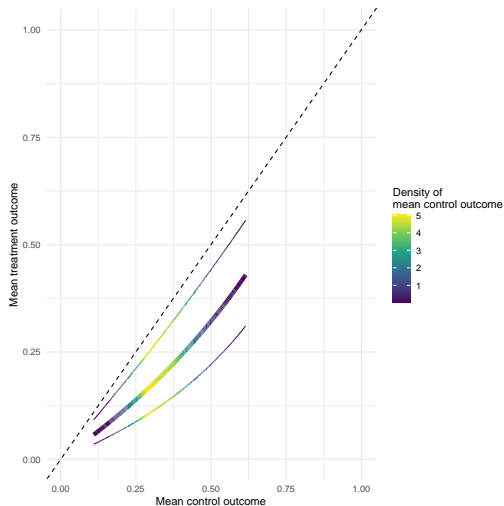
(Van Lancker, Díaz and Vansteelandt, 2025)

# BRIDGING MODELING AND ML...



# BRIDGING STATISTICAL MODELING AND ML...

- Debiased ML can also be connected to statistical modeling.
- ML for confounder adjustment.
- Results ‘projected’ onto a simple model.
- This is the focus of [assumption-lean modeling](#).
- It alleviates concerns about modeling e.g., MSMs, Cox models in target trials, ...
- It may also provide more refined insight.



# ASSUMPTION-LEAN MODELING

- For a dichotomous, randomized exposure  $A$  and baseline covariates  $L$ , consider

$$g\{E(Y^a|L)\} = \alpha(L) + \beta(L)a$$

for a known link  $g(\cdot)$  and  $a = 0, 1$ .

(Vansteelandt and Dukes, 2022)

- In **generalised (partially) linear models / SMMs**, we would assume that

$$\beta(L) = \beta \quad \text{and/or} \quad \alpha(L) = \alpha' L.$$

- We will avoid such assumptions  
and learn the **mean and variance** (or other summaries) of  $\beta(L)$  instead

(Vansteelandt and Dukes, 2022)

or quantify what components of  $L$  explain the variance of  $\beta(L)$  the most.

(Hines, Diaz-Ordaz and Vansteelandt, 2022)

## ASSUMPTION-LEAN LOGLINEAR MODELING ALGORITHM

- 1 Predict  $A$  based on  $L$  to obtain predictions  $\hat{p}_i$ .
- 2 Predict  $Y$  based on  $A$  and  $L$  to obtain predictions  $\hat{Y}_i$ .
- 3 Predict  $\log(\hat{Y})$  based on  $L$  to obtain predictions  $\hat{q}_i$ .
- 4 Linearly regress (using **least squares**)

$$\log(\hat{Y}_i) - \hat{q}_i + \frac{Y_i}{\hat{Y}_i} - 1$$

on  $A_i - \hat{p}_i$  to obtain an estimate for  $\beta$  and a robust standard error.

When using variable selection in a loglinear model, this **debases** the naïve estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  as

$$\hat{\beta} + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (A_i - \hat{p}_i)(Y_i e^{-\hat{\beta} A_i - \hat{\gamma}' L_i} - 1)}{\sum_{i=1}^n (A_i - \hat{p}_i)^2}$$

and delivers **valid post-selection inference**.

# FEATURES OF THE APPROACH

- Prevents model misspecification bias by incorporating flexible models and ML—it guarantees valid causal effect estimation, even if the model is wrong.
- Overcomes Occam's dilemma by separating:
  - modeling for interpretation via

$$g\{E(Y^a|L)\} = \alpha(L) + \beta a$$

- from data-adaptive modeling to tackle high-dimensionality.  
(Breiman, 2001)
- Delivers valid post-selection inference—even after using ML or model/variable selection.
- Supports (near) full pre-specification of the analysis plan.
- Offers the flexibility and simplicity of regression, e.g., it readily accommodates continuous exposures.

# SUMMARY

# SUMMARY

- Standard statistical analyses
  - ignore **model uncertainty**,
  - leave residual confounding bias due to **model misspecification**,
  - and complicate **pre-specification** of the analysis.
- Debiased / targeted learning overcome these concerns.
- These techniques are **essential for any data-adaptive analysis**,  
in particular **enabling valid use of variable selection in parametric models**.

# SUMMARY

- Causal machine learning = **machine learning for evaluating treatment effects** as opposed to prediction.
- This is much harder: we can compare predictions with observed outcomes, but cannot compare estimated with true treatment effects.
- This is why results from asymptotic statistics are essential.

Hines, O., Dukes, O., Diaz-Ordaz K., and Vansteelandt, S. (2021). Demystifying statistical learning based on efficient influence functions. *The American Statistician*, 1-48.

- Most existing works have focused on the average effect of a binary treatment, leading to lack of flexibility and oversimplification.
- **Assumption-lean modeling** bridges traditional modeling with debiased machine learning.

Vansteelandt, S., & Dukes, O. (2022). Assumption-lean inference for generalised linear model parameters (with discussion). *JRSS - B*, 84, 657-685.

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Slides: [users.ugent.be/~svsteela/](https://users.ugent.be/~svsteela/)

