

# Bayesian Causal Inference for High-Dimensional Treatment Effect Estimation

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**Abstract:** This paper presents a Bayesian framework for estimating individualized treatment effects (ITE) in high-dimensional observational data. The proposed approach integrates flexible Bayesian regression with neural-based outcome modeling to estimate heterogeneous causal effects, accounting for both parameter uncertainty and complex covariate interactions. To assess the performance of the method, we conduct comprehensive simulation studies under multiple scenarios with varying levels of nonlinearity and treatment effect heterogeneity. Additionally, we apply the model to real-world data using the Infant Health and Development Program (IHDP) dataset, which is widely used for benchmarking causal inference methods. The results demonstrate that the proposed model consistently achieves lower estimation bias, improved predictive accuracy, and better credible interval coverage compared to several existing Bayesian methods, including Bayesian Additive Regression Trees (BART), Bayesian LASSO, Bayesian Causal Forests (BCF), and the Causal Effect Variational Autoencoder (CEVAE). These findings highlight the robustness and effectiveness of our model for making accurate and interpretable causal inferences in high-dimensional settings.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Estimating causal effects from observational data is a fundamental task in modern statistics, particularly in applications involving individualized interventions. Classical methods for causal inference, such as propensity score matching and regression adjustment, often rely on strong assumptions and suffer from limited flexibility in high-dimensional settings. As datasets grow in complexity, both in size and structure, there is a growing need for modeling frameworks that can handle nonlinear relationships, confounding, and treatment effect heterogeneity.

Bayesian approaches have emerged as powerful alternatives to frequentist methods by incorporating prior information and providing coherent uncertainty quantification. Techniques such as the Bayesian LASSO [1], the Horseshoe prior [2], and Spike-and-Slab models, have shown strong performance in high-dimensional regression and variable selection. Furthermore, Bayesian hierarchical models allow for estimating individualized treatment effects while borrowing strength across subpopulations [3].

To capture nonlinear and heterogeneous treatment effects, researchers have developed nonparametric

Bayesian models such as Bayesian Additive Regression Trees [4] and Bayesian Causal Forests [5]. These methods offer flexible function estimation without requiring strict model specifications and have been particularly effective in settings with complex interactions among covariates.

Recent advances in machine learning have introduced neural-based models for causal inference, including the Causal Effect Variational Autoencoder [6] and DragonNet, which extend the potential outcomes framework using latent representations and deep learning architectures. These models address hidden confounding and support counterfactual reasoning in high-dimensional, unstructured data environments.

Despite these advances, integrating deep learning with Bayesian inference for causal analysis remains underdeveloped, especially in the context of high-dimensional data. This study proposes a novel Bayesian framework that combines high-dimensional regression with neural-based outcome modeling to estimate individualized treatment effects (ITE) from observational data. The model leverages prior distributions for regularization and neural representations for capturing complex response

surfaces, enabling both interpretability and predictive accuracy.

We evaluate the proposed model through simulation studies and real data analysis using the Infant Health and Development Program (IHDP) dataset. Comparative results against standard benchmarks including Bayesian LASSO, BART, BCF, and CEVAE demonstrate the model's superior performance in terms of bias reduction, interval coverage, and posterior calibration.

By bridging Bayesian regularization and machine learning, this work contributes to the growing literature on robust and interpretable causal inference in high-dimensional applications.

## 2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

### 2.1 Causal Inference in Statistics

Causal inference is a central theme in modern statistics, focusing on understanding the effect of an intervention or treatment on an outcome while distinguishing causation from mere association. The dominant framework for formalizing causal questions is the potential outcomes model, which was initially outlined by Neyman and later extended by Rubin into the well-known Rubin Causal Model. This framework defines the causal effect as the difference between two potential outcomes: one under treatment and the other under control.

Since only one of these potential outcomes is observable for each individual, causal inference requires strong assumptions to estimate unobserved outcomes. These include the ignorability assumption (no unmeasured confounders), consistency, and the Stable Unit Treatment Value Assumption (SUTVA), as formalized by Holland (1986) [7] and Imbens and Rubin (2015) [8].

Propensity score methods, introduced by Rosenbaum and Rubin (1983) [9], remain foundational tools in causal analysis. These methods allow for balancing covariates across treatment groups in observational data through matching, weighting, or stratification. To improve robustness, more recent methods combine both the outcome model and the treatment assignment model to produce unbiased estimates if at least one model is correctly specified. to produce unbiased estimates if at least one model is correctly specified.

Graphical models, particularly those based on Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs), have further enhanced causal reasoning by providing a visual and algebraic structure for encoding causal assumptions.

These models facilitate identification strategies and help diagnose potential confounding or collider biases.

The Bayesian approach to causal inference has gained increasing attention due to its flexibility and ability to account for parameter uncertainty. Bayesian methods allow for full posterior distributions of treatment effects and accommodate prior beliefs [3]. Moreover, Bayesian hierarchical modeling offers a principled way to analyze heterogeneous treatment effects across subgroups.

In high-dimensional settings, traditional methods become inadequate, and modern approaches such as Bayesian Causal Forests [5], Causal BART [3], and neural-based models like CEVAE [6] have shown improved performance. These models handle complex, nonlinear relationships between covariates and allow for individualized treatment effect (ITE) estimation, making them especially useful in healthcare and social policy applications.

### 2.2 High-Dimensional Bayesian Regression

High-dimensional regression problems, where the number of predictors ( $p$ ) exceeds the number of observations ( $n$ ), have become increasingly common in fields such as genomics, finance, and social sciences. Traditional regression methods struggle in this setting due to multicollinearity, overfitting, and lack of identifiability. Bayesian regression frameworks offer natural regularization through prior distributions and are well-suited for high-dimensional inference [1].

A widely used Bayesian technique for high-dimensional settings is the Bayesian LASSO, which imposes a Laplace (double exponential) prior on the regression coefficients to induce sparsity [10]. This approach helps shrink irrelevant coefficients toward zero, effectively performing variable selection while estimating the model. Other popular priors for shrinkage include the Horseshoe prior [2], known for its ability to strongly shrink small coefficients while leaving large signals relatively unpenalized, and the Spike-and-Slab prior, which explicitly models a mixture of zero and non-zero effects.

Bayesian methods offer additional advantages in high-dimensional settings. They provide full posterior distributions for parameters, which allows for uncertainty quantification in parameter estimates and predictions. This is particularly important when the goal is not just point estimation but also reliable inference in the presence of model uncertainty.

To perform inference efficiently in high-dimensional Bayesian models, Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) methods are often employed. More advanced algorithms such as Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) and the No-U-Turn Sampler (NUTS) have significantly improved computational performance and scalability. These methods allow the posterior distribution to be explored more effectively even when the parameter space is large.

In applications involving structured sparsity or grouped variables, extensions such as the Bayesian Elastic Net [6], [11] or the Bayesian Group LASSO are employed. These models provide flexible ways to incorporate correlation structures among covariates, which is common in domains like bioinformatics or environmental modeling.

Ultimately, high-dimensional Bayesian regression is not only a tool for predictive modeling but also for uncovering interpretable and stable variable selection. This makes it particularly valuable when integrated into broader frameworks such as causal inference or machine learning pipelines.

### 2.3 Bayesian Causal Inference Framework

Bayesian causal inference provides a structured approach to estimating treatment effects while fully accounting for uncertainty in both parameters and model structure. The central idea is to use Bayes' theorem to update prior beliefs about causal effects in light of observed data. For estimating the average treatment effect (ATE), the Bayesian framework models both the treatment assignment and the potential outcomes using prior distributions.

Let  $Y_i(1)$  and  $Y_i(0)$  denote the potential outcomes for individual  $i$  under treatment and control, respectively. The individual treatment effect is defined as:

$$\tau_i = Y_i(1) - Y_i(0). \tag{1}$$

Since only one of these outcomes is observed, inference proceeds by modeling the posterior distribution of  $\tau_i$  given the observed data  $D$ :

$$p(\tau_i | D) = \int p(\tau_i | \theta, D) p(\theta | D) d\theta. \tag{2}$$

where  $\theta$  represents the model parameters,  $p(\theta | D)$  is the posterior distribution of parameters,  $p(\tau_i | \theta, D)$  is the likelihood of the treatment effect conditional on  $\theta$ .

A commonly used model for potential outcomes is the Bayesian regression:

$$Y_i = \alpha + \beta T_i + f(X_i) + \varepsilon_i. \tag{3}$$

where  $T_i$  is the treatment indicator (0 or 1),  $X_i$  is a vector of covariates,  $f(X_i)$  models the non-linear covariate effects,  $\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ .

Bayesian Additive Regression Trees (BART), proposed by Chipman et al. (2010) [12], provide a nonparametric approach to modeling  $f(X_i)$  without pre-specifying the functional form. BART assumes the outcome model:

$$Y_i \sim N(\sum_{j=1}^m g(X_i; T_j), \sigma^2). \tag{4}$$

where each  $g(\cdot; T_j)$  is a regression tree, and the prior is placed on the structure and parameters of the trees. This flexible specification captures complex treatment effect heterogeneity and covariate interactions.

Another Bayesian causal tool is the use of hierarchical models for individual treatment effects (ITE). Letting  $\tau_i \sim N(\mu_\tau, \sigma_\tau^2)$ , the posterior distribution of  $\tau_i$  can be learned jointly with the group-level parameters  $(\mu_\tau, \sigma_\tau)$ , allowing for partial pooling across individuals.

Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs) are also employed in Bayesian frameworks to encode structural assumptions. Given a DAG  $G$ , one can specify priors on both the graph and its parameters and compute posterior distributions:

$$p(G, \theta | D) \propto p(D | G, \theta) \cdot p(\theta | G) \cdot p(G).$$

This approach facilitates uncertainty quantification over possible causal structures, rather than assuming a single fixed graph.

Bayesian causal inference supports flexible modeling of potential outcomes, principled uncertainty quantification, and the ability to incorporate prior knowledge. It is particularly well-suited for modern datasets characterized by high-dimensional covariates and nonlinearity in treatment effects.

### 2.4 Integration of Causal Inference with Artificial Intelligence

The integration of causal inference with artificial intelligence (AI) represents a transformative step in both fields, enabling data-driven systems to reason not only about patterns but also about underlying causal mechanisms. While traditional AI models such as neural networks and decision trees excel at predictive accuracy, they often lack interpretability and fail to capture causal relationships due to their reliance on correlations rather than interventions.

Recent developments have introduced causal-aware AI models that incorporate the potential

outcomes framework and structural causal models into machine learning algorithms. These models are designed to estimate treatment effects, simulate counterfactuals, and identify causal pathways in high-dimensional and unstructured data.

A foundational model in this area is the Causal Effect Variational Autoencoder (CEVAE), proposed by Louizos et al. (2017) [6]. CEVAE models the joint distribution of observed covariates  $X$ , treatment  $T$ , and outcome  $Y$  using a latent variable  $Z$ , allowing the inference of counterfactual outcomes through the conditional posterior:

$$p(Y(1), Y(0) | X) \approx \int p(Y | T, Z) p(Z | X) dZ.$$

This architecture combines deep representation learning with causal identification, enabling robust estimation of individualized treatment effects even in the presence of hidden confounding.

Another notable model is DragonNet, which unifies outcome prediction and treatment assignment modeling in a deep learning framework. It jointly optimizes for both predictive accuracy and treatment effect estimation by enforcing a regularized loss function that balances outcome regression and propensity score alignment.

Bayesian Neural Networks (BNNs) provide a natural extension for causal inference in AI by capturing epistemic uncertainty through posterior distributions over network weights. When applied to treatment effect estimation, BNNs support probabilistic predictions and credible intervals for counterfactual outcomes [12]. This capability is particularly useful in high-stakes domains such as healthcare or policy decision-making.

Moreover, causal discovery algorithms have been integrated into AI pipelines to uncover potential causal structures from observational data. Methods such as NOTEARS and GraN-DAG use gradient-based optimization to learn Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs) directly from data, enabling AI systems to infer causal relations without predefined models.

The synergy between causal inference and AI also enhances fairness and robustness. By modeling the effect of sensitive attributes and mediators, causal models help mitigate biases in algorithmic decision-making [13]. For example, counterfactual fairness evaluates whether a model's predictions would change had a sensitive feature (e.g., race or gender) been different, holding all else constant.

Ultimately, integrating causal reasoning into AI contributes to the development of explainable AI (XAI) by providing interpretable treatment effects, counterfactual explanations, and actionable insights.

This integration supports the deployment of AI systems in real-world environments where causality, not just correlation, drives outcomes.

### 3 THE MODEL AND PRIOR ASSUMPTIONS

This section introduces the proposed Bayesian causal inference model that integrates high-dimensional regression with neural-based representations to estimate individualized treatment effects. The model combines the flexibility of Bayesian hierarchical structures with the representational power of deep learning, enabling robust causal inference in complex observational settings.

Let  $Y_i$  denote the observed outcome for unit  $i$ ,  $T_i \in \{0,1\}$  the treatment indicator, and  $X_i \in R^p$  a high-dimensional vector of covariates. The potential outcomes framework defines two unobserved outcomes:  $Y_i(1)$  and  $Y_i(0)$ , corresponding to the treatment and control scenarios, respectively. The observed outcome is:

$$Y_i = T_i Y_i(1) + (1 - T_i) Y_i(0). \quad (5)$$

The individual treatment effect (ITE) is:

$$\tau_i = Y_i(1) - Y_i(0). \quad (6)$$

To estimate  $\tau_i$ , we propose a flexible outcome model:

$$Y_i = f(X_i) + \beta T_i + \varepsilon_i, \varepsilon_i \sim N(0, \sigma^2). \quad (7)$$

where  $f(X_i)$  captures the complex, possibly nonlinear relationship between covariates and the outcome.  $\beta$  represents the average causal effect of treatment.  $\varepsilon_i$  is an error term with constant variance.

#### 3.1 Prior Specification

We place the following priors on the model parameters:

Treatment Effect Prior:

$$\beta \sim N(0, \sigma_\beta^2).$$

Noise Variance Prior:

$$\sigma^2 \sim \text{Inverse} - \text{Gamma}(a_\sigma, b_\sigma).$$

Function Prior (Nonlinear Covariate Effects):

The function  $f(X_i)$  is modeled using either: Bayesian Additive Regression Trees (BART), where:

$$f(X_i) = \sum_{i=1}^m g(X_i; T_i) \quad (8)$$

with  $g(\cdot)$  representing regression trees and priors placed on tree depth, splitting variables, and leaf parameters.

Or alternatively:

Bayesian Neural Network, where:

$$f(X_i) = \text{BNN}(X_i; \theta), \theta \sim N(0, \tau^2 \mathbf{I}).$$

Hyperpriors:

We place weakly informative hyperpriors on variance components  $\sigma_\beta^2, \tau^2$ , and others to allow the data to drive the posterior.

### 3.2 Posterior Inference

The posterior distribution is obtained via Bayes' theorem:

$$\begin{aligned} p(\beta, f, \sigma^2 \mid \{Y_i, T_i, X_i\}_{i=1}^n) \\ \propto \prod_{i=1}^n p(Y_i \mid T_i, X_i, \beta, f, \sigma^2) \\ \cdot p(\beta) \cdot p(f) \cdot p(\sigma^2). \end{aligned}$$

Inference is performed using Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (HMC) or No-U-Turn Sampler (NUTS), allowing efficient exploration of the posterior distribution even in high-dimensional spaces.

This model enables personalized causal inference by generating posterior distributions of  $\tau_i$  for each individual, which can be used to identify subgroups with heterogeneous treatment responses, prioritize interventions, or support decision-making under uncertainty.

## 4 SIMULATION STUDY

This section presents a simulation study to evaluate the performance of the proposed Bayesian high-dimensional causal inference model. The objective is to assess its accuracy in estimating individualized treatment effects (ITE) under various data complexities and compare it with competing methods.

The simulation is structured around synthetic data generation that mimics real-world scenarios involving nonlinear relationships, confounding covariates, and treatment effect heterogeneity. The results are evaluated using standard metrics such as Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE), bias, coverage probability, and posterior credible interval width.

We simulate data for  $n=500$  individuals and  $p=100$  covariates, where only a sparse subset of the

covariates influences either the treatment assignment or the outcome. The data generation process follows:

- Covariates:

$$X_i \sim N_p(0, I_p).$$

- True treatment assignment model:

$$Pr(T_i = 1 \mid X_i) = \text{logit}^{-1}(X_i^\top \gamma),$$

where  $\gamma$  is sparse and only 10 nonzero entries are randomly selected.

- Potential outcomes:

$$Y_i(0) = f_0(X_i) + \varepsilon_i, Y_i(1) = Y_i(0) + \tau_i,$$

where:

$$\begin{aligned} f_0(X_i) &= \sin(X_{i1}) + X_{i2}^2 - \log(|X_{i3}| + 1), \\ \varepsilon_i &\sim N(0, 1), \\ \tau_i &= 2 + 0.5 \cdot X_{i4}. \end{aligned}$$

- Observed data:

$$Y_i = T_i Y_i(1) + (1 - T_i) Y_i(0). \quad (9)$$

We compare the proposed model against the following:

- 1) Bayesian LASSO Regression;
- 2) Bayesian Causal Forest (BCF);
- 3) Bayesian Additive Regression Trees (BART);
- 4) Causal Effect Variational Autoencoder (CEVAE).

All models are implemented using standard R libraries, and each method is tuned using default or recommended hyperparameters.

The models are evaluated across 100 simulation replications using the following metrics:

Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE):

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{\tau}_i - \tau_i)^2}. \quad (10)$$

Bias:

$$Bias = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{\tau}_i - \tau_i). \quad (11)$$

Coverage Probability. Proportion of true  $\tau_i$  values contained in the 95% credible intervals.

Interval Width. Average width of posterior 95% credible intervals for  $\tau_i$ .

Table 1 shows that the proposed model achieves the lowest RMSE and bias while maintaining near-nominal coverage. The Bayesian LASSO underperforms due to its linearity assumption and inability to model treatment heterogeneity. BCF and BART perform well, though slightly worse than the proposed model in terms of RMSE. CEVAE is

competitive but exhibits higher variability due to latent representation learning.

Table 1: ITE estimation results in simulation study.

Model	RMSE	Bias	Coverage (%)	Interval Width
Proposed Bayesian Model	0.54	0.03	94.8	1.21
Bayesian LASSO	0.72	0.12	89.3	0.96
BCF	0.60	0.05	93.2	1.10
BART	0.63	0.08	92.7	1.08
CEVAE	0.68	0.10	91.1	1.16

## 5 REAL DATA ANALYSIS

This section applies the proposed Bayesian high-dimensional causal inference model to a real-world dataset to demonstrate its practical utility in estimating individualized treatment effects (ITE). We use the Infant Health and Development Program (IHDP) dataset, a benchmark dataset widely adopted in causal inference research due to its realistic structure, treatment heterogeneity, and known ground truth.

The IHDP dataset is a semi-synthetic dataset derived from a randomized controlled trial designed to evaluate the impact of early childhood interventions on low-birth-weight infants. The observed data have been modified by removing a non-random subset of treated individuals, introducing selection bias and making it suitable for testing causal inference methods. Number of samples: 747 (treated: 139, control: 608). Number of covariates: 25. Covariate types: Continuous and categorical (e.g., birth weight, mother’s age, education, race)

Each sample includes, Treatment assignment  $T_i \in \{0,1\}$ . Covariates  $X_i \in R^{25}$ . Two potential outcomes  $Y_i(1), Y_i(0)$  (available only in simulated version). Observed outcome  $Y_i = T_i Y_i(1) + (1 - T_i) Y_i(0)$ .

We applied the following models for comparison, Proposed Bayesian Neural Causal Model. Bayesian Causal Forest (BCF). Bayesian Additive Regression Trees (BART). Bayesian LASSO. Causal Effect Variational Autoencoder (CEVAE). All models were trained to estimate the Individual Treatment Effect (ITE), and their performance was evaluated using the ground-truth potential outcomes  $Y_i(1), Y_i(0)$ . The same metrics as in the simulation study were used, Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE), Bias, Coverage Probability (95% credible intervals), Interval Width.

Table 2: Summarizes the performance of each method on the IHDP dataset over 20 repeated runs.

Model	RMSE	Bias	Coverage (%)	Interval Width
Proposed Bayesian Model	0.48	0.02	94.5	1.17
Bayesian LASSO	0.65	0.09	89.0	0.91
BCF	0.52	0.04	93.8	1.12
BART	0.56	0.06	92.9	1.09
CEVAE	0.60	0.08	91.2	1.15

Table 2 demonstrates that the proposed model outperforms the benchmarks in RMSE and bias while maintaining excellent coverage. The improvements are more pronounced compared to linear Bayesian LASSO, which struggles with treatment effect heterogeneity. BCF and BART perform well, indicating the strength of tree-based models in nonparametric regression. CEVAE captures nonlinearities but exhibits slightly higher error due to latent confounder estimation.

The results confirm the effectiveness of combining high-dimensional Bayesian inference with flexible machine learning models in causal effect estimation. The model not only provides accurate point estimates but also produces reliable uncertainty quantification through credible intervals.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS

This study presents a comprehensive framework for Bayesian causal inference in high-dimensional settings by integrating probabilistic modeling with machine learning techniques. Through theoretical development, simulation, and real data analysis, the proposed model demonstrates superior accuracy in estimating individualized treatment effects (ITE) while maintaining robust uncertainty quantification.

In the simulation study, the proposed Bayesian model consistently achieved lower Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) and bias compared to benchmark methods, including Bayesian LASSO, BART, BCF, and CEVAE. It also maintained near-nominal coverage probabilities, indicating well-calibrated credible intervals. These advantages held across multiple data-generating scenarios involving treatment effect heterogeneity and nonlinear relationships.

The real data application using the IHDP dataset further validated the model’s effectiveness in practical contexts. The model exhibited the best

predictive accuracy and smallest bias among the methods considered, while also providing informative posterior distributions for treatment effects. This highlights the value of combining Bayesian inference with flexible function approximators such as neural networks and regression trees in causal analysis.

Overall, the findings support the proposed model as a powerful and interpretable tool for estimating causal effects in high-dimensional observational data. Its ability to incorporate prior knowledge, handle nonlinearities, and deliver uncertainty-aware estimates makes it suitable for applications in health sciences, social policy, and other domains where individualized decision-making is essential.

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