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FINDING and BUILDING **DEVELOPMENTAL MATH** and **ACADEMIC SUPPORT** SERVICES: IDENTIFYING SUCCESS and CHALLENGES for **HISPANIC** and **LOW-INCOME STUDENTS**



BACKGROUND



Alvin Community College (ACC) proposed **student service programs**, in collaboration with Texas Tech University (TTU), and received a 5-year DOE grant.



- **AP #1**: Improve *academic achievement* of “Hispanic and low-income” students in *developmental and gateway math* courses
- **AP #2**: Increase the *number* of “Hispanic and low-income students” who complete a *STEM college degree*

BACKGROUND



Alvin Community College (ACC) proposed **student service programs**, in collaboration with Texas Tech University (TTU), and received a 5-year DOE grant.

SUCCESS THROUGH ENGAGED ADVISING



ALVIN COMMUNITY COLLEGE
QUALITY ENHANCEMENT PLAN

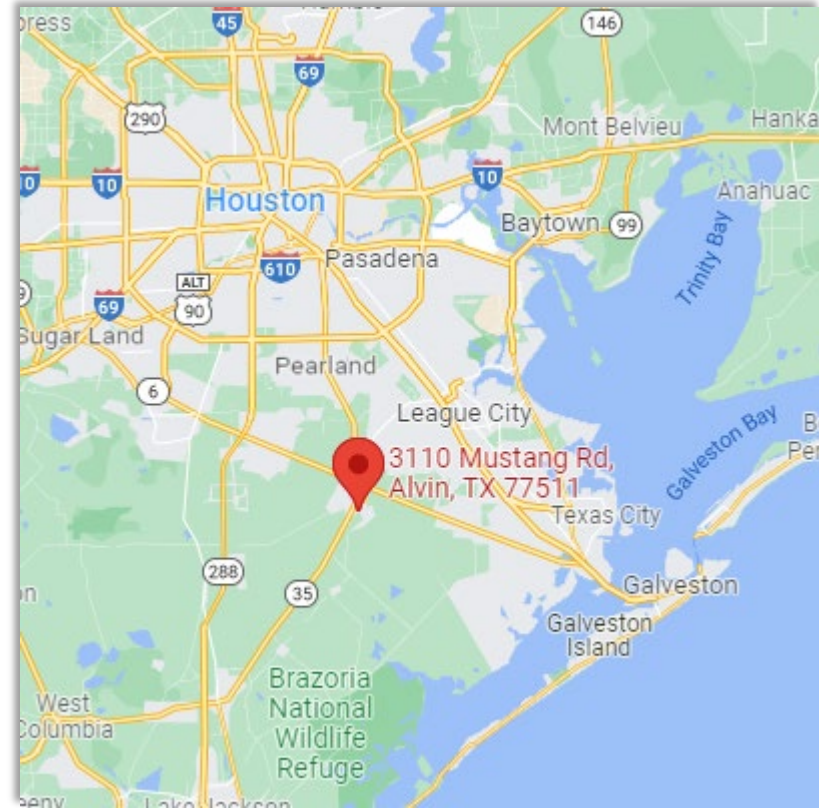
- **ModMath**: *Accelerated curriculum* helps students succeed in *Developmental Math* (with *MyMath Lab* and *Math Success Center*)
- **STEM Coach**: *Retention program* provides *advising* and *tutoring* services
- **STEM Bridge**: *Consultation* offers *career exploration & planning* and meeting with family members to review financial options and college benefits and requirements

BACKGROUND



ACC main campus in Alvin, TX

- Only community college in a 421-sq-mile service region in the Brazoria County
- Student population: 5,293
- >70% comes from within the service region (*28% Hispanics*)
- Major cities: Alvin, Pearland, Rosharon, Angleton, Manvel



THE TASK



TTU is in charge of **“summative” program evaluation** examining the effects of the *ModMath* program on students' academic achievement.

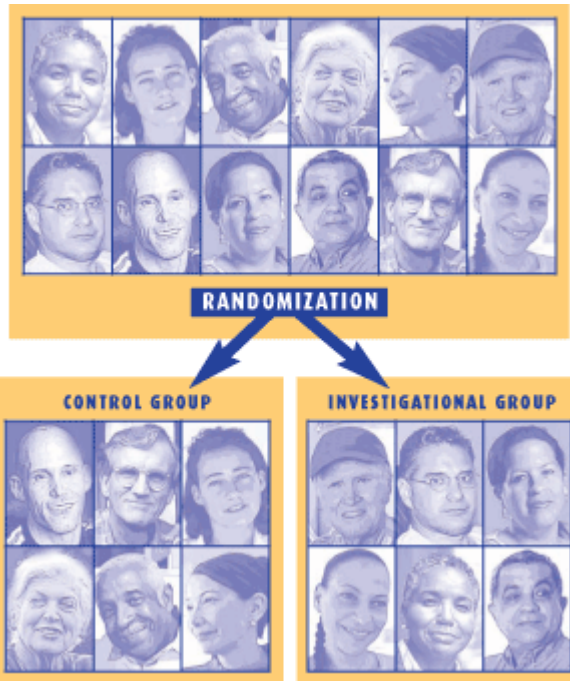


- MATH 0310 & 0314: *Traditional* vs. *ModMath* versions
- 3 cohorts: AY 18-19, AY 19-20, AY 20-21;
289 Traditional and *248 ModMath* students
- Key outcomes: GPA, time spent for advancement (0310 → 0314 → College Algebra), degree completion, etc.

BUT, THERE ARE ALWAYS CHALLENGES



In an ideal setting,



- Students are randomly assigned to the *Treatment* condition and the *Control* condition
 - By the virtue of **random assignment**, the two condition groups are “comparable” at baseline
 - Thus, we can make a **causal inference** that any observed differences between the two groups are solely due to the *Treatment*

BUT, THERE ARE ALWAYS CHALLENGES



In reality,

- Students were not randomized. Rather, they (unwittingly) “elected” the *ModMath* version of MATH 0310 & 0314 or the *Traditional* version of the courses
 - *ModMath* students and *Traditional* students may be considerably dissimilar in some personal characteristics — **selection bias**
 - Thus, when the two groups show different academic achievement, this could be due to the *ModMath* program, personal factors, or both

BUT, THERE ARE ALWAYS CHALLENGES



In reality,

- Students were not randomized. Rather, they (unwittingly) “elected” the *ModMath* version of MATH 0310 & 0314 or the *Traditional* version of the courses
- Required to address **WWC Standards** for baseline equivalence

0.00 ≤ ES Difference ≤ 0.05	0.05 < ES Difference ≤ 0.25	ES Difference > 0.25
Satisfies baseline equivalence	Statistical adjustment required to satisfy baseline equivalence	Does not satisfy baseline equivalence

CHALLENGE ACCEPTED.



A solution: **Propensity score methods**

- In real settings, it is often infeasible or unethical to randomly assign people into different (*Treatment* and *Control*) conditions
 - New drug testing for acute cancer
- In such case, **propensity score methods** are useful to account for possible *selection bias* and thereby allow us for addressing questions of *causal inference*

Propensity score (Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983)

- “How *likely* does a person receive or select the treatment (T) given his/her personal characteristics (X) at baseline?”

$$P_i(T_i | X_i)$$

Propensity score (Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983)

- PS exists both in *randomized* trials and in *observational* studies
- In *randomized* trials, the “true” PS is known and equal for all individuals (e.g., 0.5 in coin toss)



Control Group



Treatment Group

Propensity score (Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983)

- In *observational* studies, the “true” PS is unknown
 - People already in the *Treatment* and *Control* conditions
 - PS is estimated for each person using his/her “actual” *treatment status* (T) and values on the *covariates* (X) measured at baseline
 - PSM utilize this *conditional probability* to “recreate” a situation that would have been expected in a *randomized* trial

$$\hat{P}_i(T_i | X_i)$$



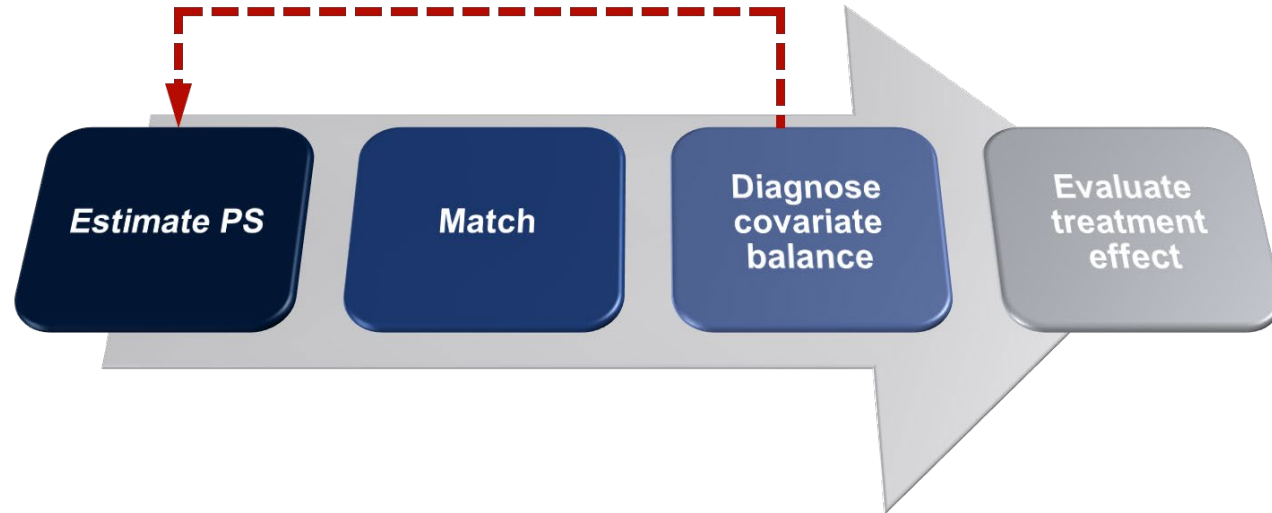
4 popular methods (Austin, 2009; Rosenbaum, 2002; Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983)

- **Matching** treated *persons* with untreated *persons*
- **Weighting** *data*
- **Stratifying** *sample*
- **Adjusting** *parameter estimates*

PROCESS

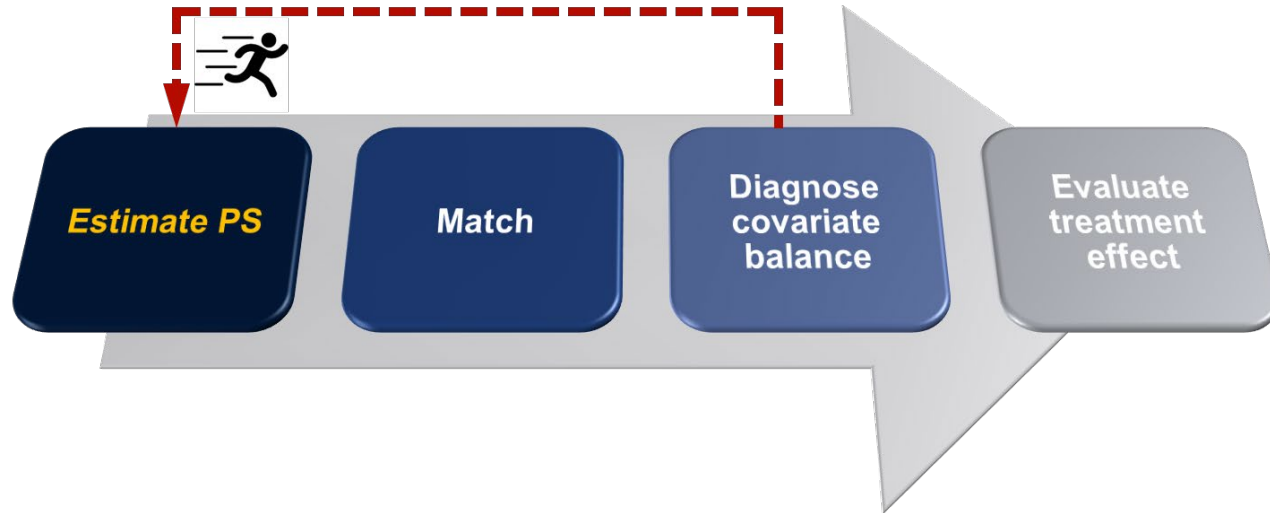


Propensity score matching



- Iteratively check *balance* on the *covariates* (X) between treated persons and untreated persons in the "matched" sample

ESTIMATING PS



ESTIMATING PS



2 popular methods of estimating PS

- *Parametric:* ***Logistic regression***
- *Non-parametric:* ***Generalized boosted modeling***

ESTIMATING PS: LR



Logistic regression

$$\hat{P}_i(T_i | X_i)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \ln \left(\frac{P_i(T_i = 1)}{1 - P_i(T_i = 1)} \right) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(X_{1i}) + \beta_2(X_{2i}) + \dots + \beta_n(X_{ni}) + e_i$$

T_i = “actual” *treatment status* (1 = treatment, 0 = no treatment)

X_1, \dots, X_{ni} = values on the *covariates* measured at baseline

ESTIMATING PS: LR



Alvin ModMath Study

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Value</i>
Treatment status	<i>treated</i>	<i>ModMath</i> (1), <i>Traditional</i> (0)
DOB	<i>dob</i>	yyyy-mm-dd
Gender	<i>gender</i>	Female / Male
Race / Ethnicity	<i>race</i>	<i>Asian, Black, Hispanic, White</i>
Financial aid	<i>aid</i>	Pell / No
Grade	<i>grade1</i>	A=4, B=3, C=2, D=1, F=0
	<i>grade2</i>	Pass (1) / Fail (0)

ESTIMATING PS: LR



Logistic regression

```
> param <- matchit(treated ~ dob + gender + race + aid,  
  family=binomial, data=dat)  
> param$distance
```

	SID	DOB	GENDER	Ethnicity	RACE	AID	TREATED	ps
1	99144	1978-05-24	Female	Non Hispanic/Latino	White	PELL	0	6.249817e-01
2	812172	1983-12-28	Female	Hispanic/Latino	Hispanic	No	0	3.941388e-01
3	929284	1999-06-03	Male	Non Hispanic/Latino	White	No	1	5.015871e-01
4	1022256	1994-04-23	Female	Non Hispanic/Latino	White	No	1	4.214361e-01
5	1055844	2001-03-13	Male	Non Hispanic/Latino	White	No	1	4.945763e-01

ESTIMATING PS: GBM



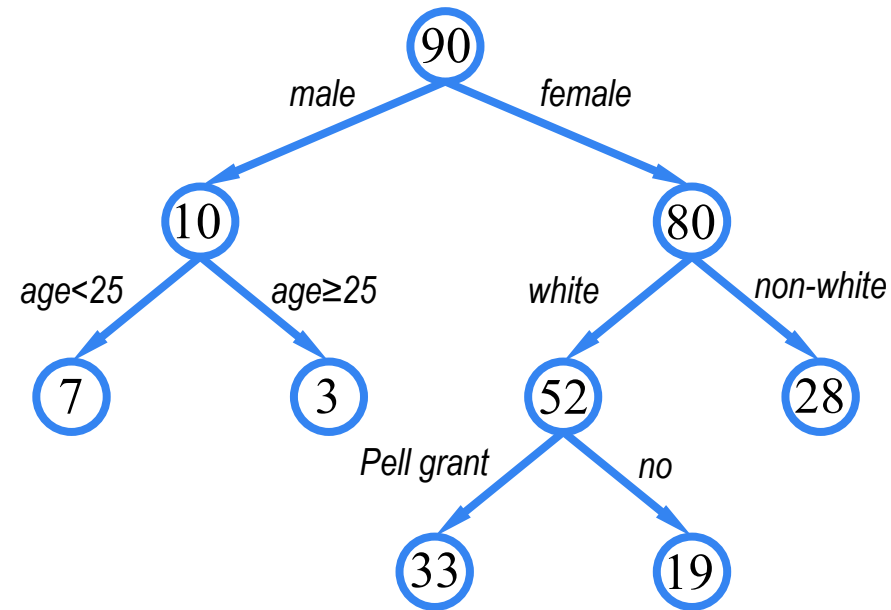
Generalized boosted modeling allows for multiway product terms modeled “naturally” as a result of sample splitting. (Friedman, 2001; McCaffrey, Ridgeway, & Morral, 2004)

- **Step 1:** Randomly select 50% of the sample — “training data”.
- **Step 2:** Predict *treatment status* using **Classification and Regression Trees (CART)**.

ESTIMATING PS: GBM



- **Step 2:** Predict *treatment status* using **CART**.

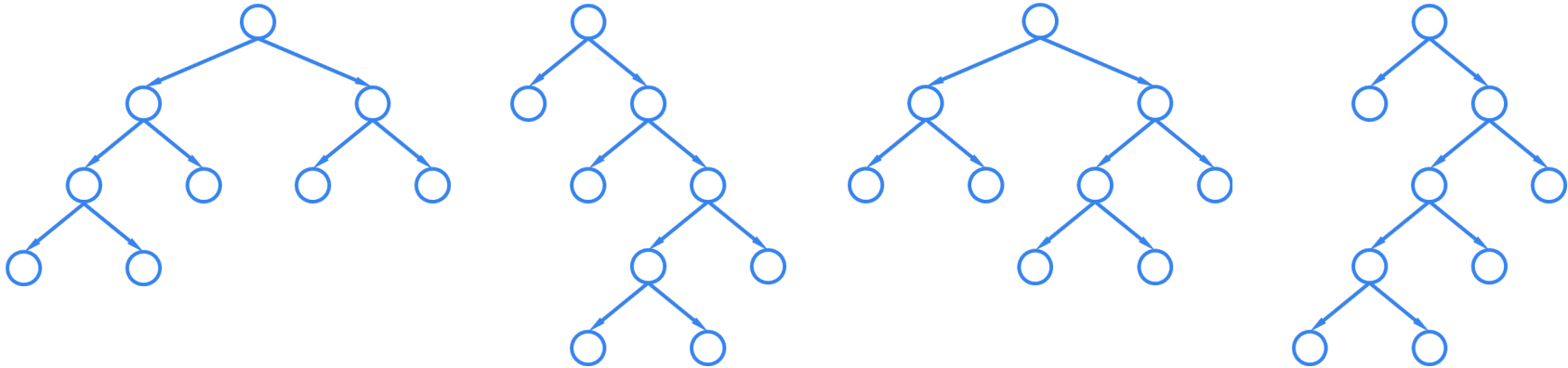


- The sample is split by the covariate that, among all covariates, best predicts treatment status
- The difference between “estimated” PS and “actual” treatment status — *residual* — is computed within each split subset
- Additional splits are made by predicting the *residual* with the remaining covariates

ESTIMATING PS: GBM



- **Step 3:** Many trees are formed by repeating **Steps 1 & 2**.

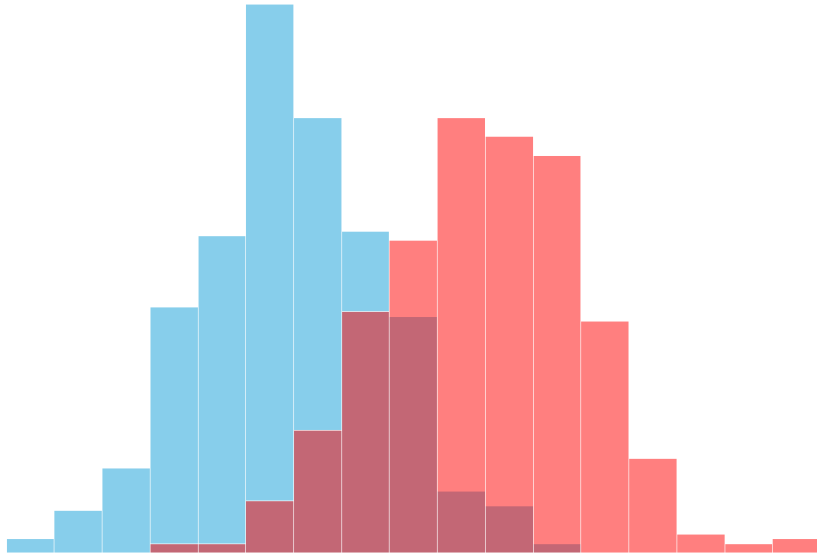


- **Step 4:** The trees are combined together to calculate a final PS estimate for each person in the sample.

ESTIMATING PS: COMMON SUPPORT

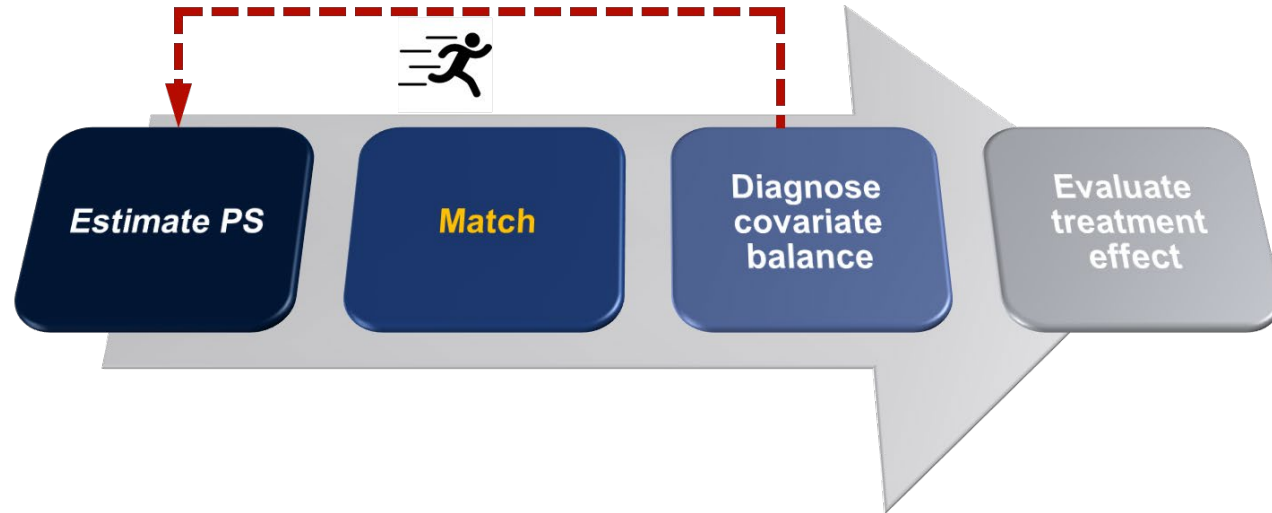


After estimating PS, ensure that there is a “substantial” *overlap* in PS between *treatment* persons and *untreated* persons — “*common support*”.



- A large area of common support increases the confidence that the observed treatment effect can be *generalized* to the entire *population* being represented by the sample.

MATCHING



NEAREST NEIGHBOR MATCHING



In ***nearest neighbor matching***, a treated person is matched to an untreated person if their PS are most similar — in the “smallest” distance.

ID	Treated	PS
1	1	.57
2	1	.36
3	0	.54
4	0	.60
5	0	.17
⋮	⋮	⋮

The diagram illustrates the nearest neighbor matching process. It shows a table with columns for ID, Treated status, and Propensity Score (PS). The first two rows (ID 1 and 2) are treated (Treated = 1) and have PS values of .57 and .36 respectively. The next three rows (ID 3, 4, and 5) are untreated (Treated = 0) and have PS values of .54, .60, and .17 respectively. Arrows indicate the matching process: an arrow labeled ① points from the PS of ID 1 (.57) to the PS of ID 3 (.54), and an arrow labeled ② points from the PS of ID 2 (.36) to the PS of ID 5 (.17). This shows that treated individuals are matched to untreated individuals with the most similar PS values.

- Find a match for treated persons, one by one

NEAREST NEIGHBOR MATCHING



In *nearest neighbor matching*, a treated person is matched to an untreated person if their PS are most similar — in the “smallest” distance.

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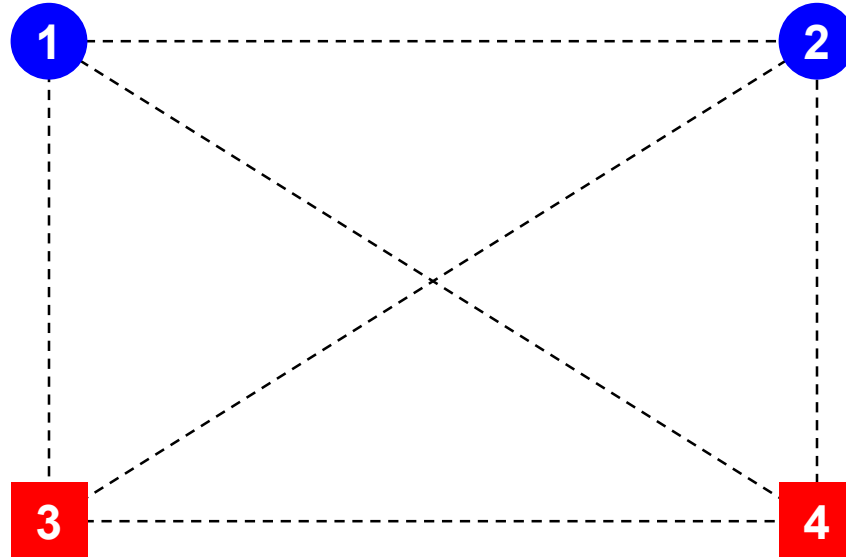
The diagram illustrates the matching process. A bracket labeled (1) connects the PS values of treated individuals 1 and 2. A bracket labeled (2) connects the PS values of treated individuals 1 and 5, indicating a larger distance.

- Often the PS is not close for possible pairs
- To avoid bad matches, define a “*caliper*” — the maximum distance in PS by which matches are allowed
- *0.25 x standard deviation of the logit of PS*
(Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1985)

OPTIMAL MATCHING



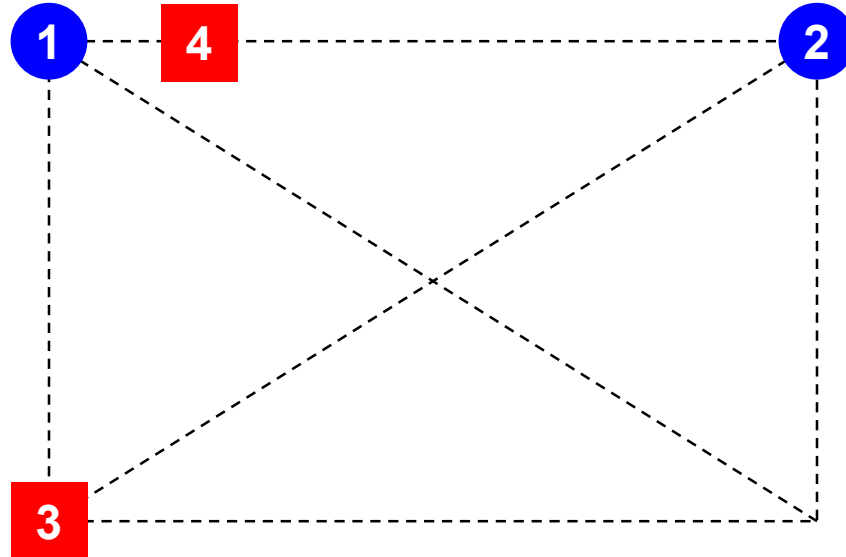
In ***optimal matching***, matches are formed by minimizing the *global distance* in PS, defined as the sum of PS distances in the whole matched sample.



OPTIMAL MATCHING



In ***optimal matching***, matches are formed by minimizing the *global distance* in PS, defined as the sum of PS distances in the whole matched sample.



MATCHING



Nearest neighbor matching

```
> matchit(treated ~ dob + gender + race + aid,  
          data=dat,  
          method="nearest", caliper=0.25)
```

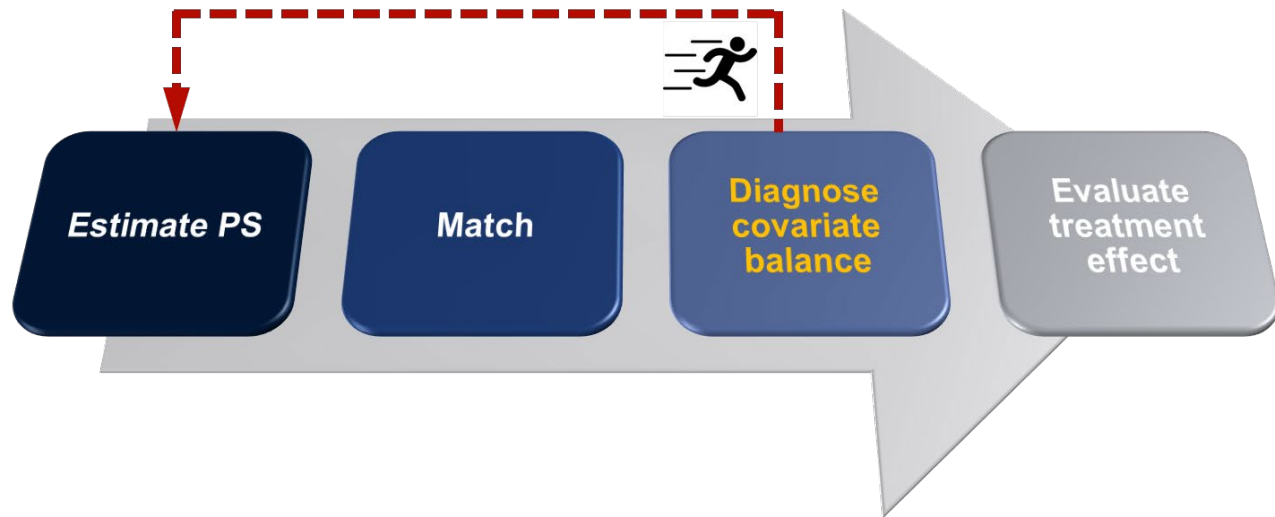
```
Sample Sizes:  
          Control Treated  
All          105      91  
Matched       82      82  
Unmatched     23       9  
Discarded      0       0
```

Optimal matching

```
> matchit(treated ~ dob + gender + race + aid,  
          data=dat,  
          method="optimal")
```

```
Sample Sizes:  
          Control Treated  
All          105      91  
Matched       91      91  
Unmatched     14       0  
Discarded      0       0
```

BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS



BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS



Once a matching is successfully implemented, the next step is to examine if *balance* is made on the covariates. (Austin, 2009; Flury & Riedwyl, 1986)

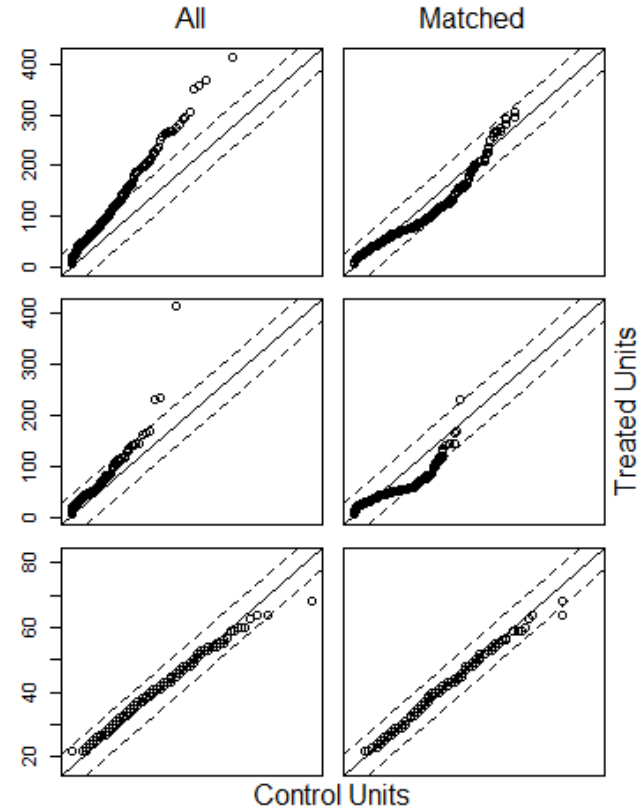
- Inspection of *distributions* — **Q-Q plot**
- *Standardized difference* in *means* — **Cohen's d**

BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS: Q-Q PLOT



Q-Q plot

- The *distribution* of a covariate in the *Treatment* group is plotted against the distribution in the *Control* group
- *Deviations from a 45-degree line* indicate that the distributions are dissimilar.



BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS: D



Cohen's d

- Continuous covariates:

$$\frac{(\bar{X}_T - \bar{X}_U)}{\sqrt{\frac{s_T^2 + s_U^2}{2}}}$$

- Binary covariates:

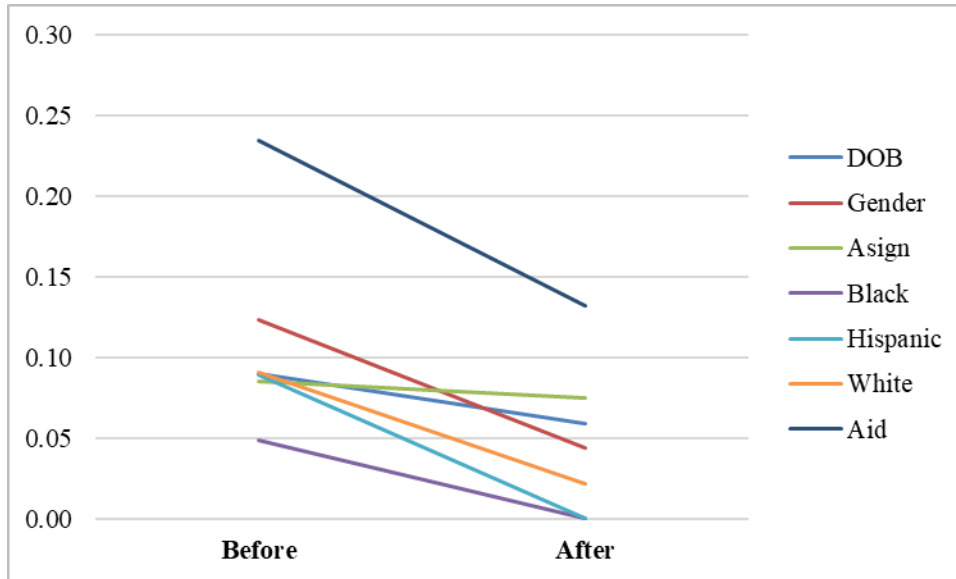
$$\frac{(\hat{P}_T - \hat{P}_U)}{\sqrt{\frac{\hat{P}_T(1 - \hat{P}_T) + \hat{P}_U(1 - \hat{P}_U)}{2}}}$$

- A covariate with n -categories is dichotomized into n variables (by dummy-coding) and then examined for balance

BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS: D



Cohen's d



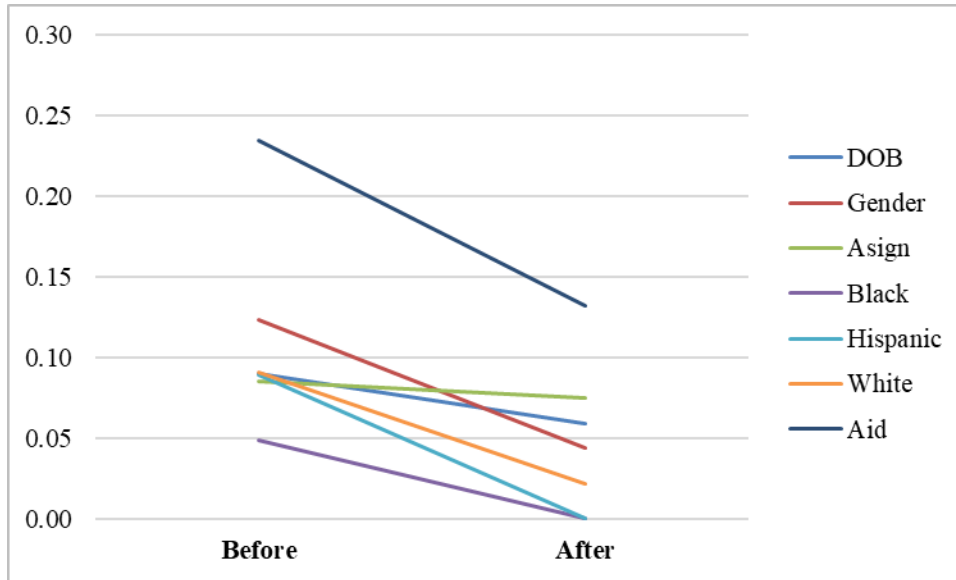
Percent Balance Improvement:

	Std. Mean Diff.
distance	63.5
DOB	34.2
GENDERFemale	64.3
GENDERMale	64.3
RACEAmerican/Alaska Native	100.0
RACEAsian	11.8
RACEBlack or African American	100.0
RACEHispanic	100.0
RACERace/Ethnicity Unknown	100.0
RACEwhite	75.4
AIDNo	43.7
AIDPELL	43.8

BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS: D



Cohen's d



Percent Balance Improvement:

	Std. Mean Diff.
distance	63.5
DOB	34.2
GENDERFemale	64.3
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RACEBlack or African American	100.0
RACEHispanic	100.0
RACERace/Ethnicity unknown	100.0
RACEwhite	75.4
AIDNo	43.7
AIDPELL	43.8

$0.00 \leq \text{ES Difference} \leq 0.05$

Satisfies baseline equivalence

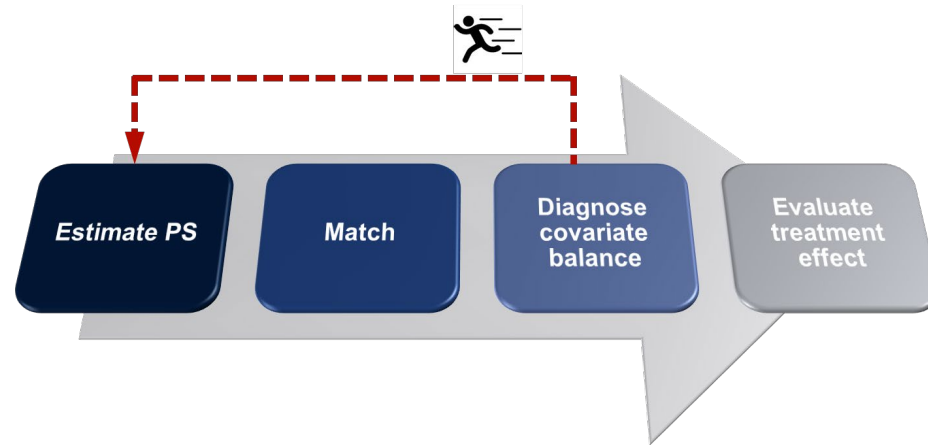
$0.05 < \text{ES Difference} \leq 0.25$

Statistical adjustment required to satisfy baseline equivalence

$\text{ES Difference} > 0.25$

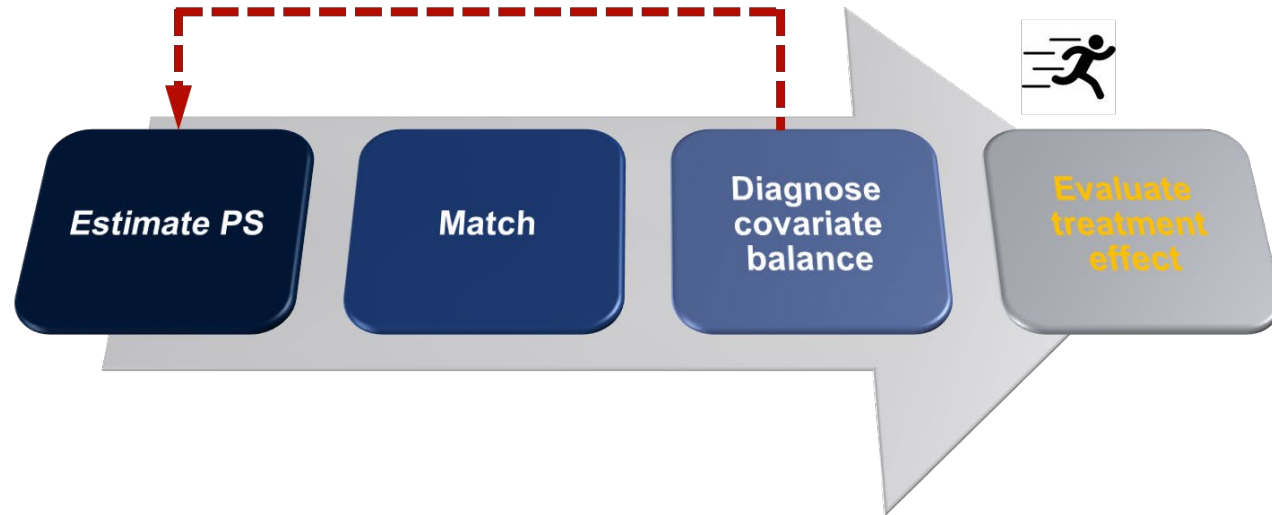
Does not satisfy baseline equivalence

BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS



- If an *imbalance* is indicated by dissimilar distribution and/or nontrivial d ,
 - *Transform* or *re-categorize* the unbalanced covariates
 - Add *polynomial terms* of the unbalanced covariates
 - Add *product terms* of the unbalanced covariates and other covariates
 - Use a *smaller caliper* (in case of nearest neighbor matching)

ESTIMATING TREATMENT EFFECT



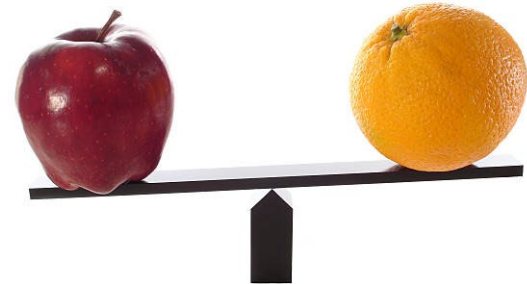
ESTIMATING TREATMENT EFFECT



Bivariate tests

- Estimate the *treatment effect* by comparing outcomes between treated persons and untreated persons in the matched sample

- *Continuous* → difference in *means*
- *Categorical* → difference in *proportions*
- *Binary* → difference in *probabilities* (relative risk, odds ratio)



ESTIMATING TREATMENT EFFECT

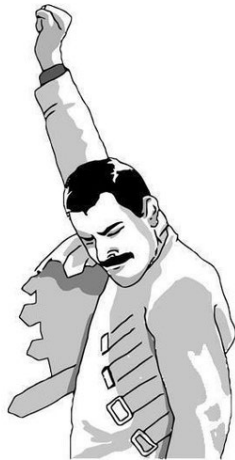


Bivariate tests

- Estimate the *treatment effect* by comparing outcomes between treated persons and untreated persons in the matched sample

- *Continuous* → difference in *means* → *t*-test
- *Categorical* → difference in *proportions* → chi-square/Fisher test
- *Binary* → difference in *probabilities* → chi-square test

$p < 0.05$



ESTIMATING TREATMENT EFFECT



t-test

AY 2020-21 MATH 314

<i>Outcome</i>	<i>ModMath</i>	<i>Traditional</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
Coaching sessions	3.8 ± 2.4	3.0 ± 2.6	0.014	0.309
Coaching hours	1.8 ± 1.2	1.5 ± 1.3	0.019	0.295
Tutoring sessions	8.0 ± 10.7	4.3 ± 8.9	0.003	0.380
Tutoring hours	8.5 ± 14.5	4.8 ± 11.4	0.024	0.292

- Students in the *ModMath* course (voluntarily) received “significantly” more coaching and tutoring than those in the *Traditional* course.

ESTIMATING TREATMENT EFFECT



Multivariate tests

- *Multivariate* analysis is also applicable, of course
 - Linear, logistic, or Poisson regression
 - Survival analysis (e.g., time to transfer to 4-year university)
 - Structural equation modeling
 - Hierarchical linear modeling
- The outcome models can include the covariates used for estimating PS, so as to further eliminate *residual imbalance* in “prognostically” important covariates (Harder et al., 2010; Ho et al., 2007)

ESTIMATING TREATMENT EFFECT



Concluding remarks

- *Selection bias* is a major threat to the *validity* of any observational study
- **PS methodology** offers researchers an integrative framework where...
 - Not only “*overt*” *bias* from the measured covariates can be corrected in the estimates of the treatment effects,
 - But also “*hidden*” *bias* from unmeasured covariates can be evaluated in terms of robustness of the effect estimates — **sensitivity analysis**



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A practical guide to propensity score analysis for applied clinical research



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ABSTRACT

Observational studies are often the only viable options in many clinical settings, especially when it is unethical or infeasible to randomly assign participants to different treatment régimes. In such case propensity score (PS) analysis can be applied to accounting for possible selection bias and thereby addressing questions of causal inference. Many PS methods exist, yet few guidelines are available to aid applied researchers in their conduct and evaluation of a PS analysis. In this article we give an overview of available techniques for PS estimation and application, balance diagnostic, treatment effect estimation, and sensitivity assessment, as well as recent advances. We also offer a tutorial that can be used to emulate the steps of PS analysis. Our goal is to provide information that will bring PS analysis within the reach of applied clinical researchers and practitioners.

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QUESTIONS?

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