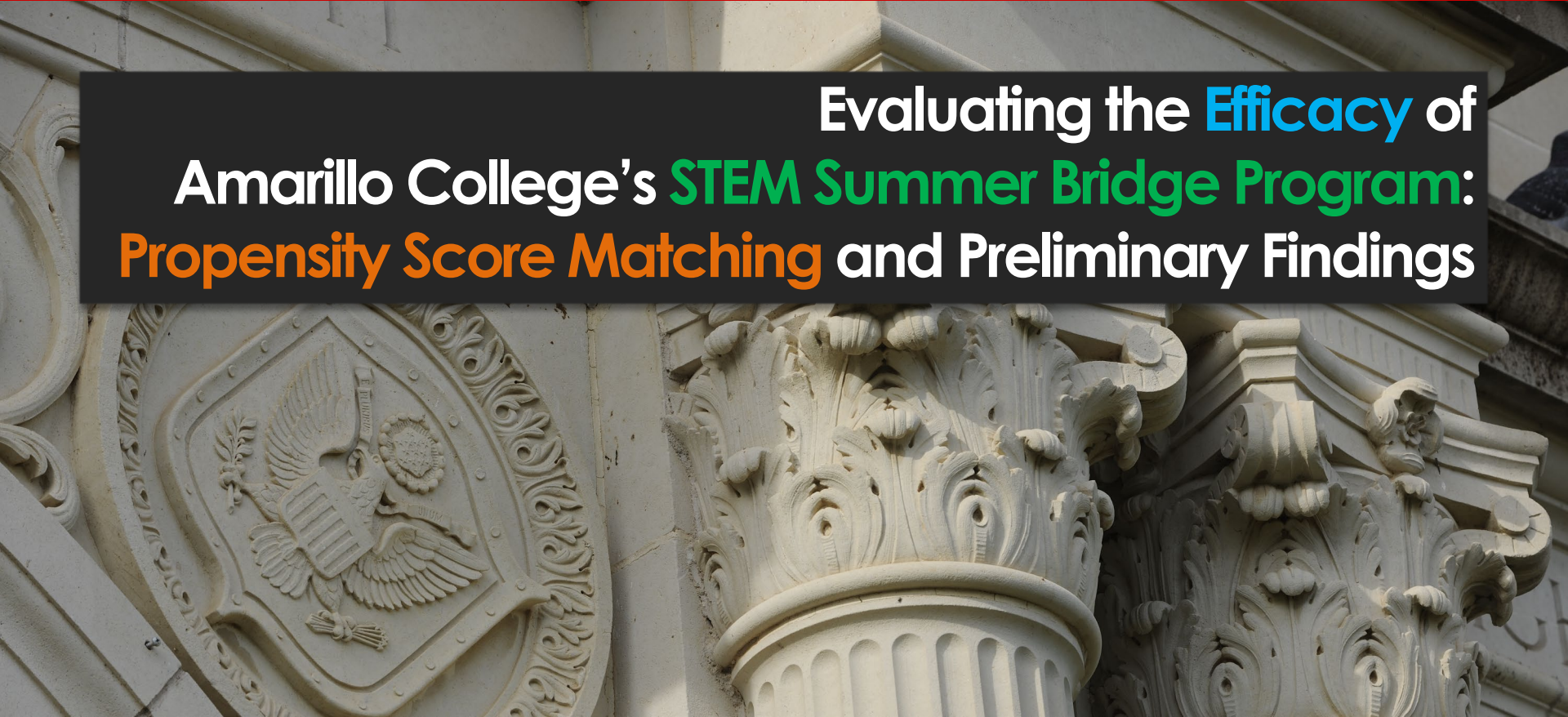




Evaluating the **Efficacy** of  
Amarillo College's **STEM Summer Bridge Program**:  
**Propensity Score Matching** and Preliminary Findings



# BACKGROUND



Amarillo College (AC) received a 5-year DOE grant for their **Innovating and Advancing in STEM Education** project

- **Overcharging Goal**: Improve students' *academic achievement* and *persistence*, ultimately enhancing their ability to complete a *STEM degree* and *transfer to a 4-year institution*



Amarillo College®

# BACKGROUND



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— AMARILLO COLLEGE —  
**#ONE**  
BEST COMMUNITY COLLEGES  
**IN TEXAS**  
INTELLIGENT OVERALL PICK

- #1: Develop a work-based learning system (15 courses)
- #2: Update technology skills instruction
- **#3: Develop a STEM Scholars Program**
- #4: Strengthen articulation between AC and West Texas A&M University

# BACKGROUND



**Initiative #3:** Develop a STEM Scholars Program – “**Summer Bridge Program**”



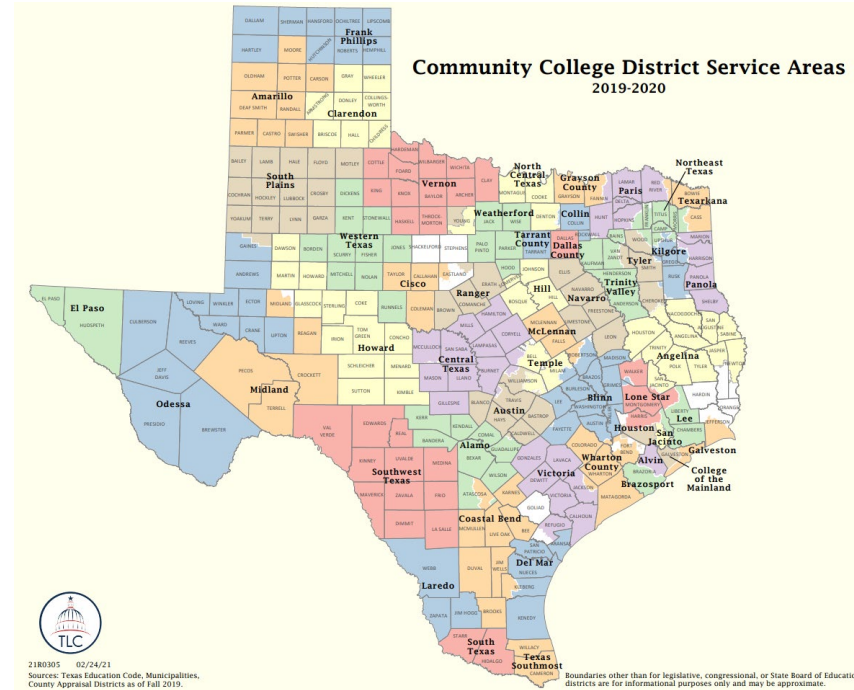
- For 1<sup>st</sup> year students: Development **Seminars** + math/science **Bootcamps**
- For 2<sup>nd</sup> year students: **STEM Research** with WT A&M or TTU + **Coaching Services**

# BACKGROUND



## Amarillo College

- Urban college offering:
  - 140+ transfer and technical programs
  - 10 STEM AS programs
- 9,159 students (in 2020)
  - 44% Hispanic
  - 70% first-generation (82% of Hispanic)
  - 51% low-income (57% of Hispanic)
  - 59% part-time
  - 770 STEM majors (342 Hispanic)



# THE TASK



TTU performs **summative program evaluation** examining the effects of the *Summer Bridge Program* on student outcomes



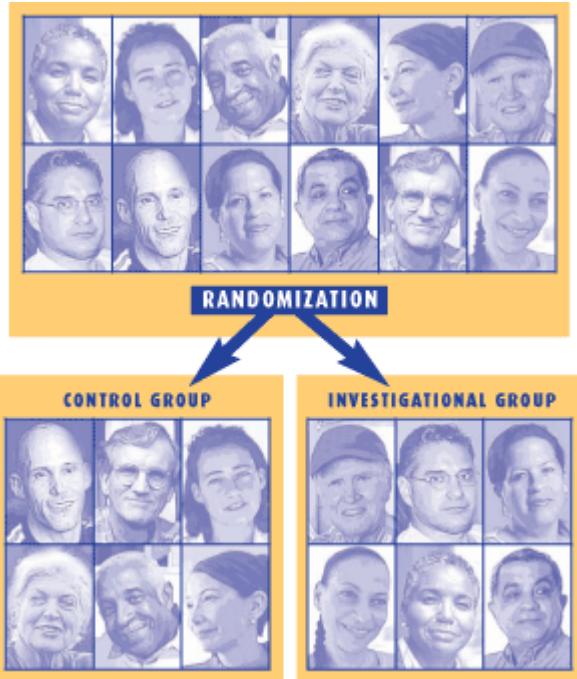
- 4 cohorts: AY22-23, AY23-24, AY24-25, AY25-26;  
*24 program participants* in the first cohort
- Key outcomes: GPA, dropout, STEM persistence, degree completion (any degree or STEM), transfer to a 4-year institution, etc.



# BUT, THERE ARE ALWAYS CHALLENGES



*In an ideal setting,*



- Students are randomly assigned to the *Treatment (Intervention)* 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 “elected” to participate in the *Summer Bridge Program*
  - *Program participants* and *non-participants* may be considerably dissimilar in some personal characteristics — **selection bias**
  - Thus, when the two groups show a difference in outcomes, this could be due to the *program*, personal factors, or both



# BUT, THERE ARE ALWAYS CHALLENGES



*In reality,*

- Students were not randomized. Rather, they “elected” to participate in the *Summer Bridge Program*
- **24** program participants vs. **650** non-participants! (1 : 27)



# BUT, THERE ARE ALWAYS CHALLENGES



## In reality,

- Students were not randomized. Rather, they “elected” to participate in the *Summer Bridge Program*
- **24** program participants vs. **650** non-participants! (1 : 27)
- Required to address **WWC Standards** for baseline equivalence

$0.00 \leq \text{ES Difference} \leq 0.05$	$0.05 < \text{ES Difference} \leq 0.25$	$\text{ES Difference} > 0.25$
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

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





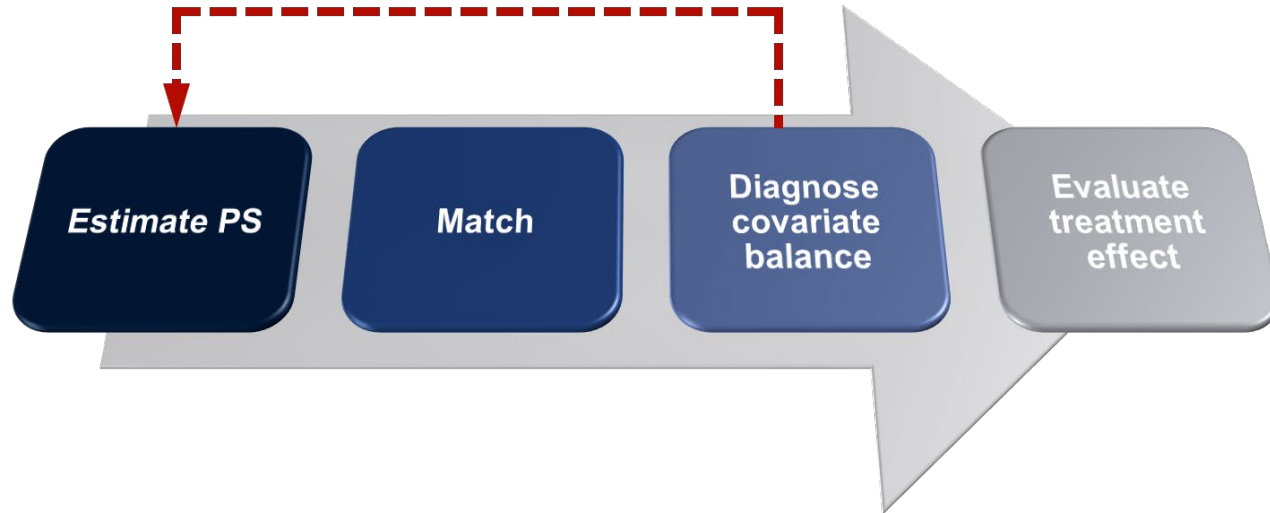
## 4 popular methods (Austin, 2009; Rosenbaum, 2002; Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983)

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

# PROCESS

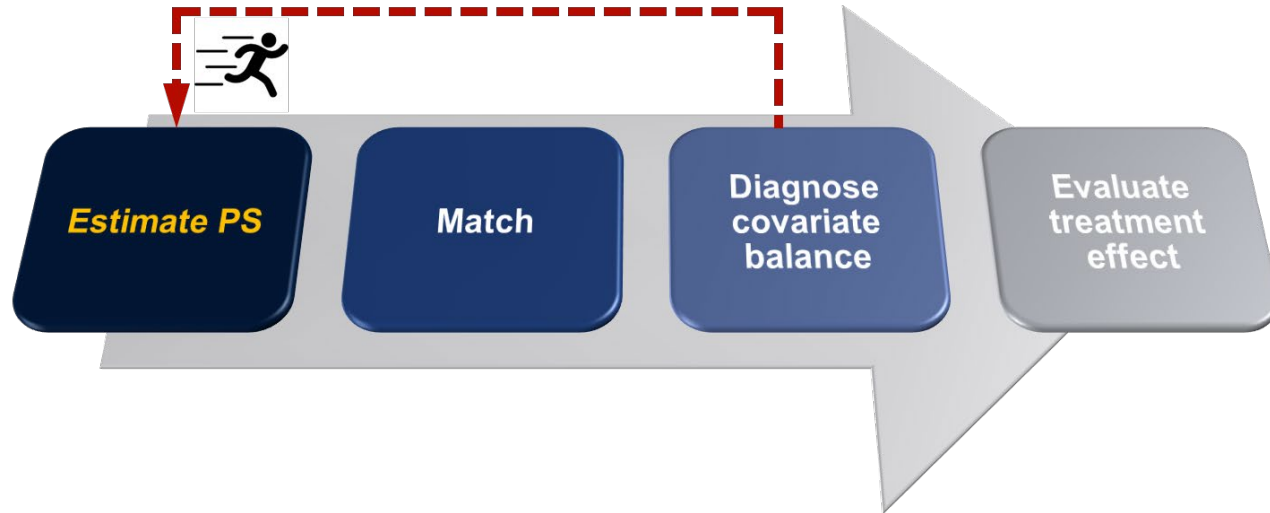


## *Propensity score matching*



- 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)

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

# ESTIMATING PS: LR



## Summer Bridge Program

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Value</u>
Program participation	Yes (1), No (0)
Age	in year
Gender	Female / Male
Race / Ethnicity	White / Black / Hispanic / Asian
First generation	Yes / No
GPA	A=4, B=3, C=2, D=1, F=0
Dropout, STEM persistence, Degree completion, Transfer	Yes / No

# ESTIMATING PS: LR



## Logistic regression

```
> param <- matchit(treated ~ age + gender + race_ethnicity +  
  first_gen_status  
  family=binomial, data=dat)  
> param$distance
```

	unique_id	age	gender	race_ethnicity	first_gen_status	treated	distance
1	23	17	Male	Unknown or not reported	Not First Generation	1	1.820141e-01
2	2	18	Male	Hispanic/Latino	First Generation	1	7.701892e-02
3	21	17	Female	Hispanic/Latino	First Generation	1	2.625690e-01
4	4	18	Female	Asian	First Generation	1	2.737584e-01
5	3	19	Female	Asian	First Generation	1	1.142132e-01



# ESTIMATING PS: GBM



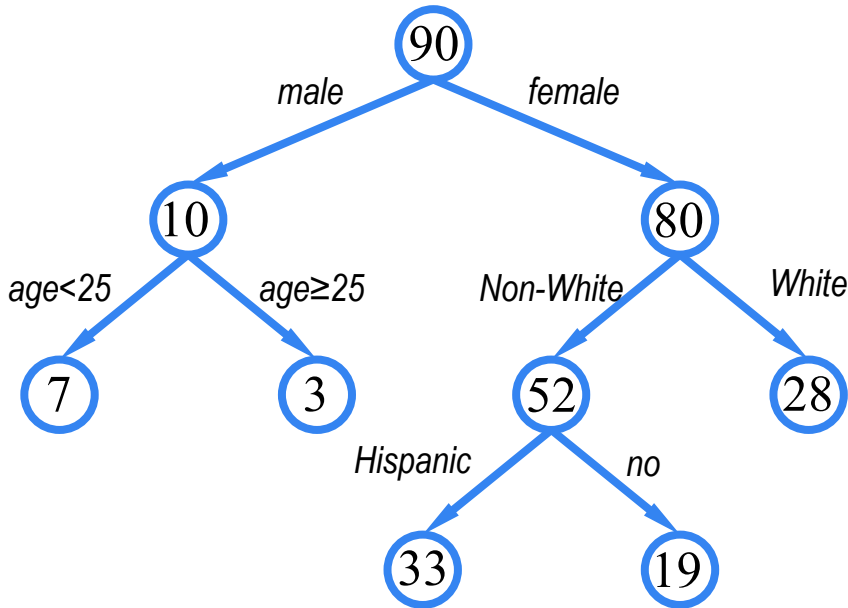
**Generalized boosted modeling** allows for multiway product terms modeled “naturally” as a result of sample splitting. (Friedman, 2001; McCaffrey, Ridgeway, & Morral, 2004)

- **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**.

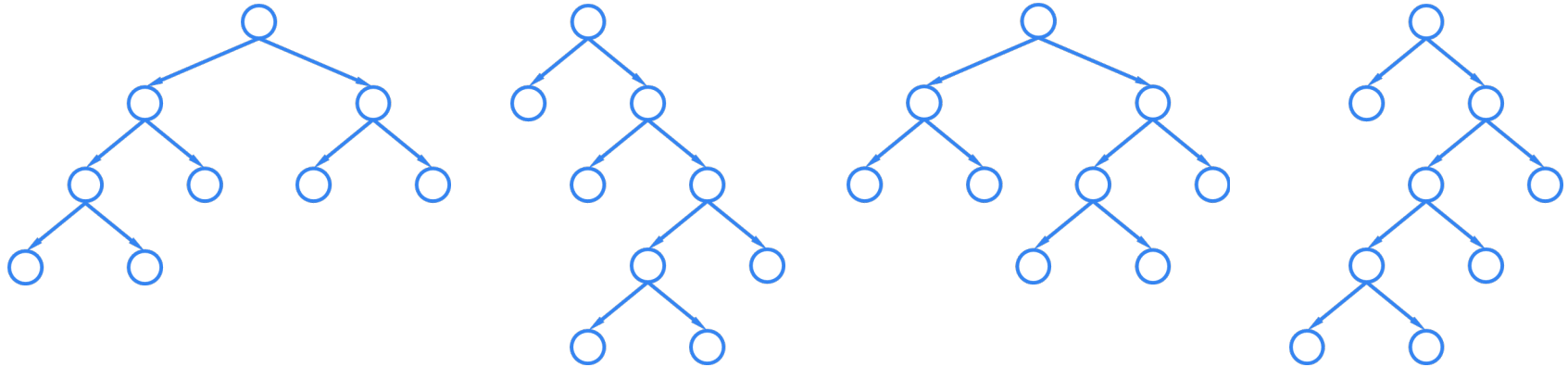


- The selected sample is split by the covariate that, among all covariates, best predicts treatment status
- The difference between “estimated” PS and “actual” treatment status — *residual* — is computed within each split subset
- Additional splits are made by predicting the *residual* with the remaining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

# ESTIMATING PS: GBM

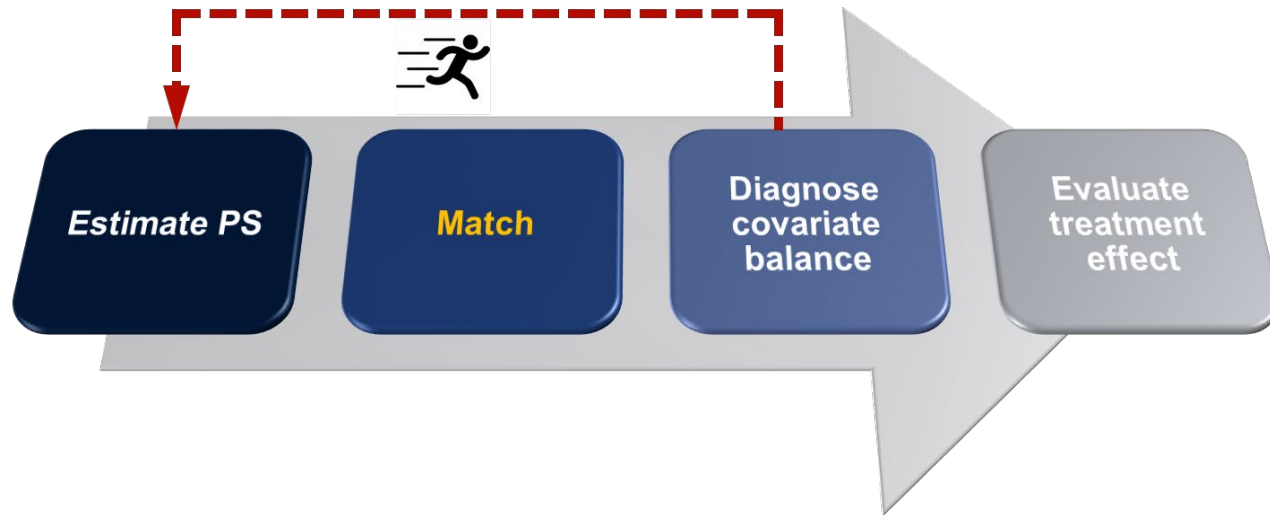


- **Step 3:** Many trees are formed by repeating **Steps 1 & 2**.



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

# MATCHING



# NEAREST NEIGHBOR MATCHING



In *nearest neighbor (a.k.a. greedy) 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 matching process. A bracket labeled '1' connects the PS values of treated individuals 1 and 2 (.57 and .36) to the PS value of untreated individual 3 (.54). A bracket labeled '2' connects the PS values of treated individuals 1 and 2 (.57 and .36) to the PS value of untreated individual 5 (.17). This indicates that individual 3 is the nearest neighbor for treated individuals 1 and 2, and individual 5 is the nearest neighbor for treated individuals 1 and 2.

- Find a match for treated persons, one by one

# NEAREST NEIGHBOR MATCHING



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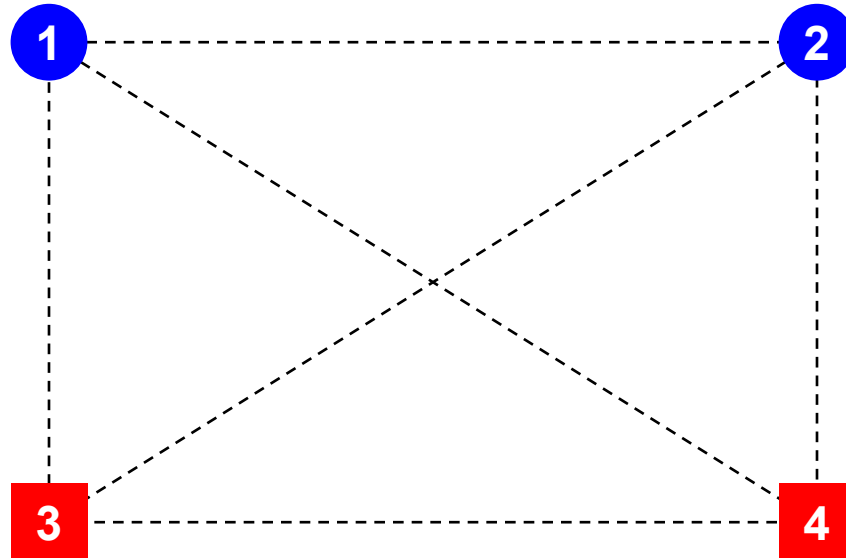
The diagram shows a table with columns ID, Treated, and PS. The first two rows (ID 1 and 2) are highlighted in light blue, indicating they are treated individuals. The remaining rows (ID 3, 4, 5, and the ellipsis) are highlighted in light red, indicating they are untreated individuals. A bracket labeled (1) connects the PS values of the first two rows (.57 and .36). A bracket labeled (2) connects the PS values of the first and fifth rows (.57 and .17).

- 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.

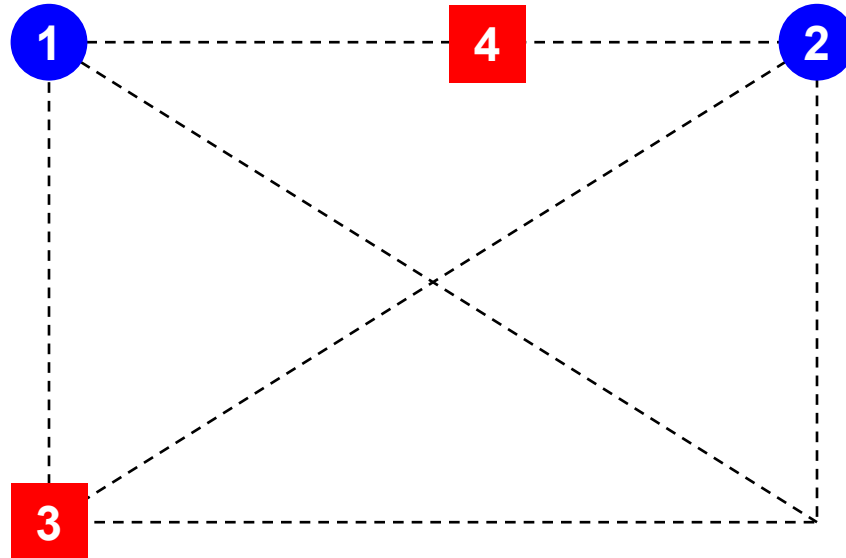




# OPTIMAL MATCHING



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*

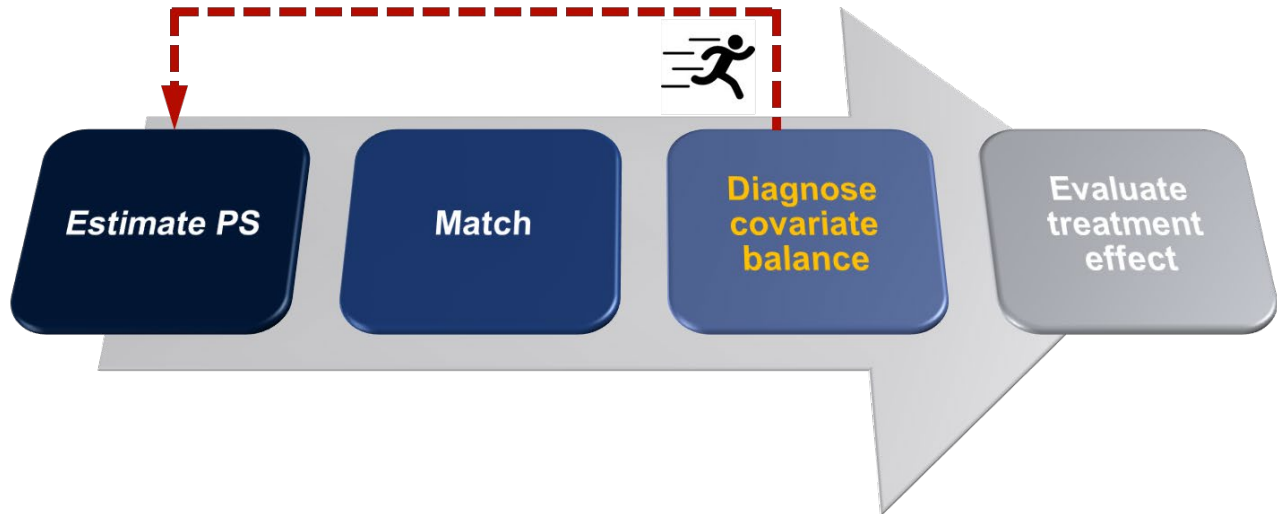
```
matchit(treated ~ age + gender + race_ethnicity +  
        first_gen_status,  
        family=binomial, data=dat,  
        method="nearest", caliper=0.25)
```

Sample Sizes:		
	Control	Treated
All	650	24
Matched	23	23
Unmatched	627	1
Discarded	0	0

## *Optimal matching*

```
matchit(treated ~ age + gender + race_ethnicity +  
        first_gen_status,  
        family=binomial, data=dat,  
        method="optimal")
```

# 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)

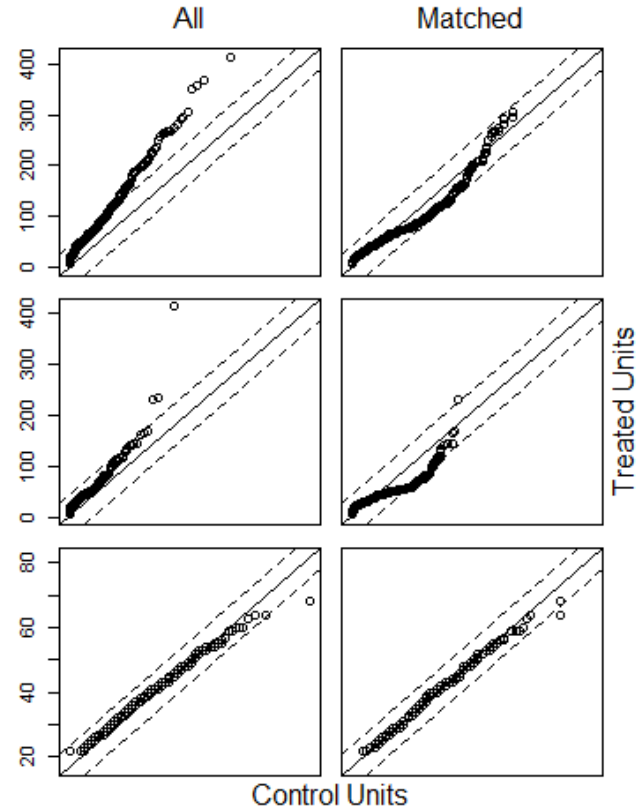
- Inspection of *distributions* — **Q-Q plot**
- *Standardized difference in means* — **Cohen's d**

# BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS: Q-Q PLOT



## Q-Q plot

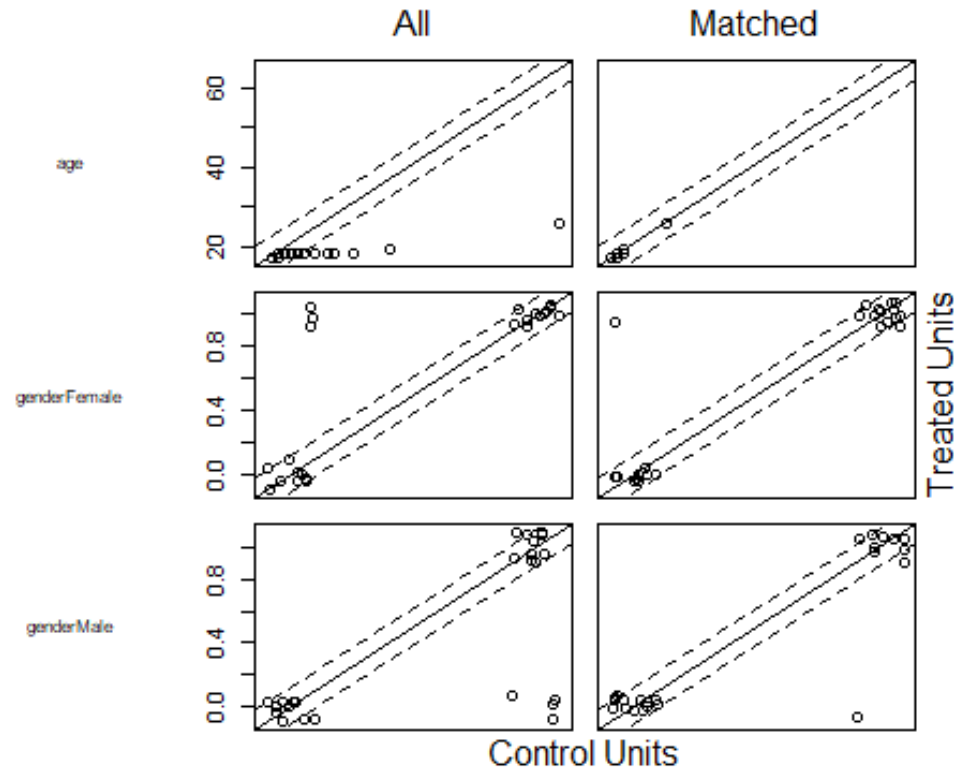
- The *distribution* of a covariate in the *Treatment* group is plotted against the distribution in the *Control* group
- *Deviations from a 45-degree line* indicate that the distributions are dissimilar.



# BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS: Q-Q PLOT



## Q-Q plot



# BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS: Cohen's D



## Cohen's $d$

- Continuous covariates:

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

- Binary covariates:

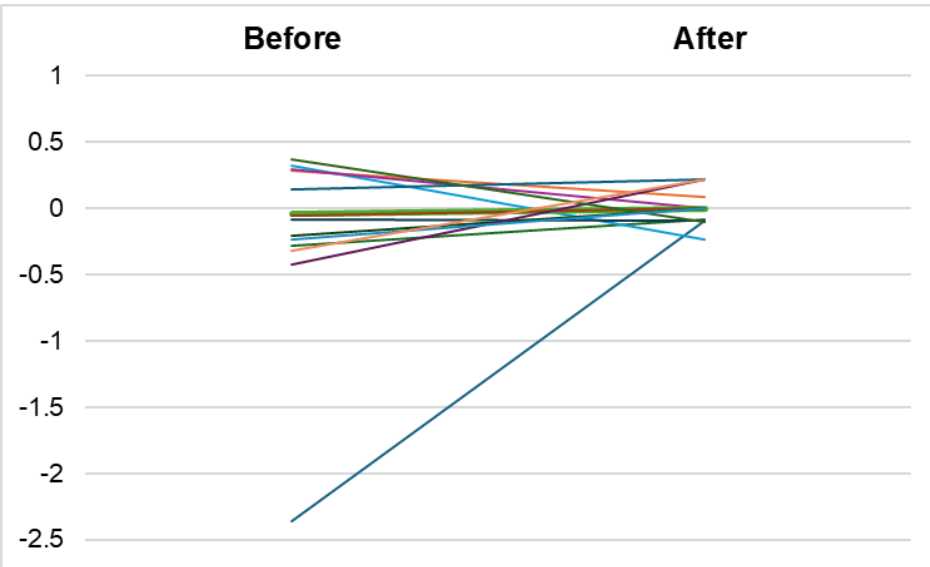
$$\frac{(\hat{P}_T - \hat{P}_U)}{\sqrt{\frac{\hat{P}_T(1 - \hat{P}_T) + \hat{P}_U(1 - \hat{P}_U)}{2}}}$$

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

# BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS: Cohen's D



## Cohen's d



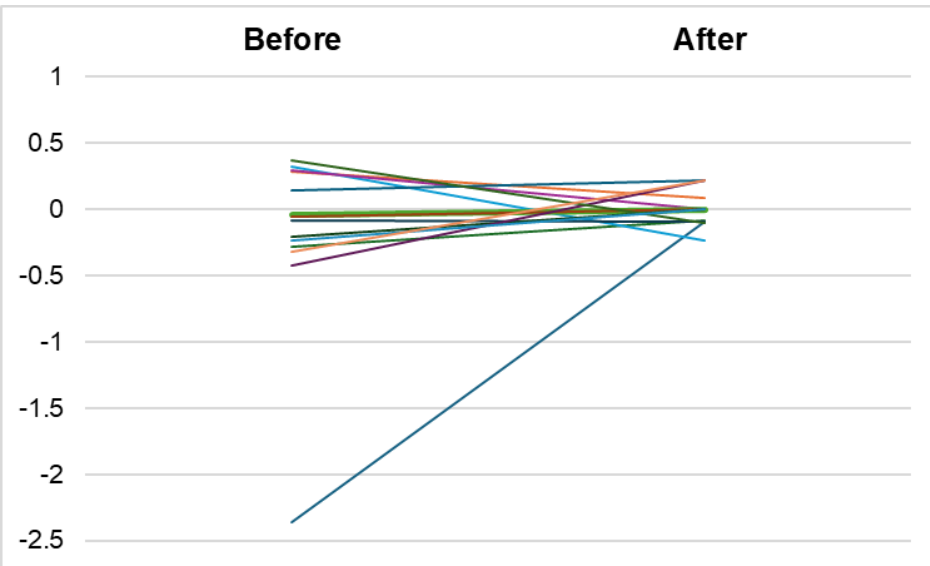
	Std. Mean Diff.
distance	0.0025
age	-0.0976
genderFemale	0.0882
genderMale	-0.0882
race_ethnicityAsian	-0.2333
race_ethnicityBlack	0.0000
race_ethnicityHawaiian/Pacific Islander	0.0000
race_ethnicityHispanic/Latino	-0.0882
race_ethnicityNative American	0.0000
race_ethnicityTwo or more races	0.0000
race_ethnicityUnknown or not reported	0.2176
race_ethnicityWhite	0.2141
first_gen_statusFirst Generation	-0.1004
first_gen_statusNot First Generation	0.0000
first_gen_statusUnknown/Not Reported	0.2176



# BALANCE DIAGNOSTICS: Cohen's D



## Cohen's d



	Std. Mean Diff.
distance	0.0025
age	-0.0976
genderFemale	0.0882
genderMale	-0.0882
race_ethnicityAsian	-0.2333
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$0.00 \leq \text{ES Difference} \leq 0.05$

*Satisfies baseline equivalence*

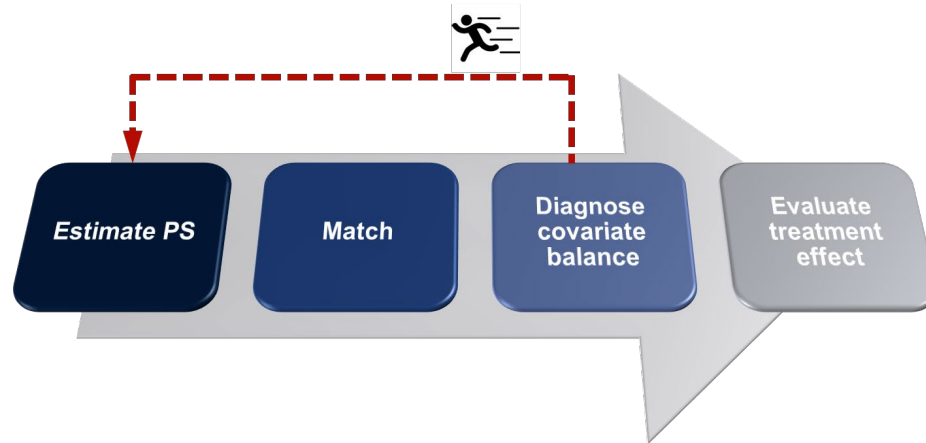
$0.05 < \text{ES Difference} \leq 0.25$

*Statistical adjustment required to satisfy baseline equivalence*

$\text{ES Difference} > 0.25$

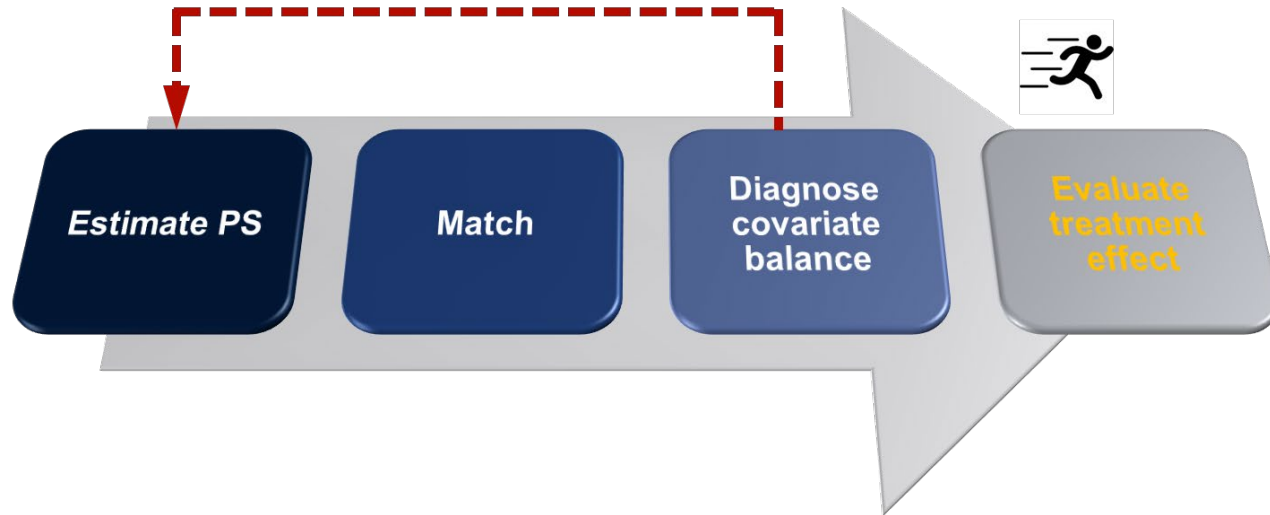
Does not satisfy baseline equivalence

# 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*

# ESTIMATING TREATMENT EFFECT



# ESTIMATING TREATMENT EFFECT

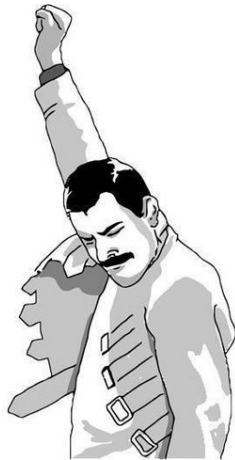


## *Bivariate tests*

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

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

$p < 0.05$



# ESTIMATING TREATMENT EFFECT



## *Bivariate tests*

Spring 23 (after the summer program in Summer 22)

<i>Outcome</i>	<i>Treatment</i>	<i>Control</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d / V</i>
GPA	2.8 ± 1.4	2.7 ± 0.8	0.90	0.04
Dropout	8%	25%	0.11	0.22
STEM persistence	86%	83%	0.79	0.04
Degree completion	8.3%	4.2%	0.55	0.09

- Positive outcomes are emerging, supporting the impacts of the **Summer Bridge Program**

# 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 effect,
  - But also “*hidden*” *bias* from unmeasured covariates can be evaluated in terms of robustness of the effect estimate — **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 regimes. 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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