Sensitivity Analyses

Ryan T. Moore

American University

The Lab @ DC

2024-07-16

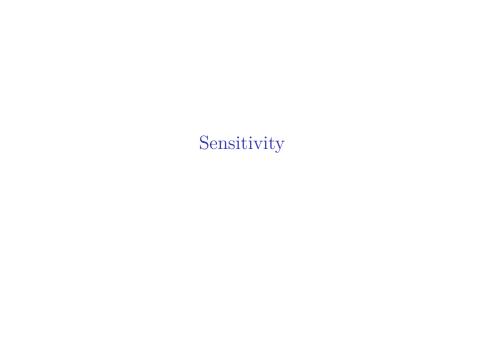
Table of contents I

Sensitivity

Sensitivity to Model Specification

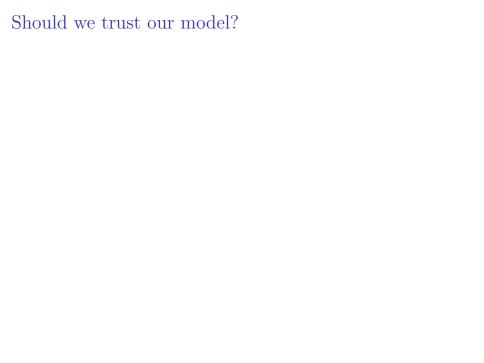
Sensitivity to an Unidentifiable Parameter

Sensitivity to an Unobserved Covariates





Sensitivity to Model Specification



Estimating all possible regressions

 ${\rm Idea}$

Moore, Powell, and Reeves $\left(2013\right)$

Implementation

Hebbali (2024)

library(olsrr)

4 female

5 female

male

6

1950

1982

1981

```
library(qss)
data(social)
social <- social |> mutate(
  age = 2006 - yearofbirth,
  age_c = age - mean(age),
  messages = fct relevel(messages, "Control")
head(social)
     sex yearofbirth primary2004
                                    messages primary2006 hhs
    male
                1941
                                O Civic Duty
2 female
                1947
                                O Civic Duty
                                                        0
                                   Hawthorne
3
    male
              1951
```

Hawthorne

Hawthorne

Control

11

12

13

5

5

```
all_lm_social_coefs <- ols_step_all_possible_betas(lm_out)
all_lm_social_coefs</pre>
```

```
model
                   predictor
                                      beta
                 (Intercept) 0.2966383083
2
          messagesCivic Duty 0.0178993441
3
           messagesHawthorne 0.0257363121
4
           messagesNeighbors 0.0813099129
5
                 (Intercept) 0.3059095493
6
                     sexmale 0.0126509479
        3
                 (Intercept) 0.3122445777
                       age_c 0.0041515670
8
9
                 (Intercept) 0.2508820413
10
                 primary2004 0.1528795252
```

(Intercept) 0.3763534949

(Intercept)

hhsize -0.0293482475

0.2902800648

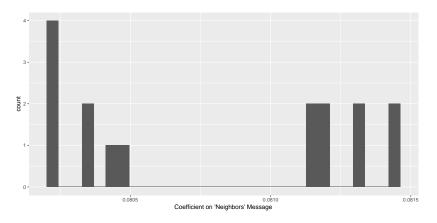


Figure 1: Coefficients from All Possible Regressions

Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max. 0.08023 0.08032 0.08081 0.08080 0.08122 0.08145

All Coefficients

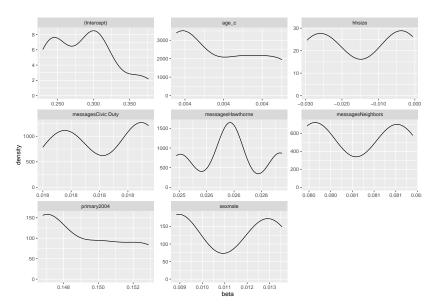


Figure 2

Matching as Preprocessing

minimize effects of model-based adjustment (subclassify, match)

"model-based adjustments ...will give basically the same point estimates"

Matching as Preprocessing

minimize effects of model-based adjustment (subclassify, match)

"model-based adjustments ...will give basically the same point estimates"

What does this mean?

Ho et al. (2007)

"Matching as Nonparametric Preprocessing for Reducing Model Dependence in Parametric Causal Inference"

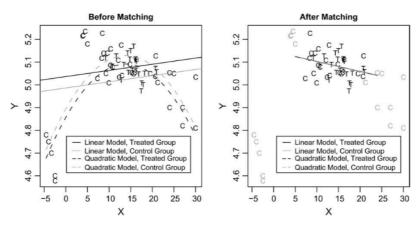


Figure 3: Here

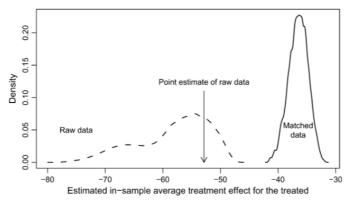


Fig. 2 Kernel density plot (a smoothed histogram) of point estimates of the in-sample ATT of the Democratic Senate majority on FDA drug approval time across 262,143 specifications. The solid line

Figure 4: Here

How to Identify Problem?

Different distributions; non-overlap

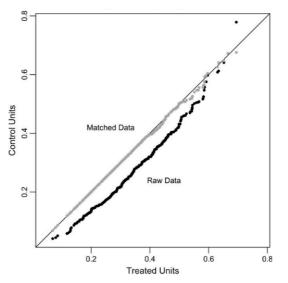


Fig. 3 QQ plot of propensity score for candidate visibility. The black dots represent empirical QQ

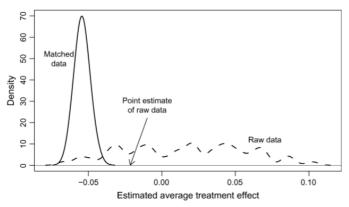


Fig. 4 Kernel density plot of point estimates of the effect of being a less visible male Republican candidate across 63 possible specifications with the Koch data. The dashed line presents estimates for

Paradox of Regression for causal inference?

- ▶ If diffs large, regression not enough, very sensitive
- ▶ If diffs small, regression won't matter much
- ▶ Ho et al. (2007)

Matching as Preprocessing for Dynamic Treatment Regimes

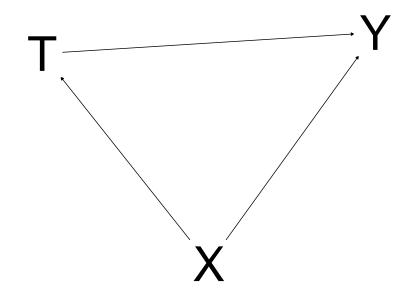
Blackwell and Strezhnev (2022)

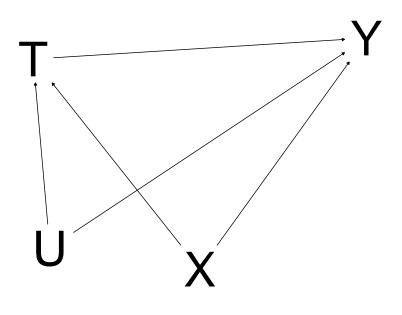
Sensitivity to an Unidentifiable Parameter

Mediation Analysis

Sensitivity to an Unobserved Covariates

Confounding in Observational Studies





Addressing Confounding

To break confounding,

- ightharpoonup can't break $X \to Y$
- \blacktriangleright break $X \to T$
- \blacktriangleright I.e., make $X \perp \!\!\! \perp T$
- ▶ But this doesn't address $U \to T$ (or $U \to Y$).

Addressing Confounding

To break confounding,

- ightharpoonup can't break $X \to Y$
- \blacktriangleright break $X \to T$
- \blacktriangleright I.e., make $X \perp \!\!\! \perp T$
- ▶ But this doesn't address $U \to T$ (or $U \to Y$).

(Of course, if no causal effect of $U \to Y$, no problem.)

Hidden Bias

Where there is $U \to T$ and $U \to Y$, there is hidden bias.

Hidden Bias

Where there is $U \to T$ and $U \to Y$, there is hidden bias.

Formally, i and j appear similar:

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}_j$$

Hidden Bias

Where there is $U \to T$ and $U \to Y$, there is hidden bias.

Formally, i and j appear similar:

$$\mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}_j$$

but are different in prop score:

$$\pi_i \neq \pi_j$$

We are interested in the effect of phone calls on turnout.

We are interested in the effect of phone calls on turnout.

Two voters look identical on observed predictors of whether called (that might affect turnout, too): age, education, income, party ID.

We are interested in the effect of phone calls on turnout.

Two voters look identical on observed predictors of whether called (that might affect turnout, too): age, education, income, party ID.

However, different probabilities of being called, due to unobserved confounder, sociability.

We are interested in the effect of phone calls on turnout.

Two voters look identical on observed predictors of whether called (that might affect turnout, too): age, education, income, party ID.

However, different probabilities of being called, due to unobserved confounder, sociability.

Sociability affects whether called (know more people) and turnout.

Example

We are interested in the effect of phone calls on turnout.

Two voters look identical on observed predictors of whether called (that might affect turnout, too): age, education, income, party ID.

However, **different** probabilities of being called, due to unobserved confounder, sociability.

Sociability affects whether called (know more people) and turnout.

Sensitivity: how strong must sociability be to invalidate inference about phone calls?

The *odds* of A_1 vs. A_2 is

$$A_1:A_2=\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}$$

The *odds* of A_1 vs. A_2 is

$$A_1:A_2=\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}$$

Odds often expressed as

 \blacktriangleright integers: 3:2

The *odds* of A_1 vs. A_2 is

$$A_1:A_2=\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}$$

Odds often expressed as

▶ integers:
$$3:2$$
 Know $p(\Omega)=1$, so

$$3:2=\frac{.6}{.4}$$

The *odds* of A_1 vs. A_2 is

$$A_1:A_2=\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}$$

Odds often expressed as

▶ integers: 3:2 Know $p(\Omega)=1$, so

$$3:2=\frac{.6}{.4}$$

 \blacktriangleright base = 1: 1.5 : 1.

The odds of A_1 vs. A_2 is

$$A_1:A_2=\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}$$

Odds often expressed as

▶ integers:
$$3:2$$
 Know $p(\Omega)=1$, so

$$3:2=\frac{.6}{.4}$$

▶ base = 1: 1.5 : 1. Know
$$p(\Omega) = 1$$
, so

$$1.5:1=\frac{.6}{.4}$$

An odds ratio is

An *odds ratio* is a ratio of odds:

An *odds ratio* is a ratio of odds:

$$OR = \frac{\left(\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}\right)}{\left(\frac{p(A_3)}{p(A_4)}\right)}$$

An *odds ratio* is a ratio of odds:

$$OR = \frac{\left(\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}\right)}{\left(\frac{p(A_3)}{p(A_4)}\right)}$$

The strength, and weakness, is comparing changes from different base rates.

An *odds ratio* is a ratio of odds:

$$OR = \frac{\left(\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}\right)}{\left(\frac{p(A_3)}{p(A_4)}\right)}$$

The strength, and weakness, is comparing changes from different base rates.

An *odds ratio* is a ratio of odds:

$$OR = \frac{\left(\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}\right)}{\left(\frac{p(A_3)}{p(A_4)}\right)}$$

The strength, and weakness, is comparing changes from different base rates.

$$\frac{.03}{.01}$$
 $\frac{.01}{.01}$

An *odds ratio* is a ratio of odds:

$$OR = \frac{\left(\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}\right)}{\left(\frac{p(A_3)}{p(A_4)}\right)}$$

The strength, and weakness, is comparing changes from different base rates.

$$\frac{\frac{.03}{.01}}{\frac{.01}{.01}} = \frac{\frac{.06}{.02}}{\frac{.02}{.02}}$$

An *odds ratio* is a ratio of odds:

$$OR = \frac{\left(\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}\right)}{\left(\frac{p(A_3)}{p(A_4)}\right)}$$

The strength, and weakness, is comparing changes from different base rates.

$$\frac{\frac{.03}{.01}}{\frac{.01}{.01}} = \frac{\frac{.06}{.02}}{\frac{.02}{.02}} = \frac{\frac{.9}{.3}}{\frac{.3}{.3}}$$

An *odds ratio* is a ratio of odds:

$$OR = \frac{\left(\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}\right)}{\left(\frac{p(A_3)}{p(A_4)}\right)}$$

The strength, and weakness, is comparing changes from different base rates.

$$\frac{.03}{.01} = \frac{.06}{.02} = \frac{.9}{.3} = \frac{.9}{.3}$$
$$\frac{.9}{.9}$$

An *odds ratio* is a ratio of odds:

$$OR = \frac{\left(\frac{p(A_1)}{p(A_2)}\right)}{\left(\frac{p(A_3)}{p(A_4)}\right)}$$

The strength, and weakness, is comparing changes from different base rates.

$$\frac{.03}{.01} = \frac{.06}{.02} = \frac{.9}{.3} = \frac{.9}{.3} = \dots$$

$$\frac{.01}{.01} = \frac{.02}{.02} = \frac{.3}{.3} = \frac{.9}{.9} = \dots$$

	% I	3elow	Pov Line	% F	1 bove	Pov Line
	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$
$\overline{t_1}$	90	80	1.1	10	20	0.5

	% I	selow	Pov Line	% Above Pov Line			
	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	
t_1	90	80	1.1	10	20	0.5	
t_2	15	5	3.0	85	95	0.89	

	% I	selow	Pov Line	% Above Pov Line			
	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	
t_1	90	80	1.1	10	20	0.5	
t_2	15	5	3.0	85	95	0.89	

	% Below Pov Line			% Above Pov Line			
	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	
t_1	90	80	1.1	10	20	0.5	
t_2	15	5	3.0	85	95	0.89	

 \blacktriangleright At t_1 : More blacks below, whites above PovLine

	% Below Pov Line			% Above Pov Line			
	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	
$\overline{t_1}$	90	80	1.1	10	20	0.5	
t_2	15	5	3.0	85	95	0.89	

- At t_1 : More blacks below, whites above PovLine
- At t_2 : are things getting better or worse for Blacks relative to Whites?

	% Below Pov Line			% Above Pov Line			
	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	
$\overline{t_1}$	90	80	1.1	10	20	0.5	
t_2	15	5	3.0	85	95	0.89	

- At t_1 : More blacks below, whites above PovLine
- At t_2 : are things getting better or worse for Blacks relative to Whites?

	% Below Pov Line			% Above Pov Line			
	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	
$\overline{t_1}$	90	80	1.1	10	20	0.5	
t_2	15	5	3.0	85	95	0.89	

- \triangleright At t_1 : More blacks below, whites above PovLine
- \blacktriangleright At t_2 : are things getting better or worse for Blacks relative to Whites?

Clearly, worse (odds of below pov line):

Odds Ratios: $\frac{1.1}{.5} = 2.2$, $\frac{3}{.89} = 3.4$

	% Below Pov Line			% Above Pov Line			
	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	
$\overline{t_1}$	90	80	1.1	10	20	0.5	
t_2	15	5	3.0	85	95	0.89	

- \blacktriangleright At t_1 : More blacks below, whites above PovLine
- At t_2 : are things getting better or worse for Blacks relative to Whites?

Clearly, worse (odds of below pov line):

Odds Ratios: $\frac{1.1}{.5} = 2.2, \frac{3}{.89} = 3.4$

Clearly, no change:

Absolute Differences: 10, 10, 10, 10

	% Below Pov Line			% Above Pov Line			
	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	В	W	$\frac{B}{W}$	
$\overline{t_1}$	90	80	1.1	10	20	0.5	
t_2	15	5	3.0	85	95	0.89	

- \triangleright At t_1 : More blacks below, whites above PovLine
- At t_2 : are things getting better or worse for Blacks relative to Whites?

Clearly, worse (odds of below pov line):

Odds Ratios: $\frac{1.1}{.5} = 2.2, \frac{3}{.89} = 3.4$

Clearly, no change:

Absolute Differences: 10, 10, 10, 10

Clearly, huge absolute improvements.

▶ Key: it's not clear whether relative disparities getting better/worse/neither by below/above measures.

- ➤ Key: it's not clear whether relative disparities getting better/worse/neither by below/above measures.
- ► (Easy to produce examples of OR's same and AbsDiffs slightly diff.)

- ➤ Key: it's not clear whether relative disparities getting better/worse/neither by below/above measures.
- ► (Easy to produce examples of OR's same and AbsDiffs slightly diff.)
- ▶ (Diffs betwn groups real, importnt, but how we meas. changes is tricky)

King's Conjecture



Gary King @kinggary

the "odds ratio" is a lame way to communicate statistical results; I conjecture that there's *always* a better way

Expand ← Reply ♣ Retweet ★ Favorite

Odds of treatment for i and j:

$$\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}, \frac{\pi_j}{1-\pi_j}$$

Odds of treatment for i and j:

$$\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}, \frac{\pi_j}{1-\pi_j}$$

OR of i versus j:

$$OR = \frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i} \div \frac{\pi_j}{1 - \pi_j}$$
$$= \frac{\pi_i (1 - \pi_j)}{\pi_j (1 - \pi_i)}$$

Let Γ be upper bound on OR of treatment.

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma} \le \frac{\pi_i (1 - \pi_j)}{\pi_i (1 - \pi_i)} \le \Gamma \qquad \forall i, j \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}_j$$

Let Γ be upper bound on OR of treatment.

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma} \le \frac{\pi_i (1 - \pi_j)}{\pi_i (1 - \pi_i)} \le \Gamma \qquad \forall i, j \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{x}_j$$

By what factor does the odds of treatment differ? (No more than Γ)

Rosenbaum (2020) shows that this is same as

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i}\right) = \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i) + \gamma u_i$$
$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_j}{1-\pi_j}\right) = \kappa(\mathbf{x}_j) + \gamma u_j$$

s.t. $0 \le u_i \le 1$.

Rosenbaum (2020) shows that this is same as

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i}\right) = \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i) + \gamma u_i$$
$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_j}{1 - \pi_j}\right) = \kappa(\mathbf{x}_j) + \gamma u_j$$

s.t. $0 \le u_i \le 1$.

Interpretation: first rewrite

$$\log\left(\frac{\pi_j}{1 - \pi_j}\right) = \kappa(\mathbf{x}_i) + \gamma u_j$$

Exponentiate:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i} \end{pmatrix} = e^{\kappa(\mathbf{x}_i)+\gamma u_i}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\pi_j}{1-\pi_j} \end{pmatrix} = e^{\kappa(\mathbf{x}_i)+\gamma u_j}$$

Exponentiate:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i} \end{pmatrix} = e^{\kappa(\mathbf{x}_i) + \gamma u_i}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\pi_j}{1 - \pi_j} \end{pmatrix} = e^{\kappa(\mathbf{x}_i) + \gamma u_j}$$

Calculate OR:

$$\begin{split} OR &= \frac{\pi_i(1-\pi_j)}{\pi_j(1-\pi_i)} \\ &= \frac{e^{\kappa(\mathbf{x}_i)+\gamma u_i}}{e^{\kappa(\mathbf{x}_i)+\gamma u_j}} \\ &= e^{(\kappa(\mathbf{x}_i)+\gamma u_i)-(\kappa(\mathbf{x}_i)+\gamma u_j)} \\ &= e^{(\gamma u_i-\gamma u_j)} \\ &= e^{\gamma(u_i-u_j)} \end{split}$$

Interpreting Γ

$$OR = e^{\gamma(u_i - u_j)}$$

Interpreting Γ

$$OR = e^{\gamma(u_i - u_j)}$$

Log odds differ by factor of γ times diff in unobs confounder.

Interpreting Γ

$$OR = e^{\gamma(u_i - u_j)}$$

Log odds differ by factor of γ times diff in unobs confounder.

Shows $\Gamma = e^{\gamma}$.

TABLE 4.1. Sensitivity Analysis for Hammond's Study of Smoking and Lung Cancer: Range of Significance Levels for Hidden Biases of Various Magnitudes.

Γ	Minimum	Maximum
1	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
2	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
3	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
4	< 0.0001	0.0036
5	< 0.0001	0.03
6	< 0.0001	0.1

TABLE 4.1. Sensitivity Analysis for Hammond's Study of Smoking and Lung Cancer: Range of Significance Levels for Hidden Biases of Various Magnitudes.

Γ	Minimum	Maximum
1	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
2	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
3	< 0.0001	< 0.0001
4	< 0.0001	0.0036
5	< 0.0001	0.03
6	< 0.0001	0.1

- ► Groups: smokers/nonsmokers
- Outcome: lung cancer
- Something must increase smoking by $6 \times$ to change inference.
- ▶ If exists, maybe it's that factor, not smoking directly.

(Bias from $U \to T$; effectively, $U \to Y$ nearly perfect.)

Γ	Minimum	Maximum
1	≤ 0.0001	≤ 0.0001
2	≤ 0.0001	0.0018
3	≤ 0.0001	0.0136
4	≤ 0.0001	0.0388
4.25	≤ 0.0001	0.0468
5	≤ 0.0001	0.0740

Table 4.2: Signed-Rank Statistic p-value Sensitivity for Lead in Children's Blood

- ▶ Groups: parents occupationally exposed/unexposed
- ▶ Outcome: children's levels
- Something must increase parents' exposure by $5 \times$ to change inference.
- ▶ If exists, maybe it's that, not parental exposure directly.

Γ	Minimum	Maximum
1	≤ 0.0001	≤ 0.0001
2	≤ 0.0001	0.0018
3	≤ 0.0001	0.0136
4	≤ 0.0001	0.0388
4.25	≤ 0.0001	0.0468
5	≤ 0.0001	0.0740

Table 4.2: Signed-Rank Statistic p-value Sensitivity for Lead in Children's Blood

- ▶ Groups: parents occupationally exposed/unexposed
- ▶ Outcome: children's levels
- Something must increase parents' exposure by $5 \times$ to change inference.
- ▶ If exists, maybe it's that, not parental exposure directly.

(one-sided)

Γ	Minimum	Maximum
1	15	15
2	10.25	19.5
3	8	23
4	6.5	25
5	5	26.5

Table 4.3: Point Estimate Sensitivity for Lead in Children's Blood

Γ	Minimum	Maximum
1	15	15
2	10.25	19.5
3	8	23
4	6.5	25
5	5	26.5

Table 4.3: Point Estimate Sensitivity for Lead in Children's Blood

- HL point estimate: 15 (median of all $m \times n$ possible matched pairs)
- ▶ With confounding, wider range of possible effects.

Ι.	95% C1
1	(9.5, 20.5)
2	(4.5, 27.5)
3	(1.0, 32.0)
4	(-1.0, 36.5)
5	(-3.0, 41.5)

Table 4.4: Confidence Interval Sensitivity for Lead in Children's Blood

Γ	95% CI
1	(9.5, 20.5)
2	(4.5, 27.5)
3	(1.0, 32.0)
4	(-1.0, 36.5)
5	(-3.0, 41.5)

Table 4.4: Confidence Interval Sensitivity for Lead in Children's Blood

- ► Inverted NHST CI's
- If something increases parental exposure by $4\times$, negative estimates of parents on children are reasonable.

(two-sided)

Implementation

Packages

- sensitivitymw
- sensitivitymv

Example

```
lm_out <- lm(turnout12 ~ pid_rep, data = anes)
summary(lm_out)</pre>
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = turnout12 ~ pid_rep, data = anes)
```

Residuals:
Min 1Q Median 3Q Max

```
-0.3395 -0.2451 -0.2451 -0.2451 1.7549
```

Coefficients:

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 1.24512 0.01868 66.641 < 2e-16 ***
pid_rep 0.09435 0.03320 2.842 0.00456 **
```

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '

Residual standard error: 0.535 on 1198 degrees of freedom

library(konfound)
konfound(lm_out, pid_rep)

library(konfound) konfound(lm_out, pid_rep)

Robustness of Inference to Replacement (RIR):

have to be due to bias.

This is based on a threshold of 0.065 for statistical significance (alpha = 0.05).

To invalidate an inference, 30.959 % of the estimate would

To invalidate an inference, 372 observations would have to be replaced with cases for which the effect is 0 (RIR = 372).

See Frank et al. (2013) for a description of the method.

Citation: Frank, K.A., Maroulis, S., Duong, M., and Kelcey

B. (2013).
What would it take to change an inference?
Using Rubin's causal model to interpret the

```
lm_out <- lm(turnout12 ~ pid_rep + age, data = anes)
summary(lm_out)</pre>
```

```
Call:
lm(formula = turnout12 ~ pid_rep + age, data = anes)
```

Residuals:

Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-0.5825 -0.3388 -0.1711 0.0301 1.9831

```
Coefficients:
```

```
Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)

(Intercept) 1.678649 0.045960 36.524 < 2e-16 ***

pid_rep 0.082685 0.031870 2.594 0.00959 **

age -0.008943 0.000873 -10.244 < 2e-16 ***
```

Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 '

konfound(lm_out, pid_rep)

Paration Postion and

Robustness of Inference to Replacement (RIR):
To invalidate an inference, 24.379 % of the estimate would

have to be due to bias.

This is based on a threshold of 0.063 for statistical significance (alpha = 0.05).

To invalidate an inference, 293 observations would have to be replaced with cases for which the effect is 0 (RIR = 293).

See Frank et al. (2013) for a description of the method.

Citation: Frank, K.A., Maroulis, S., Duong, M., and Kelcey B. (2013).

What would it take to change an inference?
Using Rubin's causal model to interpret the robustness of causal inferences.

```
cor(anes[,c("pid_rep", "turnout12", "econnow")])
```

```
pid_repturnout12econnowpid_rep1.000000000.0818259660.141257803turnout120.081825971.0000000000.008599061econnow0.141257800.0085990611.000000000
```

```
lm out <- lm(turnout12 ~ pid rep + age + econnow, data = age</pre>
summary(lm out)
Call:
```

lm(formula = turnout12 ~ pid_rep + age + econnow, data = age

```
Residuals:
         1Q Median
                     30
                              Max
   Min
```

```
-0.60257 -0.33748 -0.17138 0.04458 1.96702
```

```
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
(Intercept) 1.6290966 0.0565381 28.814 <2e-16 ***
```

pid_rep 0.0755031 0.0322095 2.344 0.0192 *

age -0.0091496 0.0008833 -10.358 <2e-16 *** econnow 0.0202398 0.0134633 1.503 0.1330

0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' Signif. codes:

konfound(lm_out, pid_rep)

Paration Postion and

Robustness of Inference to Replacement (RIR):
To invalidate an inference, 16.303 % of the estimate would

have to be due to bias.

This is based on a threshold of 0.063 for statistical significance (alpha = 0.05).

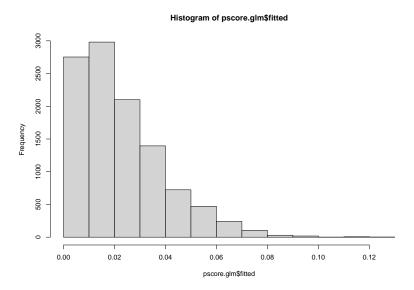
To invalidate an inference, 196 observations would have to be replaced with cases for which the effect is 0 (RIR = 196).

See Frank et al. (2013) for a description of the method.

Citation: Frank, K.A., Maroulis, S., Duong, M., and Kelcey

B. (2013).
What would it take to change an inference?
Using Rubin's causal model to interpret the robustness of causal inferences.

hist(pscore.glm\$fitted)



Original number of treated obs.....

Matched number of observations....

Matched number of observations (unweighted).

10829

247

247

247

```
Estimate... 0.036437
SE..... 0.039393
T-stat.... 0.92498
p.val..... 0.35498
Original number of observations......
```

```
library(rbounds)

# Sensitivity Test
# binarysens(m.obj, Gamma = 2, GammaInc = .1)
```

```
#hlsens(m.obj, Gamma = 5, GammaInc = 1)
```

rtm@american.edu www.ryantmoore.org

Thanks!

References I

- Blackwell, Matthew, and Anton Strezhnev. 2022. "Telescope Matching for Reducing Model Dependence in the Estimation of the Effects of Time-Varying Treatments: An Application to Negative Advertising." Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, Series A 185 (1): 377–99. https://doi.org/10.1111/rssa.12759.
- Hebbali, Aravind. 2024. olsrr: Tools for Building OLS Regression Models. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=olsrr.
- Ho, Daniel, Kosuke Imai, Gary King, and Elizabeth Stuart. 2007. "Matching as Nonparametric Preprocessing for Reducing Model Dependence in Parametric Causal Inference." *Political Analysis* 15: 199–236.
- Moore, Ryan T., Eleanor Neff Powell, and Andrew Reeves. 2013. "Driving Support: Workers, PACs, and Congressional Support of the Auto Industry." *Business and Politics* 15 (2): 137–62.
- Rosenbaum, Paul. 2020. Design of Observational Studies. Second. New York, NY: Springer.