

# Addressing Bias from Unmeasured Dispositions in Observational Studies

Paul R. Rosenbaum

May 2018

- Rosenbaum, P. R. (2006). Differential effects and generic biases in observational studies. *Biometrika* **93**, 573-586.
- Rosenbaum, P. R. (2013). Using differential comparisons in observational studies. *Chance* **26**, #3, 18-25.
- Zubizarreta, J. R., Small, D. S. and Rosenbaum, P. R. (2014). Isolation in the construction of natural experiments. *Annals of Applied Statistics* **8**, 2096-2121.
- Rosenbaum, P. R. (2017). Biases from general dispositions. Chapter 12 of *Observation and Experiment*, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Zubizarreta, J. R., Small, D. S. and Rosenbaum, P. R. (2018). A simple example of isolation in building a natural experiment. *Chance*, to appear.

# A special type of unmeasured bias

- There is a type of unmeasured bias that would invalidate treatment-control comparisons — it violates ignorability given observed covariates or selection on observables or no unmeasured confounders.

# A special type of unmeasured bias

- There is a type of unmeasured bias that would invalidate treatment-control comparisons — it violates ignorability given observed covariates or selection on observables or no unmeasured confounders.
- And yet, these biases can be partially, perhaps completely addressed.

# A special type of unmeasured bias

- There is a type of unmeasured bias that would invalidate treatment-control comparisons — it violates ignorability given observed covariates or selection on observables or no unmeasured confounders.
- And yet, these biases can be partially, perhaps completely addressed.
- These are generic unobserved biases (aka biases from general dispositions).

# A special type of unmeasured bias

- There is a type of unmeasured bias that would invalidate treatment-control comparisons — it violates ignorability given observed covariates or selection on observables or no unmeasured confounders.
- And yet, these biases can be partially, perhaps completely addressed.
- These are generic unobserved biases (aka biases from general dispositions).
- They promote many treatments, not just the treatment that is the focus of your current study.

# A special type of unmeasured bias

- There is a type of unmeasured bias that would invalidate treatment-control comparisons — it violates ignorability given observed covariates or selection on observables or no unmeasured confounders.
- And yet, these biases can be partially, perhaps completely addressed.
- These are generic unobserved biases (aka biases from general dispositions).
- They promote many treatments, not just the treatment that is the focus of your current study.
- Although they invalidate treatment-control comparison, they open up new possibilities for design and analysis.

# What kinds of new analyses?

- Although treatment-control comparisons are biased by unmeasured generic biases, the differential effect of two different treatments may not be biased.



# What kinds of new analyses?

- Although treatment-control comparisons are biased by unmeasured generic biases, the differential effect of two different treatments may not be biased.
- The differential effect is the effect of giving one treatment in lieu of the other.

# What kinds of new analyses?

- Although treatment-control comparisons are biased by unmeasured generic biases, the differential effect of two different treatments may not be biased.
- The differential effect is the effect of giving one treatment in lieu of the other.
- The differential effect is not the main effect of the treatment, and it may or may not be interesting.

# What kinds of new analyses?

- Although treatment-control comparisons are biased by unmeasured generic biases, the differential effect of two different treatments may not be biased.
- The differential effect is the effect of giving one treatment in lieu of the other.
- The differential effect is not the main effect of the treatment, and it may or may not be interesting.
- However, if you are clever in research design, you may be able to find a differential comparison that is informative about the treatment you wish to study.

# What kinds of new analyses?

- Although treatment-control comparisons are biased by unmeasured generic biases, the differential effect of two different treatments may not be biased.
- The differential effect is the effect of giving one treatment in lieu of the other.
- The differential effect is not the main effect of the treatment, and it may or may not be interesting.
- However, if you are clever in research design, you may be able to find a differential comparison that is informative about the treatment you wish to study.
- Examples: (i) treatment/inert-treatment, (ii) treatment-crossover, (iii) supplement to treatment/control.

# What kinds of new analyses?

- Although treatment-control comparisons are biased by unmeasured generic biases, the differential effect of two different treatments may not be biased.
- The differential effect is the effect of giving one treatment in lieu of the other.
- The differential effect is not the main effect of the treatment, and it may or may not be interesting.
- However, if you are clever in research design, you may be able to find a differential comparison that is informative about the treatment you wish to study.
- Examples: (i) treatment/inert-treatment, (ii) treatment-crossover, (iii) supplement to treatment/control.
- Overadjust for observables to adequately adjust for unmeasured covariates.

# What kinds of new analyses?

- Although treatment-control comparisons are biased by unmeasured generic biases, the differential effect of two different treatments may not be biased.
- The differential effect is the effect of giving one treatment in lieu of the other.
- The differential effect is not the main effect of the treatment, and it may or may not be interesting.
- However, if you are clever in research design, you may be able to find a differential comparison that is informative about the treatment you wish to study.
- Examples: (i) treatment/inert-treatment, (ii) treatment-crossover, (iii) supplement to treatment/control.
- Overadjust for observables to adequately adjust for unmeasured covariates.
- Sensitivity analysis for differential unmeasured biases.

# Outline of the talk

- Brief motivation
- Sketch of theory
- Example: NSAIDS and Alzheimer's disease
- Example: Smoking and toxins in the blood
- Example: Seatbelts in car crashes
- Sketch of time-dependent version

## Some unmeasured general dispositions

- You are in pain, perhaps from headaches or arthritis. So you take pain relievers.



## Some unmeasured general dispositions

- You are in pain, perhaps from headaches or arthritis. So you take pain relievers.
- You are a crazy driver. So you speed, tailgate, drive drunk, and don't wear seat-belts.

## Some unmeasured general dispositions

- You are in pain, perhaps from headaches or arthritis. So you take pain relievers.
- You are a crazy driver. So you speed, tailgate, drive drunk, and don't wear seat-belts.
- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse, binge drink.

## Some unmeasured general dispositions

- You are in pain, perhaps from headaches or arthritis. So you take pain relievers.
- You are a crazy driver. So you speed, tailgate, drive drunk, and don't wear seat-belts.
- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse, binge drink.
- Each of these general dispositions or generic biases promotes multiple treatments.

## Some unmeasured general dispositions

- You are in pain, perhaps from headaches or arthritis. So you take pain relievers.
- You are a crazy driver. So you speed, tailgate, drive drunk, and don't wear seat-belts.
- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse, binge drink.
- Each of these general dispositions or generic biases promotes multiple treatments.
- You cannot see the unmeasured general disposition.

## Some unmeasured general dispositions

- You are in pain, perhaps from headaches or arthritis. So you take pain relievers.
- You are a crazy driver. So you speed, tailgate, drive drunk, and don't wear seat-belts.
- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse, binge drink.
- Each of these general dispositions or generic biases promotes multiple treatments.
- You cannot see the unmeasured general disposition.
- But you can easily see manifestations of it.

## Some unmeasured general dispositions

- You are in pain, perhaps from headaches or arthritis. So you take pain relievers.
- You are a crazy driver. So you speed, tailgate, drive drunk, and don't wear seat-belts.
- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse, binge drink.
- Each of these general dispositions or generic biases promotes multiple treatments.
- You cannot see the unmeasured general disposition.
- But you can easily see manifestations of it.
- Is that useful?

# A basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.

# A basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.



# A basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.
- The mistake is to compare smokers and nonsmokers adjusting for whether you floss your teeth. That underadjusts for the unmeasured disposition.

# A basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.
- The mistake is to compare smokers and nonsmokers adjusting for whether you floss your teeth. That underadjusts for the unmeasured disposition.
- It only adjusts for one of the manifestations of the general disposition.

# A basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.
- The mistake is to compare smokers and nonsmokers adjusting for whether you floss your teeth. That underadjusts for the unmeasured disposition.
- It only adjusts for one of the manifestations of the general disposition.
- But people who are not concerned with their health are taking many health related risks.

# An alternative to the basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.

# An alternative to the basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.
- We take a small risk. We bet that not flossing your teeth neither causes nor prevents lung cancer.

# An alternative to the basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.
- We take a small risk. We bet that not flossing your teeth neither causes nor prevents lung cancer.
- We compare smokers who floss to nonsmokers who don't floss.

# An alternative to the basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.
- We take a small risk. We bet that not flossing your teeth neither causes nor prevents lung cancer.
- We compare smokers who floss to nonsmokers who don't floss.
- We look at the differential effect of one treatment in lieu of the other.

# An alternative to the basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.
- We take a small risk. We bet that not flossing your teeth neither causes nor prevents lung cancer.
- We compare smokers who floss to nonsmokers who don't floss.
- We look at the differential effect of one treatment in lieu of the other.
- We overadjust for flossing to adequately adjust for a lack of concern with health.



# An alternative to the basic mistake

- You are not concerned with your health. So you smoke, don't floss your teeth, engage in substance abuse.
- We want to know whether smoking causes lung cancer.
- We take a small risk. We bet that not flossing your teeth neither causes nor prevents lung cancer.
- We compare smokers who floss to nonsmokers who don't floss.
- We look at the differential effect of one treatment in lieu of the other.
- We overadjust for flossing to adequately adjust for a lack of concern with health.
- Under a simple model, that comparison removes the bias from the general disposition. If that simple model is wrong, a sensitivity analysis can examine differential biases.

# Care and thought are needed in design and analysis

- A differential effect is not a main effect.
- Smoking causes periodontal disease.

# Care and thought are needed in design and analysis

- A differential effect is not a main effect.
- Smoking causes periodontal disease.
- If we were studying the effects of smoking on periodontal disease, we would not want to look at the differential effect of smoking versus not-flossing.

# Care and thought are needed in design and analysis

- A differential effect is not a main effect.
- Smoking causes periodontal disease.
- If we were studying the effects of smoking on periodontal disease, we would not want to look at the differential effect of smoking versus not-flossing.
- The differential effect could be zero because smoking and not-flossing are both harmful.

# Care and thought are needed in design and analysis

- A differential effect is not a main effect.
- Smoking causes periodontal disease.
- If we were studying the effects of smoking on periodontal disease, we would not want to look at the differential effect of smoking versus not-flossing.
- The differential effect could be zero because smoking and not-flossing are both harmful.
- But perhaps we could use “not having been tested for glaucoma” in place of “not flossing” on the theory that being tested for glaucoma won't cause or prevent periodontal disease.

## Some notation

- Observed covariate  $x$  and unobserved covariate  $u$ .

## Some notation

- Observed covariate  $x$  and unobserved covariate  $u$ .
- There are  $S$  strata or matched sets defined by observed covariates,  $s = 1, \dots, S$ .

## Some notation

- Observed covariate  $x$  and unobserved covariate  $u$ .
- There are  $S$  strata or matched sets defined by observed covariates,  $s = 1, \dots, S$ .
- There are  $n_s$  people in stratum  $s$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_s$ .



## Some notation

- Observed covariate  $x$  and unobserved covariate  $u$ .
- There are  $S$  strata or matched sets defined by observed covariates,  $s = 1, \dots, S$ .
- There are  $n_s$  people in stratum  $s$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_s$ .
- $x_{si} = x_{sj}$  for all strata and people, but possibly  $u_{si} \neq u_{sj}$ .

## Some notation

- Observed covariate  $x$  and unobserved covariate  $u$ .
- There are  $S$  strata or matched sets defined by observed covariates,  $s = 1, \dots, S$ .
- There are  $n_s$  people in stratum  $s$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_s$ .
- $x_{si} = x_{sj}$  for all strata and people, but possibly  $u_{si} \neq u_{sj}$ .
- There are two treatments, each of which may be given or withheld, making a  $2 \times 2$  factorial design.

## Some notation

- Observed covariate  $x$  and unobserved covariate  $u$ .
- There are  $S$  strata or matched sets defined by observed covariates,  $s = 1, \dots, S$ .
- There are  $n_s$  people in stratum  $s$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_s$ .
- $x_{si} = x_{sj}$  for all strata and people, but possibly  $u_{si} \neq u_{sj}$ .
- There are two treatments, each of which may be given or withheld, making a  $2 \times 2$  factorial design.
- Treatment 1:  $Z_{si} = 1$  if the  $i^{\text{th}}$  person in stratum  $s$  received the first treatment,  $Z_{si} = 0$  otherwise.

## Some notation

- Observed covariate  $x$  and unobserved covariate  $u$ .
- There are  $S$  strata or matched sets defined by observed covariates,  $s = 1, \dots, S$ .
- There are  $n_s$  people in stratum  $s$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_s$ .
- $x_{si} = x_{sj}$  for all strata and people, but possibly  $u_{si} \neq u_{sj}$ .
- There are two treatments, each of which may be given or withheld, making a  $2 \times 2$  factorial design.
- Treatment 1:  $Z_{si} = 1$  if the  $i^{\text{th}}$  person in stratum  $s$  received the first treatment,  $Z_{si} = 0$  otherwise.
- Treatment 2:  $Z'_{si} = 1$  if the  $i^{\text{th}}$  person in stratum  $s$  received the second treatment,  $Z'_{si} = 0$  otherwise.

## Some notation

- Observed covariate  $x$  and unobserved covariate  $u$ .
- There are  $S$  strata or matched sets defined by observed covariates,  $s = 1, \dots, S$ .
- There are  $n_s$  people in stratum  $s$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_s$ .
- $x_{si} = x_{sj}$  for all strata and people, but possibly  $u_{si} \neq u_{sj}$ .
- There are two treatments, each of which may be given or withheld, making a  $2 \times 2$  factorial design.
- Treatment 1:  $Z_{si} = 1$  if the  $i^{\text{th}}$  person in stratum  $s$  received the first treatment,  $Z_{si} = 0$  otherwise.
- Treatment 2:  $Z'_{si} = 1$  if the  $i^{\text{th}}$  person in stratum  $s$  received the second treatment,  $Z'_{si} = 0$  otherwise.
- Four possible combinations:  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 1)$  or  $(1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  or  $(0, 0)$ .

## Several comparisons

- Four possible combinations:  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 1)$  or  $(1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  or  $(0, 0)$  in a  $2 \times 2$  factorial.
- Main effect of first treatment compares  $Z_{si} = 1$  to  $Z_{si} = 0$ , ignoring  $Z'_{si}$ .

## Several comparisons

- Four possible combinations:  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 1)$  or  $(1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  or  $(0, 0)$  in a  $2 \times 2$  factorial.
- Main effect of first treatment compares  $Z_{si} = 1$  to  $Z_{si} = 0$ , ignoring  $Z'_{si}$ .
- Adjusting the main effect of the first treatment for the second treatment means comparing  $Z_{si} = 1$  to  $Z_{si} = 0$  adjusting for  $Z'_{si}$ , but this adjusts for the treatment  $Z'_{si}$  as if it were a covariate, not for  $u_{si}$ .

## Several comparisons

- Four possible combinations:  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 1)$  or  $(1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  or  $(0, 0)$  in a  $2 \times 2$  factorial.
- Main effect of first treatment compares  $Z_{si} = 1$  to  $Z_{si} = 0$ , ignoring  $Z'_{si}$ .
- Adjusting the main effect of the first treatment for the second treatment means comparing  $Z_{si} = 1$  to  $Z_{si} = 0$  adjusting for  $Z'_{si}$ , but this adjusts for the treatment  $Z'_{si}$  as if it were a covariate, not for  $u_{si}$ .
- The differential comparison is the comparison of one treatment in lieu of the other,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 0)$  to  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (0, 1)$ .



- Each person  $si$  has four potential outcomes for the four potential treatment combinations,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 1)$  or  $(1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  or  $(0, 0)$ , namely  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$ , and we observe one of these; see Neyman (1923) and Rubin (1974).

# Potential outcomes and treatment assignment probabilities

- Each person  $si$  has four potential outcomes for the four potential treatment combinations,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 1)$  or  $(1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  or  $(0, 0)$ , namely  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$ , and we observe one of these; see Neyman (1923) and Rubin (1974).
- The differential effect is  $r_{10si} - r_{01si}$ . It requires care and thought in picking  $Z'$  so that  $r_{10si} - r_{01si}$  is of interest.

# Potential outcomes and treatment assignment probabilities

- Each person  $si$  has four potential outcomes for the four potential treatment combinations,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 1)$  or  $(1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  or  $(0, 0)$ , namely  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$ , and we observe one of these; see Neyman (1923) and Rubin (1974).
- The differential effect is  $r_{10si} - r_{01si}$ . It requires care and thought in picking  $Z'$  so that  $r_{10si} - r_{01si}$  is of interest.
- Treatment assignment probabilities:

$$\pi_{absi} = \Pr \left( Z_{si} = a, Z'_{si} = b \mid r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si} \right)$$

for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$  with

$$1 = \pi_{11si} + \pi_{10si} + \pi_{01si} + \pi_{00si}.$$

# Potential outcomes and treatment assignment probabilities

- Each person  $si$  has four potential outcomes for the four potential treatment combinations,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 1)$  or  $(1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  or  $(0, 0)$ , namely  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$ , and we observe one of these; see Neyman (1923) and Rubin (1974).
- The differential effect is  $r_{10si} - r_{01si}$ . It requires care and thought in picking  $Z'$  so that  $r_{10si} - r_{01si}$  is of interest.
- Treatment assignment probabilities:  
$$\pi_{absi} = \Pr \left( Z_{si} = a, Z'_{si} = b \mid r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si} \right)$$
for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$  with  
$$1 = \pi_{11si} + \pi_{10si} + \pi_{01si} + \pi_{00si}.$$
- For distinct people in the population, treatment assignments are conditionally independent given  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si})$ .

# When is it sufficient to adjust for observed covariates?

- Treatment assignment probabilities:

$$\pi_{absi} = \Pr \left( Z_{si} = a, Z'_{si} = b \mid r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si} \right)$$

for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$  with

$$1 = \pi_{11si} + \pi_{10si} + \pi_{01si} + \pi_{00si}.$$

- Treatment assignment is ignorable given the strata  $s$  if  $0 < \pi_{absi} = \zeta_{abs} < 1$  varies with  $s$  but not with  $i$  for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$ . (Recall  $x_{si} = x_{sj}$  for all  $s, i, j$ .)

# When is it sufficient to adjust for observed covariates?

- Treatment assignment probabilities:

$$\pi_{absi} = \Pr \left( Z_{si} = a, Z'_{si} = b \mid r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si} \right)$$

for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$  with

$$1 = \pi_{11si} + \pi_{10si} + \pi_{01si} + \pi_{00si}.$$

- Treatment assignment is ignorable given the strata  $s$  if  $0 < \pi_{absi} = \zeta_{abs} < 1$  varies with  $s$  but not with  $i$  for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$ . (Recall  $x_{si} = x_{sj}$  for all  $s, i, j$ .)
- Equivalently, treatment assignment is ignorable given the observed covariates  $x_{si}$  if  $\pi_{absi}$  varies with  $x_{si}$  but not with  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, u_{si})$ .

# When is it sufficient to adjust for observed covariates?

- Treatment assignment probabilities:

$$\pi_{absi} = \Pr \left( Z_{si} = a, Z'_{si} = b \mid r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si} \right)$$

for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$  with

$$1 = \pi_{11si} + \pi_{10si} + \pi_{01si} + \pi_{00si}.$$

- Treatment assignment is ignorable given the strata  $s$  if  $0 < \pi_{absi} = \zeta_{abs} < 1$  varies with  $s$  but not with  $i$  for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$ . (Recall  $x_{si} = x_{sj}$  for all  $s, i, j$ .)
- Equivalently, treatment assignment is ignorable given the observed covariates  $x_{si}$  if  $\pi_{absi}$  varies with  $x_{si}$  but not with  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, u_{si})$ .
- If treatment assignment were ignorable given observed covariates  $x_{si}$  or the strata, then appropriate adjustments for  $x_{si}$  or the strata would yield correct causal inferences for all of the factorial effects. (Rosenbaum and Rubin 1983).

# When is it sufficient to adjust for observed covariates?

- Treatment assignment probabilities:

$$\pi_{absi} = \Pr \left( Z_{si} = a, Z'_{si} = b \mid r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si} \right)$$

for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$  with

$$1 = \pi_{11si} + \pi_{10si} + \pi_{01si} + \pi_{00si}.$$

- Treatment assignment is ignorable given the strata  $s$  if  $0 < \pi_{absi} = \zeta_{abs} < 1$  varies with  $s$  but not with  $i$  for  $a = 0, 1$  and  $b = 0, 1$ . (Recall  $x_{si} = x_{sj}$  for all  $s, i, j$ .)
- Equivalently, treatment assignment is ignorable given the observed covariates  $x_{si}$  if  $\pi_{absi}$  varies with  $x_{si}$  but not with  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, u_{si})$ .
- If treatment assignment were ignorable given observed covariates  $x_{si}$  or the strata, then appropriate adjustments for  $x_{si}$  or the strata would yield correct causal inferences for all of the factorial effects. (Rosenbaum and Rubin 1983).
- But what if treatment assignment is not ignorable?



# Some violations of ignorable assignment with only generic biases

- A Rasch model within each stratum  $s$ :

$$\pi_{absi} = \frac{\exp \{a(\kappa_s + \phi_s u_{si})\}}{1 + \exp(\kappa_s + \phi_s u_{si})} \times \frac{\exp \{b(\kappa'_s + \phi_s u_{si})\}}{1 + \exp(\kappa'_s + \phi_s u_{si})},$$

so  $\pi_{absi}$  varies with  $u_{si}$ . Were this model governing treatment assignment, it would not be sufficient to adjust for the strata.

# Some violations of ignorable assignment with only generic biases

- A Rasch model within each stratum  $s$ :

$$\pi_{absi} = \frac{\exp \{a(\kappa_s + \phi_s u_{si})\}}{1 + \exp(\kappa_s + \phi_s u_{si})} \times \frac{\exp \{b(\kappa'_s + \phi_s u_{si})\}}{1 + \exp(\kappa'_s + \phi_s u_{si})},$$

so  $\pi_{absi}$  varies with  $u_{si}$ . Were this model governing treatment assignment, it would not be sufficient to adjust for the strata.

- A type of bivariate logit model with

$1 = \pi_{00si} + \pi_{01si} + \pi_{10si} + \pi_{11si}$  and  $\pi_{absi}$  proportional to

$$\exp \left\{ a\kappa_s + b\kappa'_s + ab\kappa_s^* + \phi_s (a + b) u_{si} + \psi_s ab u_{si} \right\},$$

so again treatment assignment is not ignorable given strata  $s$ .

# Another violation of ignorable assignment with only generic biases

Tversky and Sattath (1979) preference tree with  
 $1 = \pi_{00si} + \pi_{01si} + \pi_{10si} + \pi_{11si}$  and  $\pi_{absi}$  given by:

	$Z + Z'$	$(Z, Z')$	Prob
■	0	(0, 0)	$\pi_{00si}$
	1	(1, 0)	$\pi_{10si} = \omega_s \zeta_{si}$
		(0, 1)	$\pi_{01si} = (1 - \omega_s) \zeta_{si}$
	2	(1, 1)	$\pi_{11si}$

where an  $i$  subscript indicates a quantity that may depend upon  
 $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, u_{si})$ .

# A general definition

- Let  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$ .

## Definition

There are only generic unobserved biases if  $\rho_{si}$  varies with  $s$  but not with  $i$ , that is, if

$$\rho_{si} = \frac{\pi_{10si}}{\pi_{01si}} = \lambda_s \quad (1)$$

for all  $s, i$ .

- In the given Rasch, logit models and preference tree models, (1) is true, so there are only generic unobserved biases.

# A general definition

- Let  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$ .

## Definition

There are only generic unobserved biases if  $\rho_{si}$  varies with  $s$  but not with  $i$ , that is, if

$$\rho_{si} = \frac{\pi_{10si}}{\pi_{01si}} = \lambda_s \quad (1)$$

for all  $s, i$ .

- In the given Rasch, logit models and preference tree models, (1) is true, so there are only generic unobserved biases.
- There are *differential biases* if (1) is false.

## A basic fact: Differential ignorability

- If there are only generic unobserved biases, so  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si} = \lambda_s$  does not depend upon  $i$ , then

$$\Pr \left( Z_{si} = 1 \mid Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = L_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si} \right) \\ = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } L_{si} = 0 \\ \frac{\pi_{10si}}{\pi_{10si} + \pi_{01si}} = \frac{\lambda_s}{1 + \lambda_s} & \text{if } L_{si} = 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } L_{si} = 2 \end{cases}$$

## A basic fact: Differential ignorability

- If there are only generic unobserved biases, so  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si} = \lambda_s$  does not depend upon  $i$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr \left( Z_{si} = 1 \mid Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = L_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si} \right) \\ &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } L_{si} = 0 \\ \frac{\pi_{10si}}{\pi_{10si} + \pi_{01si}} = \frac{\lambda_s}{1 + \lambda_s} & \text{if } L_{si} = 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } L_{si} = 2 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

- That is, a differential comparison of  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  has a treatment assignment probabilities that depends only on  $x_{si}$  or the strata. Here,  $\lambda_s / (1 + \lambda_s)$  is the *differential propensity score*.

## A basic fact: Differential ignorability

- If there are only generic unobserved biases, so  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si} = \lambda_s$  does not depend upon  $i$ , then

$$\Pr \left( Z_{si} = 1 \mid Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = L_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si} \right) \\ = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } L_{si} = 0 \\ \frac{\pi_{10si}}{\pi_{10si} + \pi_{01si}} = \frac{\lambda_s}{1 + \lambda_s} & \text{if } L_{si} = 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } L_{si} = 2 \end{cases}$$

- That is, a differential comparison of  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$  has a treatment assignment probabilities that depends only on  $x_{si}$  or the strata. Here,  $\lambda_s / (1 + \lambda_s)$  is the *differential propensity score*.
- That is, if there are only generic unobserved biases,

$$\left( Z_{si}, Z'_{si} \right) \perp\!\!\!\perp (r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, u_{si}) \mid \left( x_{si}, Z_{si} + Z'_{si} \right)$$



# Toy numerical illustration from the Rasch model

**Table:** 2 treatments,  $Z$  and  $Z'$ . Unobserved  $u$  has two levels,  $u = 1$  and  $u = 0$ , and  $u$  predicts each treatment,  $Pr(Z = 1|Z + Z' = 1, u) = 3/4$ . but not  $(Z, Z') = (0, 1)$  vs.  $(1, 0)$ .

Unobserved $u$	Treatment $Z$	Treatment $Z'$		Total
High level of unobserved $u = 1$				
$u = 1$		$Z' = 1$	$Z' = 0$	
	$Z = 1$	.675	.075	.750
	$Z = 0$	.225	.025	.250
	Total	0.900	.100	1.000
Low level of unobserved $u = 0$				
$u = 0$		$Z' = 1$	$Z' = 0$	
	$Z = 1$	.375	.125	0.500
	$Z = 0$	.375	.125	0.500
	Total	.750	.250	1.000

## Another aspect of the basic fact: Randomization distributions

- If there are only generic unobserved biases, so  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si} = \lambda_s$  does not depend upon  $i$ , then the conditional distribution of  $(Z_{s1}, \dots, Z_{s, n_s})$  given  $Z_{s+} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} Z_{si}$ ,  $Z'_{s+} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} Z'_{si}$  and  $(Z_{si} + Z'_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si})$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_s$  is a known permutation/randomization distribution.

## Another aspect of the basic fact: Randomization distributions

- If there are only generic unobserved biases, so  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si} = \lambda_s$  does not depend upon  $i$ , then the conditional distribution of  $(Z_{s1}, \dots, Z_{s, n_s})$  given  $Z_{s+} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} Z_{si}$ ,  $Z'_{s+} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} Z'_{si}$  and  $(Z_{si} + Z'_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si})$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_s$  is a known permutation/randomization distribution.
- Conditioning also on  $Z_{s+}$  and  $Z'_{s+}$  eliminates the unknown nuisance parameter  $\lambda_s$ .

## Another aspect of the basic fact: Randomization distributions

- If there are only generic unobserved biases, so  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si} = \lambda_s$  does not depend upon  $i$ , then the conditional distribution of  $(Z_{s1}, \dots, Z_{s, n_s})$  given  $Z_{s+} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} Z_{si}$ ,  $Z'_{s+} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} Z'_{si}$  and  $(Z_{si} + Z'_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si})$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n_s$  is a known permutation/randomization distribution.
- Conditioning also on  $Z_{s+}$  and  $Z'_{s+}$  eliminates the unknown nuisance parameter  $\lambda_s$ .
- The conditional distribution does not depend upon  $u_{si}$  or on  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$  and is essentially randomized with each stratum  $s$  defined by observed covariates.

# Randomization distributions, stated more precisely

- $(Z_{s1}, \dots, Z_{s, n_s})$  given  $Z_{s+}$ ,  $Z'_{s+}$  and  $(Z_{si} + Z'_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si})$ .
- Given any  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 2$  or  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 0$ , the distribution of  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$  is degenerate.

# Randomization distributions, stated more precisely

- $(Z_{s1}, \dots, Z_{s, n_s})$  given  $Z_{s+}$ ,  $Z'_{s+}$  and  $(Z_{si} + Z'_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si})$ .
- Given any  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 2$  or  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 0$ , the distribution of  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$  is degenerate.
- The differential comparison with  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 1$  has  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$ .

# Randomization distributions, stated more precisely

- $(Z_{s1}, \dots, Z_{s, n_s})$  given  $Z_{s+}$ ,  $Z'_{s+}$  and  $(Z_{si} + Z'_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si})$ .
- Given any  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 2$  or  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 0$ , the distribution of  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$  is degenerate.
- The differential comparison with  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 1$  has  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$ .
- Write  $W_{si} = 1$  if  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 2$ ,  $W_{si} = 0$  otherwise,  $W_{s+} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} W_{si}$ , so there are  $Z_{s+} - W_{s+}$  individuals with  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 0)$  and  $Z'_{s+} - W_{s+}$  individuals with  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (0, 1)$ .

# Randomization distributions, stated more precisely

- $(Z_{s1}, \dots, Z_{s, n_s})$  given  $Z_{s+}$ ,  $Z'_{s+}$  and  $(Z_{si} + Z'_{si}, r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si}, x_{si}, u_{si})$ .
- Given any  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 2$  or  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 0$ , the distribution of  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$  is degenerate.
- The differential comparison with  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 1$  has  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 0)$  or  $(0, 1)$ .
- Write  $W_{si} = 1$  if  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 2$ ,  $W_{si} = 0$  otherwise,  $W_{s+} = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} W_{si}$ , so there are  $Z_{s+} - W_{s+}$  individuals with  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 0)$  and  $Z'_{s+} - W_{s+}$  individuals with  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (0, 1)$ .
- The randomization distribution picks  $Z_{s+} - W_{s+}$  individuals with  $Z_{si} + Z'_{si} = 1$  at random for  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (1, 0)$ , the rest receiving  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si}) = (0, 1)$ .



## Another aspect of the basic fact: Balancing other treatments

- Suppose I have not 2 but  $K$  treatments,  $Z_{ksi}$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, K$ , where  $Z_{ksi}$ ,  $k = 3, \dots, K$ , are not be observed, but they are all promoted by the same generic bias  $u_{sj}$ .

## Another aspect of the basic fact: Balancing other treatments

- Suppose I have not 2 but  $K$  treatments,  $Z_{ksi}$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, K$ , where  $Z_{ksi}$ ,  $k = 3, \dots, K$ , are not be observed, but they are all promoted by the same generic bias  $u_{sj}$ .
- There are many ways a person can express a lack of concern with their health. Each of these ways is another  $Z_{ksi}$ .

## Another aspect of the basic fact: Balancing other treatments

- Suppose I have not 2 but  $K$  treatments,  $Z_{ksi}$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, K$ , where  $Z_{ksi}$ ,  $k = 3, \dots, K$ , are not be observed, but they are all promoted by the same generic bias  $u_{sj}$ .
- There are many ways a person can express a lack of concern with their health. Each of these ways is another  $Z_{ksi}$ .
- Write  $\mathbf{P}_{sj}$  for all the  $2^K$  potential outcomes.

## Another aspect of the basic fact: Balancing other treatments

- Suppose I have not 2 but  $K$  treatments,  $Z_{ksi}$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, K$ , where  $Z_{ksi}$ ,  $k = 3, \dots, K$ , are not be observed, but they are all promoted by the same generic bias  $u_{si}$ .
- There are many ways a person can express a lack of concern with their health. Each of these ways is another  $Z_{ksi}$ .
- Write  $\mathbf{P}_{si}$  for all the  $2^K$  potential outcomes.
- Model for treatment assignment is a latent variable model with unmeasured  $u_{si}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr (Z_{ksi} = z_{ksi}, k = 1, \dots, K | \mathbf{P}_{si}, x_{si}, u_{si}) \\ &= \prod_{k=1}^K \psi_{ks} (u_{si})^{z_{ksi}} \{1 - \psi_{ks} (u_{si})\}^{1-z_{ksi}} \\ & \quad \frac{\psi_{1s} (u_{si})}{1 - \psi_{1s} (u_{si})} = \lambda_s \frac{\psi_{2s} (u_{si})}{1 - \psi_{2s} (u_{si})} \end{aligned}$$

or an IRT-type model with the first two treatments,  $Z_{1si}$  and  $Z_{2si}$ , have proportional odds.

# Balancing other treatments, continued

- Model repeated

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr (Z_{ksi} = z_{ksi}, k = 1, \dots, K | \mathbf{P}_{si}, x_{si}, u_{si}) \\ &= \prod_{k=1}^K \psi_{ks}(u_{si})^{z_{ksi}} \{1 - \psi_{ks}(u_{si})\}^{1-z_{ksi}} \\ & \quad \frac{\psi_{1s}(u_{si})}{1 - \psi_{1s}(u_{si})} = \lambda_s \frac{\psi_{2s}(u_{si})}{1 - \psi_{2s}(u_{si})} \end{aligned}$$

## Balancing other treatments, continued

- Model repeated

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr (Z_{ksi} = z_{ksi}, k = 1, \dots, K | \mathbf{P}_{si}, x_{si}, u_{si}) \\ &= \prod_{k=1}^K \psi_{ks}(u_{si})^{z_{ksi}} \{1 - \psi_{ks}(u_{si})\}^{1-z_{ksi}} \\ & \quad \frac{\psi_{1s}(u_{si})}{1 - \psi_{1s}(u_{si})} = \lambda_s \frac{\psi_{2s}(u_{si})}{1 - \psi_{2s}(u_{si})} \end{aligned}$$

- Then

$$(Z_{1si}, Z_{2si}) \perp\!\!\!\perp (\mathbf{P}_{si}, u_{si}, Z_{3si}, \dots, Z_{Ksi}) \mid (x_{si}, Z_{1si} + Z_{2si})$$

so that, by overadjusting for  $Z_{2si}$  you have adequately adjusted for the disposition  $u_{si}$ .

# Differential biases

- There are differential biases if  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  does depend upon  $i$ . For instance, high values of  $u_{si}$  promote  $Z = 1$  disproportionately when compared to  $Z' = 1$ .

# Differential biases

- There are differential biases if  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  does depend upon  $i$ . For instance, high values of  $u_{si}$  promote  $Z = 1$  disproportionately when compared to  $Z' = 1$ .
- A model for sensitivity analysis limits the degree to which  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  varies from person to person within the same stratum: for a specific  $\Gamma \geq 1$

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma} \leq \frac{\rho_{si}}{\rho_{si'}} = \frac{\pi_{10si} \pi_{01si'}}{\pi_{10si'} \pi_{01si}} \leq \Gamma \text{ for all } s, i, i'.$$



# Differential biases

- There are differential biases if  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  does depend upon  $i$ . For instance, high values of  $u_{si}$  promote  $Z = 1$  disproportionately when compared to  $Z' = 1$ .
- A model for sensitivity analysis limits the degree to which  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  varies from person to person within the same stratum: for a specific  $\Gamma \geq 1$

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma} \leq \frac{\rho_{si}}{\rho_{si'}} = \frac{\pi_{10si} \pi_{01si'}}{\pi_{10si'} \pi_{01si}} \leq \Gamma \text{ for all } s, i, i'.$$

- With a little work, one finds that the sensitivity analyses I have proposed for treatment-control comparisons (Rosenbaum 2002, §4) now govern the differential comparison,  $(Z_{1si}, Z_{2si}) = (1, 0)$  versus  $(0, 1)$ .

# Differential biases

- There are differential biases if  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  does depend upon  $i$ . For instance, high values of  $u_{si}$  promote  $Z = 1$  disproportionately when compared to  $Z' = 1$ .
- A model for sensitivity analysis limits the degree to which  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  varies from person to person within the same stratum: for a specific  $\Gamma \geq 1$

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma} \leq \frac{\rho_{si}}{\rho_{si'}} = \frac{\pi_{10si} \pi_{01si'}}{\pi_{10si'} \pi_{01si}} \leq \Gamma \text{ for all } s, i, i'.$$

- With a little work, one finds that the sensitivity analyses I have proposed for treatment-control comparisons (Rosenbaum 2002, §4) now govern the differential comparison,  $(Z_{1si}, Z_{2si}) = (1, 0)$  versus  $(0, 1)$ .
- The analysis is parallel, but the interpretation has changed: generic biases are entirely removed, and  $\Gamma$  describes the differential bias.

- An example, more or less, from the literature: NSAIDs and Alzheimer's disease. (Zandi et al. 2002)
- A constructed example from NHANES illustrating some of the technical points.
- An example reconstructed from the literature using recent data: seat belts in car crashes. (L. Evans 1986)
- Time-dependent example about fertility and workforce participation (J. Angrist & W. Evans 1998).

## Example 1: NSAIDs and Alzheimer's disease

- There is a theory with persistent but perhaps not conclusive evidence that NSAIDs like ibuprofen (e.g. Advil) reduce the risk of Alzheimer's disease.
- in 't Veld et al. (2002) review some of this evidence and express the following concern:

*“Finally, confounding by indication and contraindication may be important. First, pain perception and expression may be different in those becoming cognitively impaired (53). If either pain perception or expression is impaired in those developing Alzheimer's disease, this impairment may lead to lesser used of NSAIDs and an ostensible protective effect of NSAIDs.”*

- This describes a generic unobserved bias, one that depresses use of pain relievers.

## Example 1: NSAIDs and Alzheimer's disease, continued

- So this is a generic unobserved bias, depressing the use of pain relievers.
- There are, however, popular pain relievers that are not NSAIDs, for instance, acetaminophen (e.g., Tylenol).

## Example 1: NSAIDs and Alzheimer's disease, continued

- So this is a generic unobserved bias, depressing the use of pain relievers.
- There are, however, popular pain relievers that are not NSAIDs, for instance, acetaminophen (e.g., Tylenol).
- Perhaps cognitive impairment depresses the use of pain relievers, but it is more of a stretch to think that it leads people to switch from Advil ( $Z$ ) to Tylenol ( $Z'$ ).

## Example 1: NSAIDs and Alzheimer's disease, continued

- So this is a generic unobserved bias, depressing the use of pain relievers.
- There are, however, popular pain relievers that are not NSAIDs, for instance, acetaminophen (e.g., Tylenol).
- Perhaps cognitive impairment depresses the use of pain relievers, but it is more of a stretch to think that it leads people to switch from Advil ( $Z$ ) to Tylenol ( $Z'$ ).
- This suggests an analysis that compares people who took Advil without Tylenol to people who took Tylenol without Advil.

## Example 1: NSAIDs and Alzheimer's disease, continued

- So this is a generic unobserved bias, depressing the use of pain relievers.
- There are, however, popular pain relievers that are not NSAIDs, for instance, acetaminophen (e.g., Tylenol).
- Perhaps cognitive impairment depresses the use of pain relievers, but it is more of a stretch to think that it leads people to switch from Advil ( $Z$ ) to Tylenol ( $Z'$ ).
- This suggests an analysis that compares people who took Advil without Tylenol to people who took Tylenol without Advil.
- Zandi et. al. (2002) almost did this analysis, finding that NSAIDs are associated with lower risk of Alzheimer's but non-NSAID pain relievers are not.



## Example 1: NSAIDs and Alzheimer's disease, continued

- So this is a generic unobserved bias, depressing the use of pain relievers.
- There are, however, popular pain relievers that are not NSAIDs, for instance, acetaminophen (e.g., Tylenol).
- Perhaps cognitive impairment depresses the use of pain relievers, but it is more of a stretch to think that it leads people to switch from Advil ( $Z$ ) to Tylenol ( $Z'$ ).
- This suggests an analysis that compares people who took Advil without Tylenol to people who took Tylenol without Advil.
- Zandi et. al. (2002) almost did this analysis, finding that NSAIDs are associated with lower risk of Alzheimer's but non-NSAID pain relievers are not.
- An analysis of this sort addresses the generic bias from a reduced disposition to use pain relievers of all kinds.

## Example 2: Smoking as a cause of lead and cadmium in the blood

- An analytical example using data from NHANES 2009-2010.

## Example 2: Smoking as a cause of lead and cadmium in the blood

- An analytical example using data from NHANES 2009-2010.
- Asks whether smoking causes an increase in lead and cadmium in the blood.

## Example 2: Smoking as a cause of lead and cadmium in the blood

- An analytical example using data from NHANES 2009-2010.
- Asks whether smoking causes an increase in lead and cadmium in the blood.
- First, a conventional treated-control comparison, then a supplemental differential comparison. ( $Z'$  defined later).

## Example 2: Smoking as a cause of lead and cadmium in the blood

- An analytical example using data from NHANES 2009-2010.
- Asks whether smoking causes an increase in lead and cadmium in the blood.
- First, a conventional treated-control comparison, then a supplemental differential comparison. ( $Z'$  defined later).
- Treatment ( $Z = 1$ ) is daily smoking of at least 10 cigarettes per day everyday for the last 30 days.

## Example 2: Smoking as a cause of lead and cadmium in the blood

- An analytical example using data from NHANES 2009-2010.
- Asks whether smoking causes an increase in lead and cadmium in the blood.
- First, a conventional treated-control comparison, then a supplemental differential comparison. ( $Z'$  defined later).
- Treatment ( $Z = 1$ ) is daily smoking of at least 10 cigarettes per day everyday for the last 30 days.
- Control ( $Z = 0$ ) is “never smoking”. ( $\leq 100$  cigarettes in life, none in the last 30 days).

## Example 2: Smoking as a cause of lead and cadmium in the blood

- An analytical example using data from NHANES 2009-2010.
- Asks whether smoking causes an increase in lead and cadmium in the blood.
- First, a conventional treated-control comparison, then a supplemental differential comparison. ( $Z'$  defined later).
- Treatment ( $Z = 1$ ) is daily smoking of at least 10 cigarettes per day everyday for the last 30 days.
- Control ( $Z = 0$ ) is “never smoking”. ( $\leq 100$  cigarettes in life, none in the last 30 days).
- 518 smoker/never-smoker matched pairs

**Table:** Treatment ( $Z = 1$ ) versus control ( $Z = 0$ ) match of  $S = 518$  pairs of a daily smoker and a never smoker from NHANES 2009-2010.

Covariate	Treatment $Z$ Smoking	
	Daily	Never
Age (mean)	43.7	43.2
Female (count)	258	258
$< 2 \times$ Poverty level (count)	326	326
Income/poverty ratio (mean)	2.0	1.9
$< 9$ th grade (count)	43	43
$\geq 9$ th grade (count)	119	119
High school or equivalent (count)	170	170
Some college (count)	152	152
BA degree or more (count)	34	34
Black (count)	104	104
Hispanic (count)	64	64
Other (count)	350	350



# Conventional comparison

- Outcomes are blood levels of cadmium ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$ ) and lead ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$ ) on the  $\log_2$  scale.

# Conventional comparison

- Outcomes are blood levels of cadmium ( $\mu g/L$ ) and lead ( $\mu g/L$ ) on the  $\log_2$  scale.
- If  $\log_2(\text{smoker}) - \log_2(\text{control}) = 1$ , then  $\text{smoker} = 2 \times \text{control}$ .

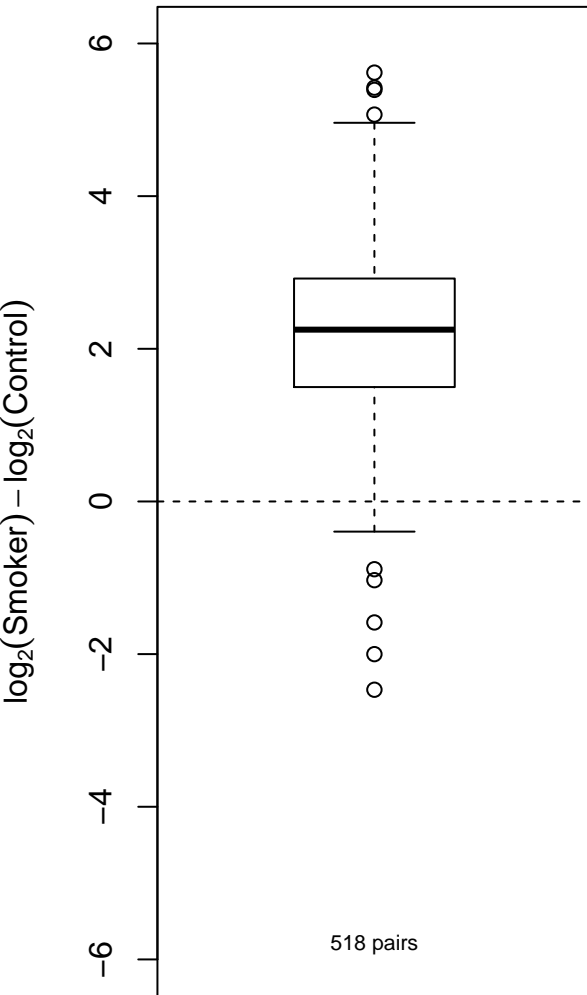
# Conventional comparison

- Outcomes are blood levels of cadmium ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$ ) and lead ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$ ) on the  $\log_2$  scale.
- If  $\log_2(\text{smoker}) - \log_2(\text{control}) = 1$ , then  $\text{smoker} = 2 \times \text{control}$ .
- If  $\log_2(\text{smoker}) - \log_2(\text{control}) = 2$ , then  $\text{smoker} = 4 \times \text{control}$ , etc.

# Conventional comparison

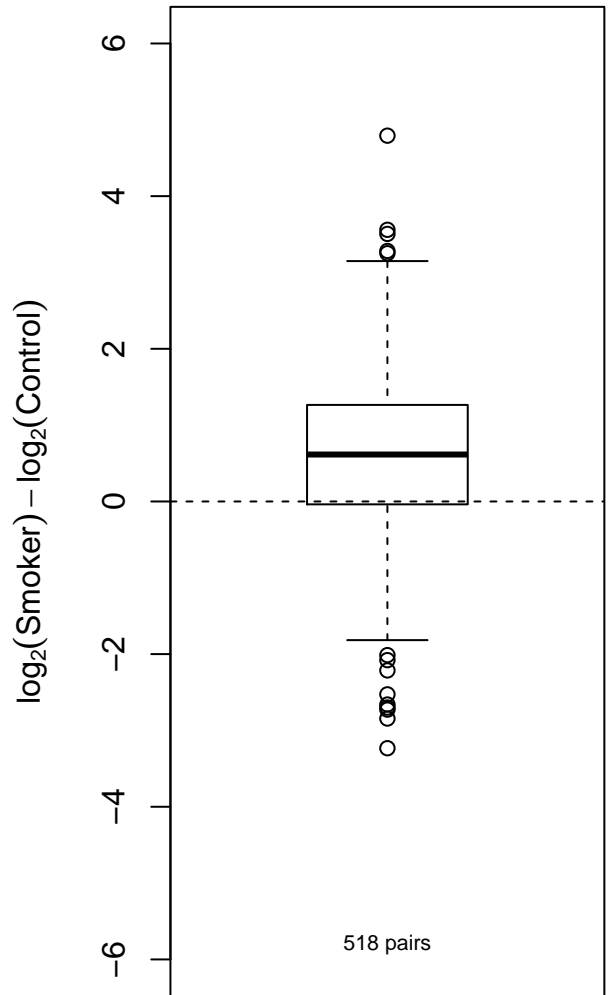
- Outcomes are blood levels of cadmium ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$ ) and lead ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{L}$ ) on the  $\log_2$  scale.
- If  $\log_2(\text{smoker}) - \log_2(\text{control}) = 1$ , then  $\text{smoker} = 2 \times \text{control}$ .
- If  $\log_2(\text{smoker}) - \log_2(\text{control}) = 2$ , then  $\text{smoker} = 4 \times \text{control}$ , etc.
- Will look at 518 smoker-control pair differences.

## Cadmium



Cadmium level in blood  
 $\mu\text{g/L}$

## Lead



Lead level in blood  
 $\mu\text{g/dL}$

# Sensitivity to unmeasured bias

- Within pairs matched for  $x_{sj}$ , ask: How much bias in pair treatment assignment from  $u_{sj}$  would need to be present to explain the observed association between smoking and cadmium or lead?

# Sensitivity to unmeasured bias

- Within pairs matched for  $x_{sj}$ , ask: How much bias in pair treatment assignment from  $u_{sj}$  would need to be present to explain the observed association between smoking and cadmium or lead?
- Lead becomes sensitive at  $\Gamma = 2.9$  or treatment assignment probability in the range  $[0.26, 0.74]$  rather than randomization's 0.5.

# Sensitivity to unmeasured bias

- Within pairs matched for  $x_{sj}$ , ask: How much bias in pair treatment assignment from  $u_{sj}$  would need to be present to explain the observed association between smoking and cadmium or lead?
- Lead becomes sensitive at  $\Gamma = 2.9$  or treatment assignment probability in the range  $[0.26, 0.74]$  rather than randomization's 0.5.
- $\Gamma = 2.9$  is equivalent to an unobserved covariate that increased the odds of smoking by a factor of 5 and the odds of a positive pair difference in lead by more than a factor of 6.



# Sensitivity to unmeasured bias

- Within pairs matched for  $x_{sj}$ , ask: How much bias in pair treatment assignment from  $u_{sj}$  would need to be present to explain the observed association between smoking and cadmium or lead?
- Lead becomes sensitive at  $\Gamma = 2.9$  or treatment assignment probability in the range  $[0.26, 0.74]$  rather than randomization's 0.5.
- $\Gamma = 2.9$  is equivalent to an unobserved covariate that increased the odds of smoking by a factor of 5 and the odds of a positive pair difference in lead by more than a factor of 6.
- Cadmium becomes sensitive at  $\Gamma = 64$  or treatment assignment probability in the range  $[0.02, 0.98]$  rather than randomization's 0.5.

# Sensitivity to unmeasured bias

- Within pairs matched for  $x_{sj}$ , ask: How much bias in pair treatment assignment from  $u_{sj}$  would need to be present to explain the observed association between smoking and cadmium or lead?
- Lead becomes sensitive at  $\Gamma = 2.9$  or treatment assignment probability in the range  $[0.26, 0.74]$  rather than randomization's 0.5.
- $\Gamma = 2.9$  is equivalent to an unobserved covariate that increased the odds of smoking by a factor of 5 and the odds of a positive pair difference in lead by more than a factor of 6.
- Cadmium becomes sensitive at  $\Gamma = 64$  or treatment assignment probability in the range  $[0.02, 0.98]$  rather than randomization's 0.5.
- $\Gamma = 64$  is equivalent to an unobserved covariate that increased the odds of smoking by  $\geq 125$  times and the odds of a positive pair difference in cadmium by  $\geq 125$  times.

# Could there be an unobserved covariate strongly associated with smoking?

- A question in NHANES asks: “Have you ever used cocaine, crack cocaine, heroin, or methamphetamine?” (Henceforth, “hard drugs” .)

# Could there be an unobserved covariate strongly associated with smoking?

- A question in NHANES asks: “Have you ever used cocaine, crack cocaine, heroin, or methamphetamine?” (Henceforth, “hard drugs” .)
- 886 of our  $2 \times 518$  paired individuals answered this question (86%)

# Could there be an unobserved covariate strongly associated with smoking?

- A question in NHANES asks: “Have you ever used cocaine, crack cocaine, heroin, or methamphetamine?” (Henceforth, “hard drugs” .)
- 886 of our  $2 \times 518$  paired individuals answered this question (86%)
- The odds ratio linking a “Yes” versus “No” response was 6.0 (with 95% CI [4.0, 9.1]).

# Could there be an unobserved covariate strongly associated with smoking?

- A question in NHANES asks: “Have you ever used cocaine, crack cocaine, heroin, or methamphetamine?” (Henceforth, “hard drugs” .)
- 886 of our  $2 \times 518$  paired individuals answered this question (86%)
- The odds ratio linking a “Yes” versus “No” response was 6.0 (with 95% CI [4.0, 9.1]).
- Presumably, we are seeing that smokers are less concerned with health and often have tried or engaged in more than one substance abuse behavior that is a risk to health.

# Could there be an unobserved covariate strongly associated with smoking?

- A question in NHANES asks: “Have you ever used cocaine, crack cocaine, heroin, or methamphetamine?” (Henceforth, “hard drugs”.)
- 886 of our  $2 \times 518$  paired individuals answered this question (86%)
- The odds ratio linking a “Yes” versus “No” response was 6.0 (with 95% CI [4.0, 9.1]).
- Presumably, we are seeing that smokers are less concerned with health and often have tried or engaged in more than one substance abuse behavior that is a risk to health.
- Is this observation a threat to the lead comparison (where  $\Gamma = 2.9$ )?

# A differential comparison: Lifelong nonsmokers with a checkered past

- $Z'$  is “having tried hard drugs”



# A differential comparison: Lifelong nonsmokers with a checkered past

- $Z'$  is “having tried hard drugs”
- Will compare  $(Z, Z') = (1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ .

# A differential comparison: Lifelong nonsmokers with a checkered past

- $Z'$  is “having tried hard drugs”
- Will compare  $(Z, Z') = (1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ .
- Smokers who never tried hard drugs to nonsmokers who have tried hard drugs.

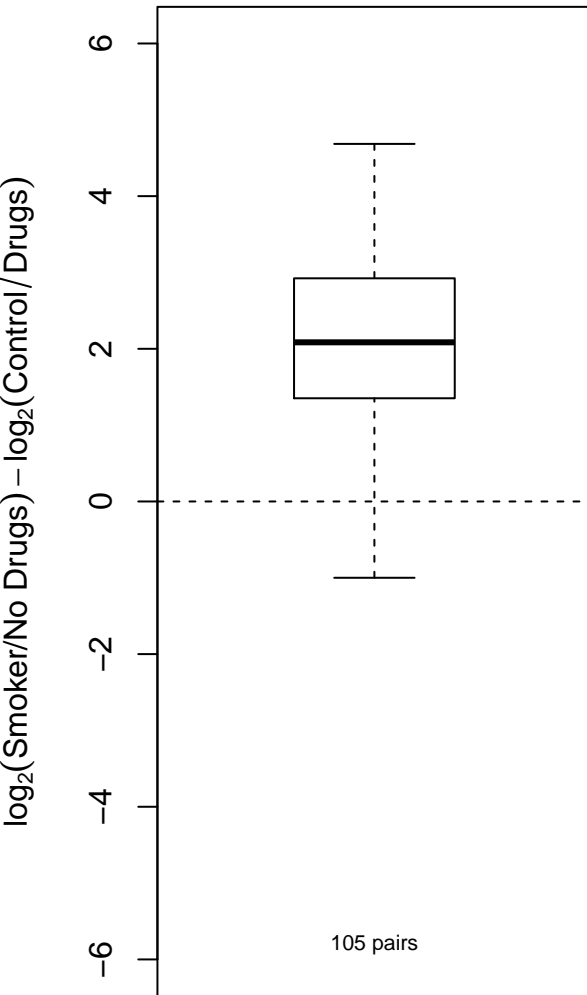
# A differential comparison: Lifelong nonsmokers with a checkered past

- $Z'$  is “having tried hard drugs”
- Will compare  $(Z, Z') = (1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ .
- Smokers who never tried hard drugs to nonsmokers who have tried hard drugs.
- New match with 105 matched pairs,  $(1, 0)$  versus  $(0, 1)$ .

**Table:** Differential comparison of a smoker who never tried hard drugs ( $Z = 1, Z' = 0$ ) versus a nonsmoker who has tried them ( $Z = 0, Z' = 1$ ).  $S = 105$  differential pairs.

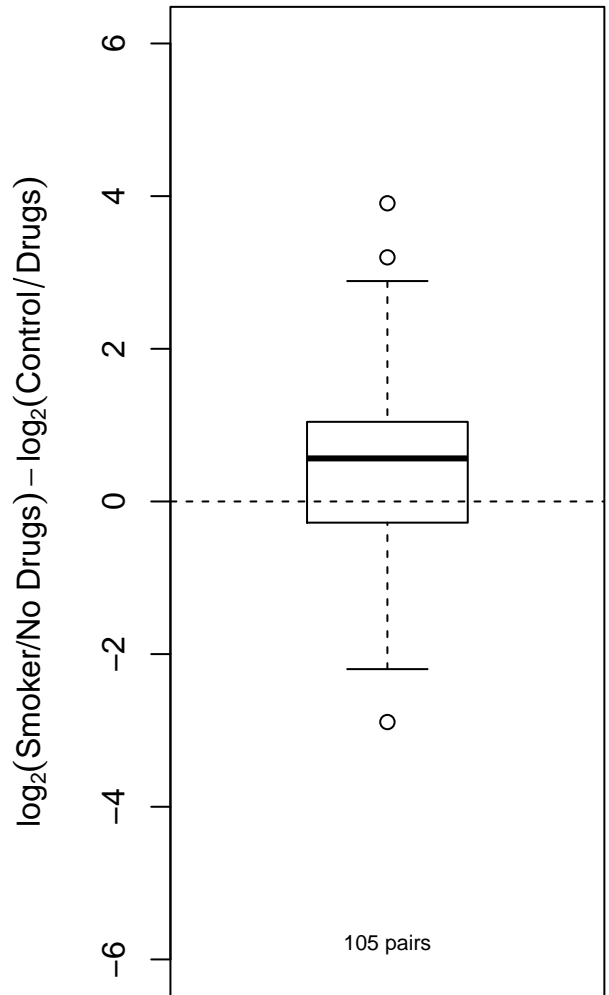
Covariate	$(Z, Z')$	
	$(1, 0)$	$(0, 1)$
Age (mean)	43.4	43.1
Female (count)	41	41
< 2 × Poverty level (count)	44	44
Income/poverty ratio (mean)	1.8	1.6
<9th grade (count)	5	5
≥ 9th grade (count)	15	15
High school or equivalent (count)	17	17
Some college (count)	50	50
BA degree or more (count)	18	18
Black (count)	23	23
Hispanic (count)	17	17
Other (count)	65	65

## Cadmium



Cadmium level in blood  
 $\mu\text{g/L}$

## Lead



Lead level in blood  
 $\mu\text{g/dL}$

# Comparison of matched pair differences, conventional versus differential

- Although one analysis removes a bias from a general disposition and the other does not, the results look similar.
- Suggests this general disposition is not a good explanation of the smoker/control difference in outcomes.

**Table:** Pair differences in  $\log_2(\text{cadmium})$  and  $\log_2(\text{lead})$  in 518 conventional smoker-control pairs and in 105 differential pairs of a smoker who never tried hard drugs and a nonsmoker who did try them.

	Quantile	10%	25%	50%	75%	90%
Cadmium, Conventional, n=518		0.84	1.50	2.25	2.92	3.59
Cadmium, Differential, n=105		0.66	1.35	2.08	2.92	3.42
Lead, Conventional, n=518		-0.73	-0.04	0.61	1.26	1.94
Lead, differential, n=105		-0.78	-0.28	0.56	1.04	1.64

# Balancing another treatment: binge drinking of alcohol

**Table:** Is alcohol consumption balanced in the basic  $Z$  and differential ( $Z, Z'$ ) comparisons? Drinks per day on drinking days, except as noted.

Alcohol drinks	Smoker/Control, $Z$		Differential, ( $Z, Z'$ )	
	$Z = 1$	$Z = 0$	(1, 0)	(0, 1)
<12 per year (%)	12	36	10	9
1-2 per day (%)	31	32	39	41
3-4 per day(%)	28	17	23	22
$\geq 5$ per day (%)	29	15	28	28
Total (%)	100	100	100	100
Count	385	412	100	94

- Theory says that a differential comparison balances other treatments controlled by the same disposition, whether they are measured or not.

# Sensitivity to differential effects

- The 105 differential pairs are immune to the generic bias, but are susceptible to a differential bias.



## Sensitivity to differential effects

- The 105 differential pairs are immune to the generic bias, but are susceptible to a differential bias.
- E.g., the smokers *continued* smoking, but the people who *once tried* hard drugs may have quit.

# Sensitivity to differential effects

- The 105 differential pairs are immune to the generic bias, but are susceptible to a differential bias.
- E.g., the smokers *continued* smoking, but the people who *once tried* hard drugs may have quit.
- The differential comparison for **lead** is sensitive to a bias of  $\Gamma = 1.8$  in a comparison of smoking while never trying hard drugs versus trying hard drugs but not smoking.

# Sensitivity to differential effects

- The 105 differential pairs are immune to the generic bias, but are susceptible to a differential bias.
- E.g., the smokers *continued* smoking, but the people who *once tried* hard drugs may have quit.
- The differential comparison for **lead** is sensitive to a bias of  $\Gamma = 1.8$  in a comparison of smoking while never trying hard drugs versus trying hard drugs but not smoking.
- $\Gamma = 1.8$  is an unobserved covariate that triples the odds of treatment and more than triples the odds of a higher lead level.

# Sensitivity to differential effects

- The 105 differential pairs are immune to the generic bias, but are susceptible to a differential bias.
- E.g., the smokers *continued* smoking, but the people who *once tried* hard drugs may have quit.
- The differential comparison for **lead** is sensitive to a bias of  $\Gamma = 1.8$  in a comparison of smoking while never trying hard drugs versus trying hard drugs but not smoking.
- $\Gamma = 1.8$  is an unobserved covariate that triples the odds of treatment and more than triples the odds of a higher lead level.
- The differential comparison for **cadmium** is insensitive to a bias of  $\Gamma = 23$ .

# Sensitivity to differential effects

- The 105 differential pairs are immune to the generic bias, but are susceptible to a differential bias.
- E.g., the smokers *continued* smoking, but the people who *once tried* hard drugs may have quit.
- The differential comparison for **lead** is sensitive to a bias of  $\Gamma = 1.8$  in a comparison of smoking while never trying hard drugs versus trying hard drugs but not smoking.
- $\Gamma = 1.8$  is an unobserved covariate that triples the odds of treatment and more than triples the odds of a higher lead level.
- The differential comparison for **cadmium** is insensitive to a bias of  $\Gamma = 23$ .
- $\Gamma = 23$  is an unobserved covariate associated with more than a 45-fold increase in both the odds of treatment and of a positive difference in cadmium.

## Summary of the smoking example

- A conventional treatment ( $Z = 1$ ) versus control ( $Z = 0$ ) comparison supplemented with a differential comparison, ( $Z = 1, Z' = 0$ ) versus ( $Z = 0, Z' = 1$ ).

## Summary of the smoking example

- A conventional treatment ( $Z = 1$ ) versus control ( $Z = 0$ ) comparison supplemented with a differential comparison, ( $Z = 1, Z' = 0$ ) versus ( $Z = 0, Z' = 1$ ).
- Because these analyses concur, a generic bias towards substance abuse cannot readily explain the higher lead and cadmium levels in smokers' blood.

## Summary of the smoking example

- A conventional treatment ( $Z = 1$ ) versus control ( $Z = 0$ ) comparison supplemented with a differential comparison, ( $Z = 1, Z' = 0$ ) versus ( $Z = 0, Z' = 1$ ).
- Because these analyses concur, a generic bias towards substance abuse cannot readily explain the higher lead and cadmium levels in smokers' blood.
- The differential comparison balanced alcohol, while the conventional comparison did not.



## Summary of the smoking example

- A conventional treatment ( $Z = 1$ ) versus control ( $Z = 0$ ) comparison supplemented with a differential comparison, ( $Z = 1, Z' = 0$ ) versus ( $Z = 0, Z' = 1$ ).
- Because these analyses concur, a generic bias towards substance abuse cannot readily explain the higher lead and cadmium levels in smokers' blood.
- The differential comparison balanced alcohol, while the conventional comparison did not.
- Sensitivity analyses suggest that small to moderate biases cannot explain the conventional comparison, and small to moderate differential biases cannot explain the differential comparison.

## Example 3: Seat belts in car crashes

- Do seat belts reduce injuries in car crashes?

## Example 3: Seat belts in car crashes

- Do seat belts reduce injuries in car crashes?
- Problem: crazy drivers don't wear seat belts, but they also tailgate, speed, text while driving, pass aggressively.

## Example 3: Seat belts in car crashes

- Do seat belts reduce injuries in car crashes?
- Problem: crazy drivers don't wear seat belts, but they also tailgate, speed, text while driving, pass aggressively.
- A high speed crash while tailgating may involve greater force than a low speed crash with an opportunity to brake.

## Example 3: Seat belts in car crashes

- Do seat belts reduce injuries in car crashes?
- Problem: crazy drivers don't wear seat belts, but they also tailgate, speed, text while driving, pass aggressively.
- A high speed crash while tailgating may involve greater force than a low speed crash with an opportunity to brake.
- Compare belted and unbelted people and you may compare crashes of different severities.

# Evan's solution

- Lawrence Evans (1986) looked at driver and front right passenger in the same car in the same crash.

# Evan's solution

- Lawrence Evans (1986) looked at driver and front right passenger in the same car in the same crash.
- Same car, same crash, same speed, same distance to the car ahead, etc.

# Evan's solution

- Lawrence Evans (1986) looked at driver and front right passenger in the same car in the same crash.
- Same car, same crash, same speed, same distance to the car ahead, etc.
- Unit of analysis is the crash, not the person.



# Evan's solution

- Lawrence Evans (1986) looked at driver and front right passenger in the same car in the same crash.
- Same car, same crash, same speed, same distance to the car ahead, etc.
- Unit of analysis is the crash, not the person.
- $Z$  indicates whether the driver is belted,  $Z'$  indicates whether the passenger is belted.

# Evan's solution

- Lawrence Evans (1986) looked at driver and front right passenger in the same car in the same crash.
- Same car, same crash, same speed, same distance to the car ahead, etc.
- Unit of analysis is the crash, not the person.
- $Z$  indicates whether the driver is belted,  $Z'$  indicates whether the passenger is belted.
- Interesting, rare, cases are the differential comparisons,  $(Z, Z') = (1, 0)$  versus  $(Z, Z') = (0, 1)$ .

# Reconstruct his comparison using 2010-2011 data

- Data from the US Fatal Accident Reporting System

# Reconstruct his comparison using 2010-2011 data

- Data from the US Fatal Accident Reporting System
- Reports on crashes with at least one fatality (so there are ascertainment issues).

# Reconstruct his comparison using 2010-2011 data

- Data from the US Fatal Accident Reporting System
- Reports on crashes with at least one fatality (so there are ascertainment issues).
- Injuries are score 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 where 0 is no injury, 4 is death.

# Reconstruct his comparison using 2010-2011 data

- Data from the US Fatal Accident Reporting System
- Reports on crashes with at least one fatality (so there are ascertainment issues).
- Injuries are score 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 where 0 is no injury, 4 is death.
- Will look at driver-minus-passenger difference in injury scores.

# Reconstruct his comparison using 2010-2011 data

- Data from the US Fatal Accident Reporting System
- Reports on crashes with at least one fatality (so there are ascertainment issues).
- Injuries are score 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 where 0 is no injury, 4 is death.
- Will look at driver-minus-passenger difference in injury scores.
- Range 4 to  $-4$ . Here,  $-4$  means the driver was uninjured, passenger died.

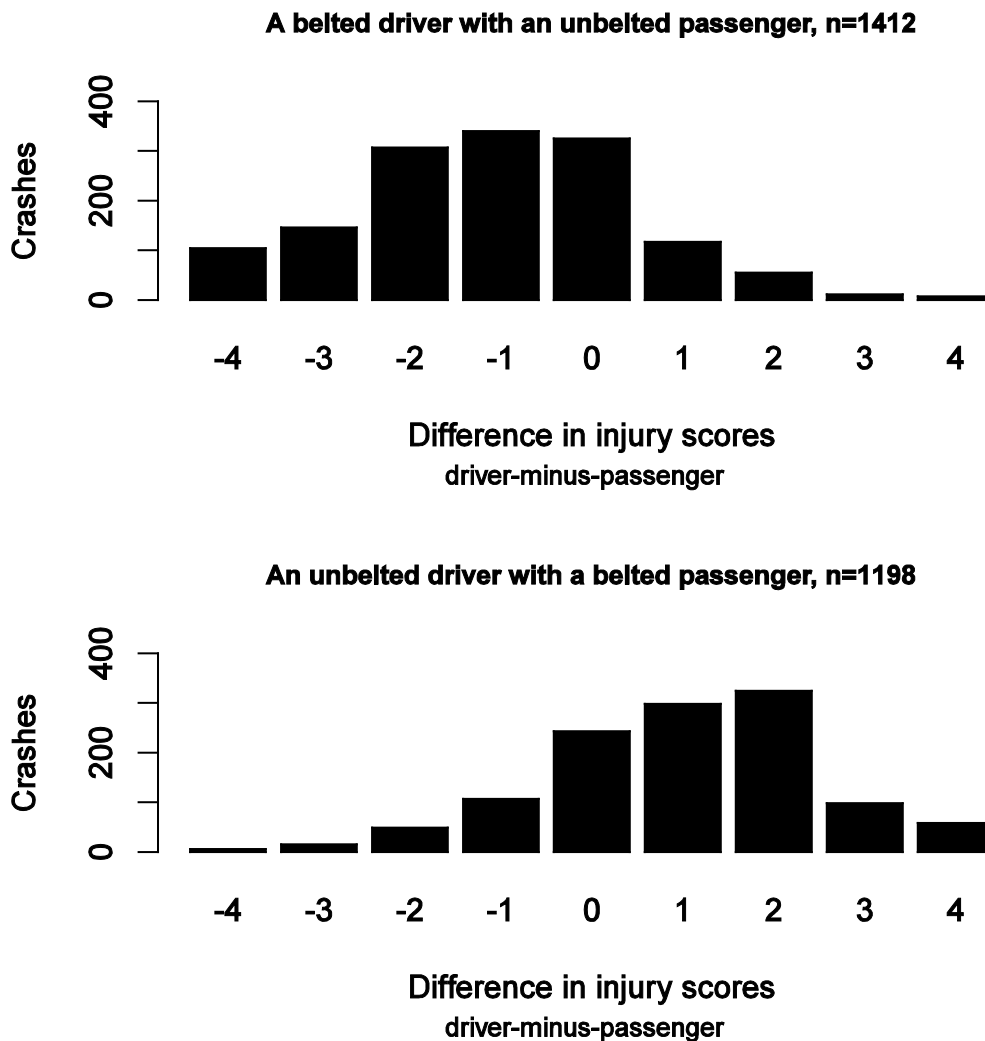


Figure 12.1: Driver-minus-passenger difference in injury scores in crashes from the 2010-2011 Fatal Accident Reporting System in which the driver and front-right passenger were differently belted. Injury scores range from 0=none to 4=death, so: (i) a driver-minus passenger difference of 4 means the driver died and the passenger was uninjured, (ii) a difference of -4 means the driver was uninjured and the passenger died, and (iii) a difference of 0 means the same injury for driver and passenger.



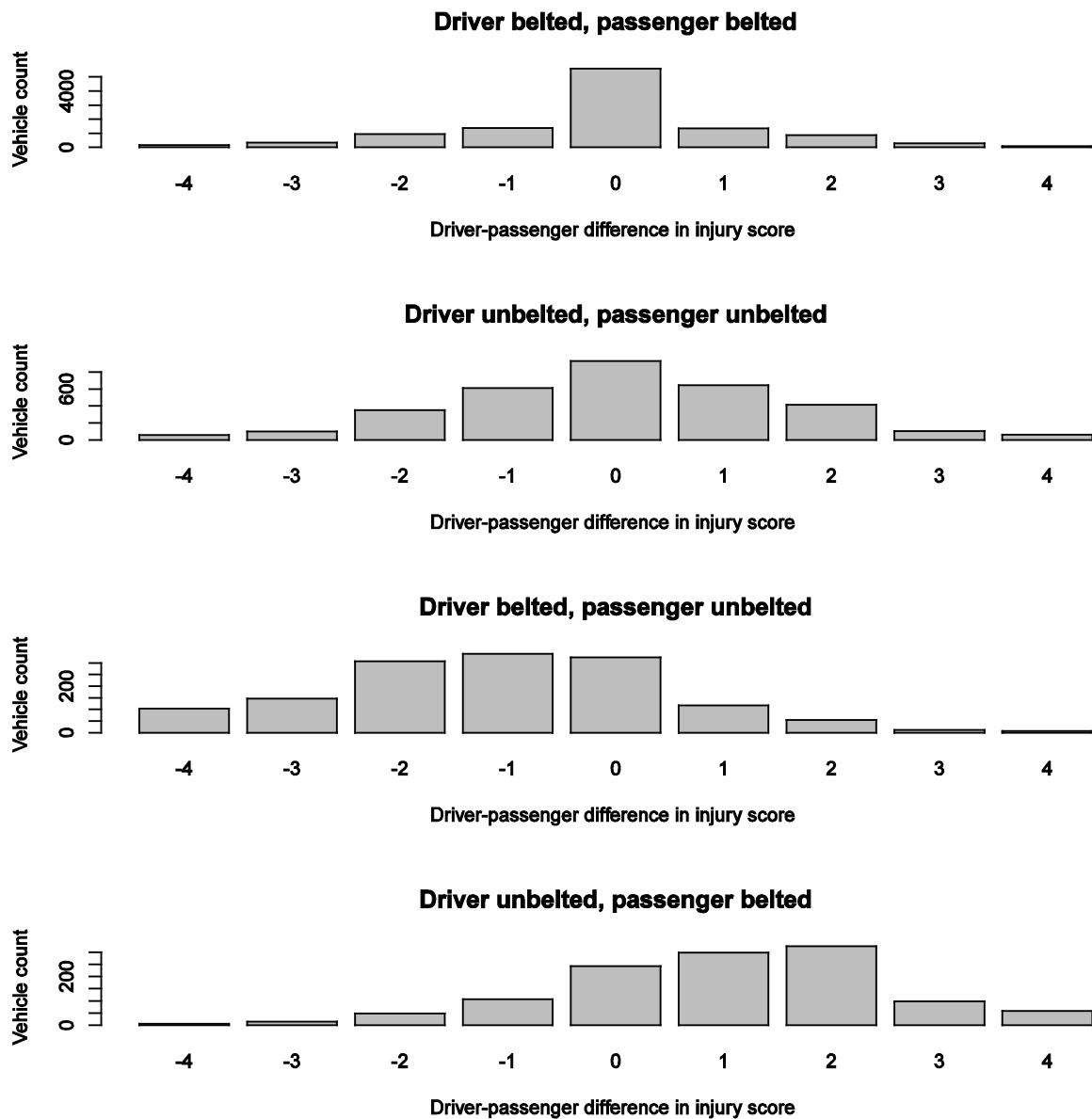


Figure 1: Pair differences in injury scores, driver-minus-passenger, for a driver and a passenger in the same car in FARS 2010-2011, by restraint use. A positive difference indicates the driver suffered more severe injuries than the passenger.

# Time-dependent generic biases

- From: Zubizarreta, J. R., Small, D. S. and Rosenbaum, P. R. (2014). Isolation in the construction of natural experiments. *Annals of Applied Statistics* **8**, 2096-2121.

# Time-dependent generic biases

- From: Zubizarreta, J. R., Small, D. S. and Rosenbaum, P. R. (2014). Isolation in the construction of natural experiments. *Annals of Applied Statistics* **8**, 2096-2121.
- Example from: Angrist, J. D. and Evans, W. N. (1998). Children and their parent's labor supply: Evidence from exogenous variation in family size. *American Economic Review* **88** 450-477.

# Time-dependent generic biases

- From: Zubizarreta, J. R., Small, D. S. and Rosenbaum, P. R. (2014). Isolation in the construction of natural experiments. *Annals of Applied Statistics* **8**, 2096-2121.
- Example from: Angrist, J. D. and Evans, W. N. (1998). Children and their parent's labor supply: Evidence from exogenous variation in family size. *American Economic Review* **88** 450–477.
- Angrist & Evans asked: Does having twins rather than a single child affect workforce participation?

# Time-dependent generic biases

- From: Zubizarreta, J. R., Small, D. S. and Rosenbaum, P. R. (2014). Isolation in the construction of natural experiments. *Annals of Applied Statistics* **8**, 2096-2121.
- Example from: Angrist, J. D. and Evans, W. N. (1998). Children and their parent's labor supply: Evidence from exogenous variation in family size. *American Economic Review* **88** 450-477.
- Angrist & Evans asked: Does having twins rather than a single child affect workforce participation?
- Idea is that generic unobserved biases affect the timing of pregnancies, but perhaps the twin-versus-single-child treatment is not biased by unobservables conditionally given a pregnancy.

# What is a time-dependent generic bias? A definition.

- Treatments are assigned by a marked point process. Marks indicate the specific treatment received.

# What is a time-dependent generic bias? A definition.

- Treatments are assigned by a marked point process. Marks indicate the specific treatment received.
- Timing of treatments is biased by unobservables, but conditionally given that a treatment is received at time  $t$ , the assignment of one treatment rather than the other is not biased by unobservables.

# What is a time-dependent generic bias? A definition.

- Treatments are assigned by a marked point process. Marks indicate the specific treatment received.
- Timing of treatments is biased by unobservables, but conditionally given that a treatment is received at time  $t$ , the assignment of one treatment rather than the other is not biased by unobservables.
- There are only time-dependent generic biases if the hazard of at least one treatment at time  $t$  is biased by unobservables, but the ratio of hazards for two different treatments is not biased by unobservables.



## Time-dependent Generic Biases

→  $(Z(t)=1, Z'(t)=0)$

→  $(Z(t)=0, Z'(t)=1)$

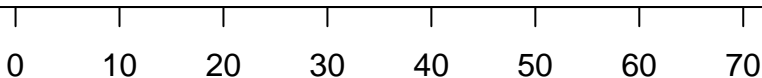
Two people, both receiving a treatment at time  $t=30$ .

Risk set matching ensures identical  $x(t)$ ,  $Z(t)$ ,  $Z'(t)$ , up to  $t=30$ .

Hazard of a treatment also depends upon unobserved  $u(t)$ .

However, given a treatment at time  $t$ ,  $Z(t)+Z'(t)=1$ , the chance of  $(Z(t)=1, Z'(t)=0)$  does not depend upon  $u(t)$ .

Create matched pairs/sets with identical  $x(t)$  up to  $t$  receiving different treatments at time  $t$ .



Time

## Applied to the Angrist–Evans Data.

→ Mom has twins at age 30

→ Mom has a single child at age 30.

Two women, both have a child at age 30.

Risk set matching ensures same education, fertility before 30.

Having a child at age 30 depends upon unobserved  $u(t)$ .

Given that you have a child at 30, the  
chance of a twin does not depend upon  $u(t)$ .

Matched 1–5, same education, fertility up to age 30  
with 1 twin, 5 single births.

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70

Time

# Summary

- Some unmeasured biases  $u_{si}$  promote several treatments,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$ , at once.

# Summary

- Some unmeasured biases  $u_{si}$  promote several treatments,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$ , at once.
- Only generic unobserved bias if  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  varies with  $x_{si}$  but not  $u_{si}$  or  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$ .

# Summary

- Some unmeasured biases  $u_{si}$  promote several treatments,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$ , at once.
- Only generic unobserved bias if  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  varies with  $x_{si}$  but not  $u_{si}$  or  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$ .
- Removed by differential comparisons. Must select these carefully.

# Summary

- Some unmeasured biases  $u_{si}$  promote several treatments,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$ , at once.
- Only generic unobserved bias if  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  varies with  $x_{si}$  but not  $u_{si}$  or  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$ .
- Removed by differential comparisons. Must select these carefully.
- Differential biases addressed by sensitivity analyses.

# Summary

- Some unmeasured biases  $u_{sj}$  promote several treatments,  $(Z_{sj}, Z'_{sj})$ , at once.
- Only generic unobserved bias if  $\rho_{sj} = \pi_{10sj} / \pi_{01sj}$  varies with  $x_{sj}$  but not  $u_{sj}$  or  $(r_{11sj}, r_{10sj}, r_{01sj}, r_{00sj})$ .
- Removed by differential comparisons. Must select these carefully.
- Differential biases addressed by sensitivity analyses.
- Adjusting for  $Z'_{sj}$  underadjusts for  $u_{sj}$ .

# Summary

- Some unmeasured biases  $u_{si}$  promote several treatments,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$ , at once.
- Only generic unobserved bias if  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  varies with  $x_{si}$  but not  $u_{si}$  or  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$ .
- Removed by differential comparisons. Must select these carefully.
- Differential biases addressed by sensitivity analyses.
- Adjusting for  $Z'_{si}$  underadjusts for  $u_{si}$ .
- Under conditions, the differential comparison balances another  $Z''_{si}$  governed by  $u_{si}$ .



# Summary

- Some unmeasured biases  $u_{si}$  promote several treatments,  $(Z_{si}, Z'_{si})$ , at once.
- Only generic unobserved bias if  $\rho_{si} = \pi_{10si} / \pi_{01si}$  varies with  $x_{si}$  but not  $u_{si}$  or  $(r_{11si}, r_{10si}, r_{01si}, r_{00si})$ .
- Removed by differential comparisons. Must select these carefully.
- Differential biases addressed by sensitivity analyses.
- Adjusting for  $Z'_{si}$  underadjusts for  $u_{si}$ .
- Under conditions, the differential comparison balances another  $Z''_{si}$  governed by  $u_{si}$ .
- Time-dependent generic biases: hazard of being treated at  $t$  that depends upon  $u_{si}(t)$ , but the relative hazard of different treatments does not.