

Introduction To Quantitative Political Science

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- Politics is full of claims
- The credibility of claims depends on the strength of evidence and argument
- This class aims to give you tools to:
 - make credible claims, and
 - evaluate claims made by others



Figure 1: Immigration and Unemployment.

Claims in the Media



Figure 2: Do American's Support Impeachment?

- **Inference:** a belief based on evidence and rules for processing that evidence
- **Methodology:** “tools for gathering and analyzing data to try to make valid inferences

Questions

- Does increased immigration increase unemployment?
- Does democracy cause economic growth?
- does climate change increase the probability of civil war?

Two Categories of Inference

- *Descriptive* Inference
 - What are the facts?
- *Causal* Inference
 - Why does soemthing occur?

- Seeks to describe the existence of something
- Examples:
 - Is the United States polarizing?
 - Is global terrorism increasing?
 - Is Russia an autocracy?

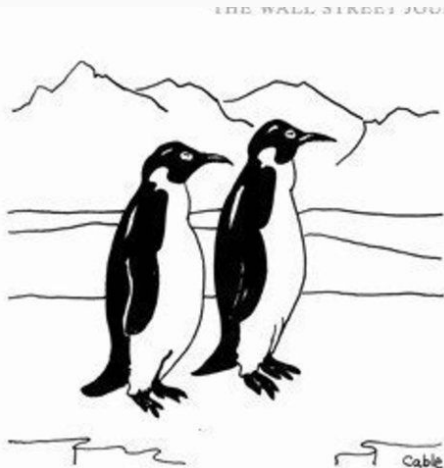
Description = “What?”

- A common feature of descriptive research and descriptive research questions is a focus on what questions
 - What is this?
 - What other things are (un)like this?
 - What features does this have?
 - What people, institutions, and ideas does this involve?
 - Where is this? When is this? What happened before and after?
 - Examples?

Beyond Description

- Sequencing
- Characterisation of processes
- Policy, content, or discourse analysis
- Conceptualisation
- Causal hypothesis generation

What makes something a cause?



"Do you think all these film crews brought on global warming or did global warming bring on all these film crews?"

- Seeks to understand the effect of some variable(s) on some other variables(s)
- Questions about why:
 - Why is the United States polarizing?
 - Why is global terrorism increasing/decreasing?
 - Why is Russia not a democracy?

- Can start with either:
 - A **dependent** variable (outcome)
 - An **independent** variable (cause)

Causal Inference (continued. . .)

- What causes Y?
 - Associated with search for causes
 - *What causes political polarization?*
- What happens if X?
 - Associated with 'experiments'
 - *What happens when people receive most of their news from social media networks?*

Which of these is a causal research question?

What makes a good research question

- Start from political problem or puzzle
- Builds on an existing research literature
- Non-obvious

Which is a better Research Question?

The Dataset and you

- A rectangular, case-by-variable dataset
 - dataset observations (DSOs')
- Clear unit of analysis
- Quantitative and qualitative measures
- Calculation of summary statistics

Happiness Dataset

```
# Read Happiness Data
happ2019 = read.csv("C:/Users/afisher/Documents/R Code/Resources/Data/Happiness/2019.csv")
# First 6 observations
head(happ2019)
```

```
## Overall.rank Country.or.region Score GDP.per.capita Social.support
## 1          1          Finland 7.769          1.340          1.587
## 2          2          Denmark 7.600          1.383          1.573
## 3          3          Norway 7.554          1.488          1.582
## 4          4          Iceland 7.494          1.380          1.624
## 5          5          Netherlands 7.488          1.396          1.522
## 6          6          Switzerland 7.480          1.452          1.526
## Healthy.life.expectancy Freedom.to.make.life.choices Generosity
## 1          0.986          0.596          0.153
## 2          0.996          0.592          0.252
## 3          1.028          0.603          0.271
## 4          1.026          0.591          0.354
## 5          0.999          0.557          0.322
## 6          1.052          0.572          0.263
## Perceptions.of.corruption
## 1          0.393
## 2          0.410
## 3          0.341
## 4          0.118
## 5          0.298
## 6          0.343
```

Quantitative vs. Qualitative research

- This divide is illusory because all research is qualitative and some involves quantitative data description

An Example: Opinion

- *Opinion* is a summary evaluation of a particular object
- Only one necessary feature: evaluation/favorability
- How do we measure this?

- Measure features
 - Level of measurement
 - How to score each case on each feature
 - Be concrete
- Aggregate feature measurements
 - Sum? Average? AND logical?
 - Range of possible values
 - Justify against criticisms/alternatives

- To study concepts, we need to be able to observe those concepts and encode them as variables
- The definition of *variable*: A dimension that describes an observation or, the operationalization of a concept

- Definition
 - Feature
 - Indicator(s)

- What are concepts that we use often in politics that are difficult to measure?

Activity!

- Concept: Democracy
- Attribute: Free and fair elections
- Measure:
 - Categorical
 - Ordinal
 - Numeric

Assessing Measurement Quality

- Conceptual clarity
- Construct validity
 - Convergent validity
 - Divergent validity
- Accuracy and precision

- *Conceptual clarity* is about knowing what we want to measure
- Sloppy concepts make for bad measures
 - Ambiguity
 - Vagueness

- *Construct validity* is the degree to which a variable measures a concept
- Construct validity is **high** if a variable is a measure of the concept we care about
- Construct validity is **low** if a variable is actually a measure of something else

Example Polity

Institutionalized Democracy: *Democracy is conceived as three essential, interdependent elements.* One is the **presence of institutions and procedures through which citizens can express effective preferences about alternative policies and leaders.** Second is the existence of **institutionalized constraints on the exercise of power by the executive.** Third is the **guarantee of civil liberties to all citizens in their daily lives and in acts of political participation.** Other aspects of plural democracy, such as the rule of law, systems of checks and balances, freedom of the press, and so on are means to, or specific manifestations of, these general principles. We do not include coded data on civil liberties.

Assessing Construct Validity

- Multiple Measures
- Look for:
 - Convergence (Convergent validity)
 - Discrimination (Discriminant validity)
- Convergent validity tests whether constructs that should be related, are related.
- Discriminant validity tests whether believed unrelated constructs are, in fact, unrelated.

Using Multiple Indicator

- Choose the “best” one
- Must have all indicators to be coded “1”
- Scale the indicators (sum or mean)

Accuracy and Precision

- **Accuracy** is how close a measured value is to the actual (true) value.
- **Precision** is how close the measured values are to each other.

Accuracy vs. Precision

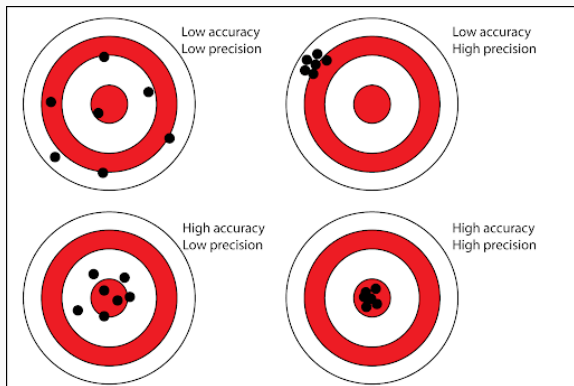


Figure 3: Accuracy vs Precision

- **Reliability:** To what extent would our measure yield the same results if we went out and collected more data?
- The more consistent the results, the higher the reliability
- Example:
 - “Will you vote for Trump in 2020?”
 - “On a scale from 0 (negative) to 100 (positive), what is your opinion of Trump?”
- Second question is likely to be less reliable.

Examples of Reliability Concerns

- *Converse (1964)* found that most people's opinions on issues as measured by survey questions appeared to vary randomly over time. His conclusion: people have "non-attitudes," are ignorant of even basic political issues.
- *Achen (1975)* argued this was actually a reliability problem – the apparent attitude instability was due to unreliable measures of political attitudes.
- Debate is still unresolved today.

- **Numeric:**
 - Discrete (can be counted)
 - Continuous (can't be counted, i.e. decimals)
- **Categorical:**
 - generally not recorded as numbers
 - Party identification
- **Ordinal:**
 - categories with a specified order
 - think survey responses (strongly agree, somewhat agree, . . .)

Why do we care?

- Once we have measured variables for observations, we can conduct analysis!
- And once we have analysis, we can draw inferences and make evidence-based claims.

Now for some R...

Why R

- R is the most comprehensive statistical analysis package, as new technology and ideas often appear first in R.
- R is an open-source that's why you can run R anywhere any time, and even sell it under conditions of the license.
- It is cross-platform which runs on many operating systems. It's best for GNU/Linux and Microsoft Windows.
- In R, everyone is welcomed to provide bug fixes, code enhancements, and new packages.
- Jobs are nice

Section 1.3: Introduction to R

Numbers as data

- R can be used as a calculator

```
2+2
```

```
## [1] 4
```

- Everything you will use in R is saved in objects.
 - This can be everything from a number or a word to complex datasets
- These are equivalent:

```
x <- 2
```

```
x = 2
```

- Now x will return the number 2 whenever we write x

Numbers as data

- When you are working with scripts, try to save as much you can in objects, so you only need to change information once

```
y=x+7
```

```
y
```

```
## [1] 9
```

- Wrapping object in parenthesis tells R that we do not only want to save some information in the object y, but that we also want to see what is saved in y.

```
(y=x+7)
```

```
## [1] 9
```

More than one number

- Not limited to save only one number in an object.
- The code below will return a row of numbers from 1 to 10.

```
1:10
```

```
## [1] 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
```

Getting the Basics

- Don't forget to check and set your working directory
- R can't find files that aren't there

Arithmetic Operations

```
5 + 3
```

```
## [1] 8
```

```
5 - 3
```

```
## [1] 2
```

```
5 / 3
```

```
## [1] 1.666667
```

```
5 ^ 3
```

```
## [1] 125
```

```
5 * (10 - 3)
```

```
## [1] 35
```

```
sqrt(4)
```

```
## [1] 2
```

Objects

```
result <- 5 + 3
```

```
result
```

```
## [1] 8
```

```
print(result)
```

```
## [1] 8
```

```
result <- 5 - 3
```

```
result
```

```
## [1] 2
```

```
alex <- "instructor"
```

```
alex
```

```
## [1] "instructor"
```

```
alex <- "instructor and author"
```

```
alex
```

```
## [1] "instructor and author"
```

Objects

```
Result <- "5"
```

```
Result
```

```
## [1] "5"
```

```
result
```

```
## [1] 2
```

```
class(result)
```

```
## [1] "numeric"
```

```
Result
```

```
## [1] "5"
```

```
class(Result)
```

```
## [1] "character"
```

```
class(sqrt)
```

```
## [1] "function"
```


Vectors

```
world.pop <- c(2525779, 3026003, 3691173, 4449049, 5320817, 6127700, 6916183)
world.pop
```

```
## [1] 2525779 3026003 3691173 4449049 5320817 6127700 6916183
pop.first <- c(2525779, 3026003, 3691173)
pop.second <- c(4449049, 5320817, 6127700, 6916183)
pop.all <- c(pop.first, pop.second)
pop.all
```

```
## [1] 2525779 3026003 3691173 4449049 5320817 6127700 6916183
world.pop[2]
```

```
## [1] 3026003
world.pop[c(2, 4)]
```

```
## [1] 3026003 4449049
world.pop[c(4, 2)]
```

```
## [1] 4449049 3026003
world.pop[-3]
```

```
## [1] 2525779 3026003 4449049 5320817 6127700 6916183
```

Vectors

```
pop.million <- world.pop / 1000
pop.million

## [1] 2525.779 3026.003 3691.173 4449.049 5320.817 6127.700 6916.183
pop.rate <- world.pop / world.pop[1]
pop.rate

## [1] 1.000000 1.198047 1.461400 1.761456 2.106604 2.426063 2.738238
pop.increase <- world.pop[-1] - world.pop[-7]
percent.increase <- (pop.increase / world.pop[-7]) * 100
percent.increase

## [1] 19.80474 21.98180 20.53212 19.59448 15.16464 12.86752
percent.increase[c(1, 2)] <- c(20, 22)
percent.increase

## [1] 20.00000 22.00000 20.53212 19.59448 15.16464 12.86752
```

Functions

```
length(world.pop)
```

```
## [1] 7
```

```
min(world.pop)
```

```
## [1] 2525779
```

```
max(world.pop)
```

```
## [1] 6916183
```

```
range(world.pop)
```

```
## [1] 2525779 6916183
```

```
mean(world.pop)
```

```
## [1] 4579529
```

```
sum(world.pop) / length(world.pop)
```

```
## [1] 4579529
```

Functions

```
year <- seq(from = 1950, to = 2010, by = 10)
year
```

```
## [1] 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2000 2010
seq(to = 2010, by = 10, from = 1950)
```

```
## [1] 1950 1960 1970 1980 1990 2000 2010
seq(from = 2010, to = 1950, by = -10)
```

```
## [1] 2010 2000 1990 1980 1970 1960 1950
2008:2012
```

```
## [1] 2008 2009 2010 2011 2012
2012:2008
```

```
## [1] 2012 2011 2010 2009 2008
```

Functions

```
names(world.pop)
```

```
## NULL
```

```
names(world.pop) <- year
```

```
names(world.pop)
```

```
## [1] "1950" "1960" "1970" "1980" "1990" "2000" "2010"
```

```
world.pop
```

```
##      1950      1960      1970      1980      1990      2000      2010
```

```
## 2525779 3026003 3691173 4449049 5320817 6127700 6916183
```

Functions

```
## myfunction <- function(input1, input2, ..., inputN) {  
##  
##     DEFINE `output' USING INPUTS  
##  
##     return(output)  
## }
```

```
my.summary <- function(x){ # function takes one input  
  s.out <- sum(x)  
  l.out <- length(x)  
  m.out <- s.out / l.out  
  out <- c(s.out, l.out, m.out) # define the output  
  names(out) <- c("sum", "length", "mean") # add labels  
  return(out) # end function by calling output  
}
```

Functions

```
z <- 1:10  
my.summary(z)
```

```
##      sum length   mean  
##  55.0   10.0    5.5
```

```
my.summary(world.pop)
```

```
##      sum   length   mean  
## 32056704      7 4579529
```

```
# setwd("qss/INTRO")  
# getwd()
```


Reading Files

- R can read files of many types and formats
- Usually, data are either in .csv or .Rdata format
- R can also read Excel spreadsheets with the readxl package

```
# Read in csv
# name_object <- read.csv("data_path/file.csv")
UNpop <- read.csv('C:/Users/afisher/Documents/R Code/qss/INTRO/UNpop.csv')
```

```
# Get type of object
class(UNpop)
```

```
## [1] "data.frame"
# Names of columns
names(UNpop)
```

```
## [1] "year"      "world.pop"
# Number of rows
nrow(UNpop)
```

```
## [1] 7
# Number of columns
ncol(UNpop)
```

```
## [1] 2
```

Grabbing Data

```
# extract the column called "world.pop"
```

```
UNpop[, "world.pop"]
```

```
## [1] 2525779 3026003 3691173 4449049 5320817 6127700 6916
```

```
# alternative way to extract column
```

```
UNpop$world.pop
```

```
## [1] 2525779 3026003 3691173 4449049 5320817 6127700 6916
```

```
# extract the first three rows (and all columns)
```

```
UNpop[c(1, 2, 3),]
```

```
##   year world.pop
```

```
## 1 1950    2525779
```

```
## 2 1960    3026003
```

```
## 3 1970    3691173
```

Saving Objects

```
## save.image("qss/INTRO/Chapter1.RData")
```

```
## save(UNpop, file = "Chapter1.RData")
```

```
## save(world.pop, year, file = "qss/INTRO/Chapter1.RData")
```

```
## write.csv(UNpop, file = "UNpop.csv")
```

```
## load("Chapter1.RData")
```

Explore the data

- After loading the data and converting it into a tibble, one should inspect the data to get some understanding about the structure and content. Common functions for these tasks are:
- `<name-of-data-tibble>`: Display the first 10 rows and all columns that fit on one screen. It also prints an abbreviated description of the column type.
- `head(<name-of-df>)`, `tail(<name-of-df>)`: Return the first or last part. Use these commands if it is not a tibble but a data frame
- `dim()`: Retrieve the dimension
- `names()`: Get the names

Explore the data

- `str()`: Display compactly the internal structure
- `glimpse()`: is the dplyr-version of `str()` showing values of each variable the whole screen width, but does not display the number of levels and names of factor variables. But this feature of `str()` cannot be displayed completely with either many or long levels names.
- `View()`: With RStudio you can see and inspect the data set comfortably. The `View()` function invokes a spreadsheet-style data viewer.

Install Packages

- When you download R from the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN), you get that “base” R system
- The base R system comes with basic functionality; implements the R language
- One reason R is so useful is the large collection of packages that extend the basic functionality of R
- R packages are developed and published by the larger R community

Install Packages

- Packages can be installed with the `install.packages()` function in R
- To install a single package, pass the name of the package to the `install.packages()` function as the first argument
- You can install multiple R packages at once with a single call to `install.packages()`
- `install.packages(c("dplyr", "ggplot2", "devtools"))`

- Why should we write scripts?
 - Save time: automate boring tasks
 - Reproducibility
 - Allow complex tasks to be performed in small steps
 - Faster to run

Loading R Packages

- Installing a package does not make it immediately available to you in R; you must load the package
- The `library()` function is used to load packages into R
- The following code is used to load the `ggplot2` package into R

```
library(ggplot2)
```

- NOTE: Do not put the package name in quotes!

Adding Labels to our plots

- To add a title to your plot, add the code:
 - `+ggtitle("Your Title Here")` to your line of basic ggplot code.
- Note: You can also use:
 - `+labs(title = "Title")`
- To alter the labels on the axis, add the code:
 - `+labs(y= "y axis name", x = "x axis name")`
- Can also use:
 - `+xlab("x axis name" and +ylab("y axis name")`

Looking at the Data (dim and glimpse)

```
## Cyanide and Happiness 2017 Politics Poll
```

Looking at the Data (head)

```
# head
```

```
head(cah) # first 6 observations
```

```
## Income Gender Age AgeRange PoliticalAffiliation ApproveTrump education
## 1 192000 Female 35 35-44 Strong Republican DK/REF College degree
## 2 54000 Female 58 55-64 Independent Disapprove Some college
## 3 20000 Male 50 45-54 Not Strong Democrat Approve Other
## 4 21000 Female 40 35-44 Independent Disapprove College degree
## 5 164000 Female 42 35-44 Strong Democrat DK/REF Graduate degree
## 6 9000 Female 35 35-44 Strong Democrat Disapprove High school
## race AgreeWhiteNationalists RepublicansAgreeWhiteNationalists
## 1 White DK/REF NA
## 2 White DK/REF NA
## 3 White Agree 10
## 4 White DK/REF NA
## 5 Black DK/REF NA
## 6 Latino Agree 50
## Would.you.say.that.you.love.America. DemocratsLoveAmerica GovHelpPoor
## 1 Yes 40 Yes
## 2 Yes 80 Yes
## 3 Yes 60 Yes
## 4 Yes 30 Yes
## 5 Yes NA Yes
## 6 Yes 100 Yes
## WhitePeopleRacist CivilWarNextDecade hunting kalesalad VoteTheRockPres
## 1 No Unlikely No No No
## 2 No Likely No No Yes
## 3 Yes Likely Yes No Yes
## 4 Yes Likely No Yes No
## 5 DK/REF Unlikely No Yes Yes
```