

**POLI 30 D: Political Inquiry**  
Professor Umberto Mignozzetti  
(Based on DSS Materials)

**Lecture 06 | Measuring Population  
Characteristics I**

## Before we start

### Announcements:

- ▶ Quizzes and Participation: On Canvas.
- ▶ Github page:  
<https://github.com/umbertomig/POLI30Dpublic>
- ▶ Piazza forum: <https://piazza.com/ucsd/winter2023/17221>

## Before we start

### Recap:

- ▶ We learned the definitions of Theory, Scientific Theory, and Hypotheses.
- ▶ Data, datasets, variables, and how to compute means.
- ▶ Causal effect, treatments, outcomes, randomization, and ATE.

### Great job!

- ▶ Do you have any questions about these contents?

## Plan for Today

- Sample vs. Population
- Representative samples
- Random Sampling
- Random Treatment Assignment vs. Random Sampling
- Exploring One Variable At a Time
  - Table of frequencies
  - Table of proportions
  - Histogram
  - Descriptive Statistics: mean, median, standard deviation, and variance

# Why Do We Analyze Data?

1. MEASURE: **To infer population characteristics via survey research**
  - what proportion of constituents support a particular policy?
2. PREDICT: **To make predictions**
  - who is the most likely candidate to win an upcoming election?
3. EXPLAIN: **To estimate the causal effect of a treatment on an outcome**
  - what is the effect of small classrooms on student performance?

# Why Do We Analyze Data?

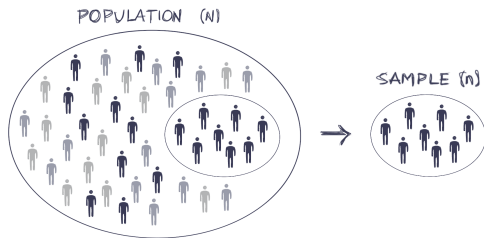
1. MEASURE: To infer population characteristics via survey research
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  - what is the effect of small classrooms on student performance?

## Sample vs. Population

- ▶ We often want to know the characteristics of a large **population** such as the residents of a country
- ▶ Yet collecting data from every individual in the population is either prohibitively expensive or infeasible.
- ▶ In the US, we try to collect data from each individual every ten years
  - ▶ The 2020 census cost \$14.2 billion, approximately (population at that time was around 331 million)
  - ▶ This is not feasible for research purposes!
- ▶ We use surveys to collect data from a small subset of observations in order to understand the population

## Sample vs. Population

- The subset of individuals chosen for study is called a **sample**



- Researchers typically survey about 1,000 people to infer the characteristics of more than 200 million US citizens
- $n=1,000$ ,  $N=200$  million



# Representative Samples

- ▶ In survey research, it is vital for the sample to be representative of the population of interest
- ▶ **Representative sample:** Accurately reflects the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn
- ▶ If the sample is not representative, our inferences regarding the population characteristics will be wrong

## Representative Samples

- ▶ Are you a representative sample of U.S. residents?
- ▶ Are you a representative sample of UCSD students?
- ▶ Are you a representative sample of UCSD Poli majors?
- ▶ Are you a representative sample of POLI 30 D students?
- ▶ What would be the best way to draw a representative sample of UCSD students?

## Random Sampling

- ▶ The best way to draw a representative sample is to select individuals at *random* from the population.

**Random sampling** makes the **sample** and the **target population** *on average* identical.

- ▶ Random sampling: enables us to infer *valid* population characteristics from the sample,

## Random Treatment Assignment vs. Random Sampling

- ▶ They both use a random process but are different concepts.
- ▶ **Random treatment assignment** means that treatment is assigned at random:
  - ▶ makes treatment and control groups comparable.
- ▶ **Random sampling** means that individuals are selected at random from the population into the sample:
  - ▶ makes sample representative of the population.
- ▶ For the purpose of this class, we assume that we are always studying a representative sample.

## Exploring One Variable At a Time

- ▶ Suppose we have collected data from a sample, now what?
- ▶ To understand the content and distribution of each variable we can:
  - ▶ create a table of frequencies
  - ▶ create a table of proportions
  - ▶ create a histogram
  - ▶ compute descriptive statistics
- ▶ Let's return to the voting experiment
  - ▶ data collected from a sample of registered voters in the state of Michigan

## The *voting* dataset

Unit of observation: registered voters

Description of variables:

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variable	description
<i>birth</i>	year of birth of registered voter
<i>message</i>	whether registered voter received message: "yes", "no"
<i>voted</i>	whether registered voter voted: 1=voted, 0=didn't vote

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## Table of Frequencies

- ▶ The **frequency table** shows the values the variable takes and the number of times each value appears in the variable
- ▶ R function: `table()`

```
table(voting$voted)
##
##      0      1
## 158276 71168
```

- ▶ Interpretation?

## Table of Proportions

- ▶ The **table of proportions** shows the proportion of observations that take each value in the variable
- ▶ The proportions in the table should add up to 1
- ▶ R function: `prop.table(table( ))`

```
prop.table(table(voting$voted))
```

```
##
```

```
##           0           1
```

```
## 0.6898241 0.3101759
```

- ▶ Interpretation?

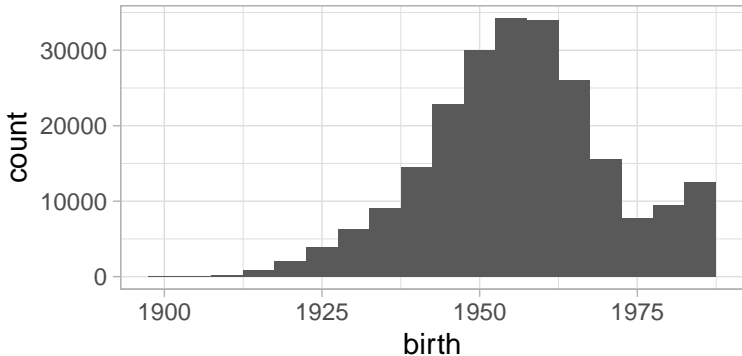


# Histogram

- ▶ The **histogram** is the visual representation of a variables distribution through bins of different heights
- ▶ The position of the bins along the x-axis indicate the interval of values
- ▶ The height of the bins indicate the frequency (or count) of the interval of values
- ▶ R functions: `hist()` or `ggplot() + geom_histogram()`
- ▶ Great for quantitative variables (the numeric R data types)

# Histogram

```
ggplot(voting, aes(x = birth)) +  
  geom_histogram(binwidth = 5) + theme_light()
```



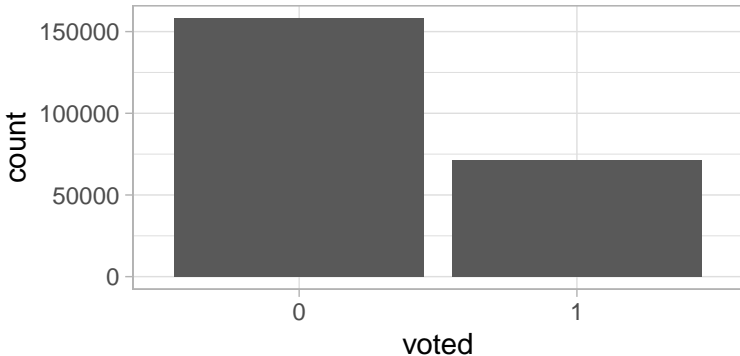
► Interpretation?

## Barplots

- ▶ The **barplot** is similar to a histogram, but discretizes the variation
- ▶ The position of the bins along the x-axis indicate a value
- ▶ The height of the bins indicate the frequency (or count) of the values
- ▶ R functions: `barplot(table())` or `ggplot() + geom_bar()`
- ▶ Great for qualitative variables (numeric binary or character)

## Barplots

```
ggplot(voting, aes(x = voted)) +  
  geom_bar(aes(x = as.character(voted))) + theme_light()
```



► Interpretation?

# Descriptive Statistics

- ▶ The **descriptive statistics** of a variable numerically summarize the main characteristics of its distribution
- ▶ Measures of centrality  
(center of the distribution):
  - ▶ mean
  - ▶ median
- ▶ Measures of spread  
(amount of variation from the center):
  - ▶ standard deviation
  - ▶ variance

## Mean

- ▶ The **mean** of a variable equals the sum of the values across all observations divided by the total number of observations
- ▶ What is the function in R?
- ▶ Example:

```
mean(voting$birth)
## [1] 1956.18
mean(voting$voted)
## [1] 0.3101759
```

- ▶ Interpretations?

# Median

- ▶ The **median** of a variable is the value at the midpoint of the distribution that divides the data into two equal-size groups
- ▶ When the variable contains an odd number of observations, the median is the middle value of the distribution
- ▶ When the variable contains an even number of observations, the median is the average of the two middle values

## Median

- ▶ Example, if  $X = \{10, 4, 6, 8, 22\}$ , what is the median of  $X$ ?
  - ▶ First, we need to sort the values of  $X$  in ascending order (as they would be in the distribution):  
 $\{4, 6, 8, 10, 22\}$
  - ▶ The value in the middle of the distribution is 8 so the median is 8.
- ▶ R function: `median()`

```
median(voting$birth)
## [1] 1956
```

- ▶ Interpretations?



## Standard Deviation

- The **standard deviation** of a variable is a measure of the spread of its distribution

$$sd(X) = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n}}$$

- $sd(X)$  stands for the standard deviation of  $X$
- $X_i$  is a particular observation of  $X$
- $\bar{X}$  stands for the mean of  $X$
- $n$  is the total number of observations in the variable
- $\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \bar{X})^2$  means the sum of all  $(X_i - \bar{X})^2$  from  $i = 1$  to  $i = n$

## Standard Deviation

The **standard deviation** of a variable measures the average distance of the observations to the mean.

- ▶ The larger the standard deviation, the flatter the distribution
- ▶ It gives us a sense of the range of the data, especially when dealing with bell-shaped distributions
- ▶ In bell-shaped (normal) distributions, 95% of the observations fall within two standard deviations from the mean

## Standard Deviation

- ▶ R function: `sd()`

```
sd(voting$birth)
## [1] 14.46019
```

- ▶ If *birth* were normally distributed, about 95% of the register voters would have been born between 1927 and 1985:
  - ▶  $\bar{X} - 2 \times \text{sd}(X) = 1956 - 2 \times 14.5 = 1927$
  - ▶  $\bar{X} + 2 \times \text{sd}(X) = 1956 + 2 \times 14.5 = 1985$

## Variance

- ▶ Another measure of spread of the distribution
- ▶ The **variance** of a variable is simply the square of the standard deviation

$$\text{var}(X) = [\text{sd}(X)]^2$$

- $\text{var}(X)$  stands for the variance of  $X$
- $\text{sd}(X)$  stands for the standard deviation of  $X$

## Variance

- ▶ R function: `var()`

```
var(voting$birth)
## [1] 209.0971
```

- ▶ Alternatively: `sd()^2`

```
sd(voting$birth)^2
## [1] 209.0971
```

- ▶ We are usually better off using standard deviations as our measure of spread:
- ▶ Same unit of measurement as the variable

# Summary

- ▶ **Today's Class:**
  - ▶ Sample vs. Population
  - ▶ Representative Samples and Random Sampling
  - ▶ Exploring a single variable
- ▶ **Next class:**
  - ▶ Correlations
  - ▶ Scatter-plots

Questions?

See you in the next class!