POLI210: Political Science Research Methods

Lecture 4.2: Experiments and Quasi-Experiments

Olivier Bergeron-Boutin September 28th, 2021

Boring admin stuff

- Assignment 2 is out start early!
 - Post questions on discussion board (error messages helpful)
- RMarkdown video
- Grades for assignment 1 are out
- TEAM mentors

The problem

If we allow units to **self-select** into the treatment, we end up with a problem

- The units that choose the treatment are systematically different
 - People go to the hospital because, if they didn't, they would be very sick
 - Students come to OHs because they're interested in the content
 - If they didn't come to OHs (counterfactual), they would probably do well regardless
- In terms of POs...
 - The potential outcome under control for those who self-selected into the treatment is different, on average, than the potential outcome under control for those who self-selected into the control

To avoid this problem, we use **random assignment** of the treatment; we'll call this an **experiment**

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 - Intuitively: there is nothing dissimilar between the treated and control units, except for the application of treatment
 - Hence, if there is a difference in outcome between the two groups, it must be because of the treatment
 - In terms of POs: had the treated units not been treated, their outcome would be the same, on average, as the control units

Have we solved the FPCI?

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 - $\, \bullet \,$ But if I can assume that it is the same as $Y_i(0)$ for the control units
 - Which we do observe!

Randomization example

Gerber, Green and Larimer (2008) are interested in the motivation to vote

- A long tradition in political science considers voting as individually irrational
- What's the benefit of voting?
- What's the cost of voting?

$$Pr(Voting) = P*B - C + D$$

Randomization example

Context: 2006 primary elections in Michigan

- In the US, voting records are public
- Mailers to about 180,000 households
- 5 conditions:
 - Control: $Y_i(0)$
 - $\qquad \text{``Civic Duty'': } Y_i(CivicDuty) \\$
 - "Hawthorne": $Y_i(Hawthorne)$
 - "Self": $Y_i(Self)$
 - ullet "Neighbors": $Y_i(Neighbors)$
- Outcome Y_i : whether subject voted (1/0)

Randomization example: Civic duty condition

APPENDIX A: MAILINGS Civic Duty mailing

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For more information: (517) 351-1975 email: etov@grebner.com Practical Political Consulting P. O. Box 6249 East Lansing, MI 48826 PRSRTSTD U.S. Postage PAID Lansing, MI Permit # 444

ECRLOT **C002 THE JONES FAMILY 9999 WILLIAMS RD FLINT MI 48507

Dear Registered Voter:

DO YOUR CIVIC DUTY AND VOTE!

Why do so many people fail to vote? We've been talking about this problem for years, but it only seems to get worse.

The whole point of democracy is that citizens are active participants in government; that we have a voice in government. Your voice starts with your vote. On August 8, remember your rights and responsibilities as a citizen. Remember to vote

DO YOUR CIVIC DUTY - VOTE!

Randomization example: Neighbors condition

Neighbors mailing

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ECRLOT **C050 THE JACKSON FAMILY 9999 MAPLE DR FLINT MI 48507

Dear Registered Voter:

WHAT IF YOUR NEIGHBORS KNEW WHETHER YOU VOTED?

Why do so many people fail to vote? We've been talking about the problem for years, but it only seems to get worse. This year, we're taking a new approach. We're sending this mailing to you and your neighbors to publicize who does and does not vote

The chart shows the names of some of your neighbors, showing which have voted in the past. After the August 8 election, we intend to mail an updated chart. You and your neighbors will all know who voted and who did not.

DO YOUR CIVIC DUTY - VOTE!

 MAPLE DR
 Aug 04
 Nov 04
 Aug 06

 9995 JOSEPH JAMES SMITH
 Voted
 Voted
 Voted

 9995 JENNIFER KAY SMITH
 Voted
 Voted
 Voted

 9997 RICHARD B JACKSON
 Voted
 Voted

Randomization example: the data

female	yob	voting	hawthorne	civicduty	neighbors	self	control
0	1941	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	1947	0	0	1	0	0	0
1	1982	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1950	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	1951	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	1959	1	0	0	0	0	1

Randomization example: the data

##

235388 108696

```
dim(voting)

## [1] 344084     8

table(voting$voting)

##
```

Randomization example: Turnout in the control

```
voting_control <- voting[voting$control==1,] # subsetting the data
mean(voting_control$voting) # mean of dummy = proportion</pre>
```

```
## [1] 0.2966383
```

Randomization example: Turnout in the control

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mean(voting_control\$voting) # mean of dummy = proportion</pre>

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What's your hunch as to the size of the treatment effect?

TABLE 2. Effects of Four Mail Treatments on Voter Turnout in the August 2006 Primary Election									
	Experimental Group								
	Control	Civic Duty	Hawthorne	Self	Neighbors				
Percentage Voting	29.7%	31.5%	32.2%	34.5%	37.8%				
N of Individuals	191,243	38,218	38,204	38,218	38,201				

Who wants to interpret this?

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- Can be interpreted causally?

Randomization example: Causal effect?

TABLE 1. Relationship between Treatment Group Assignment and Covariates (Household-Level Data)

	Control	Civic Duty	Hawthorne	Self	Neighbors
	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean
Household size	1.91	1.91	1.91	1.91	1.91
Nov 2002	.83	.84	.84	.84	.84
Nov 2000	.87	.87	.87	.86	.87
Aug 2004	.42	.42	.42	.42	.42
Aug 2002	.41	.41	.41	.41	.41
Aug 2000	.26	.27	.26	.26	.26
Female	.50	.50	.50	.50	.50
Age (in years)	51.98	51.85	51.87	51.91	52.01
N =	99,999	20,001	20,002	20,000	20,000

Note: Only registered voters who voted in November 2004 were selected for our sample. Although not included in the table, there were no significant differences between treatment group assignment and covariates measuring race and ethnicity.

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- Randomization "works" ~> groups are the same
 - The same in terms of POs under control (can we confirm?)
 - And the same in terms of pre-treatment covariates
 - Pre-treatment covariate: a variable that is not/cannot be affected by the treatment

In experimental research...

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In observational research...

- The researcher gathers data on the units without having influence on treatment assignment
- Units self-select into different values of the treatment/IV
- More about this later

Internal and external validity

Experimental and observational approaches are often compared in terms of validity

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- Survey experiment: embedded in a survey
 - e.g. randomly assign "global warming" or "climate change"
 - Advantages/disadvantages?

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• If I could conduct an experiment, what would it look like?

And look for randomness inherent to the world

Butler and Broockman

- What sort of experiment do they conduct?
- Internal and external validity?
- What do they conclude, and how convincing is it?
- Any drawbacks to their design?

Our last type of experiment: quasi-experiments/natural experiments $% \left(1\right) =\left(1\right) \left(1\right)$

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Examples of randomness we could exploit?

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Observational research

We frequently can't randomize or find a quasi-experiment

- So we are left with observational data
- Observational data is not useless far from it!
- But it can be harder to establish causality

The typical problem: spurious relationships

- An observed relationship between x and y, but not a causal one
- Why? The relationship is confounded by some variable z
 - Z confounds the relationship between x and y if it is correlated with both
- These spurious relationships show up a lot in observational research
 - They can trick you into thinking there's a causal effect even when there's not!

- Correlation between sleeping with shoes and waking up with a headache
 - What's a potential confounder here?

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The total observed association between X and Y is: a mixture of causal and confounding association

- Once I "control" for z, there may be no relationship between X and Y
- Once I "control" for z, the relationship between X and Y may be weaker
- Once I "control" for z, the relationship between X and Y may change direction

Many sources of spuriousness

The problem with observational research is that there may be many such z variables!

- i.e. many variables may confound the relationship between x and y
- In which case, to recover the true causal effect, I would need to "control for" all of these confounders

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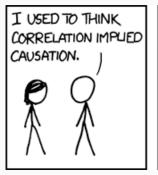
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Let's think of the example: office hours -> grade in the class

What are some potential confounders here?

Is this class causing better outcomes?







Concluding our section on causality

Main takeaways:

- The FPCI makes things difficult; adjust confidence accordingly!
- A lot of observed correlations are non-causal
- Randomization "solves" the selection problem and makes inferring causality much easier
- But not always possible! So look for randomness inherent to the world

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