

CSSS/SOC/STAT 321

Case-Based Statistics I

Relationships in Data: A first pass

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Assessing relationships between variables

Last week, we focused on variation within variables

But most of statistics is concerned with relationships between variables

Most important question: Does variation in X cause variation in Y ?

Hard question we won't tackle today

Instead, when X varies, do we consistently see similar variation in Y ?

That is, are X and Y correlated?

The right tool for the job

This week, we introduce basic tools for understanding correlation

The right tool for our data depends on the order of measurement of the “dependent variable” and the covariate

(Note: “dependent variable”, “response variable”, and “outcome variable” are synonyms)

If outcome is continuous and the covariate is discrete, consider box plots

If both are continuous, consider scatterplots

If both are discrete, consider a contingency table (“cross-tabulation”)

Comparing two samples with box plots

Example: GDP and partisan government

Exploring continuous relationships with scatterplots

*Examples: Height and Weight of 20-year old males;
Challenger Launch Decision*

Best fit lines for scatterplots

Example: Cross-national fertility

Relationships between ordered variables in tables

Example: Voting and Education

Naïve use of these methods may produce misleading results

Three most important reasons:

Confounders If we think X causes Y , but we have left out the *real* causal variable Z , we could be misled by this confounding factor.

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Confounders If we think X causes Y , but we have left out the *real* causal variable Z , we could be misled by this confounding factor.

Sampling Error Small samples may create a misleading impression of the relation between X and Y

Correlation does not always imply causation If X and Y are correlated, either X may cause Y , or Y may cause X , or both, or *neither*

Example 1: US Economic growth

Let's investigate an old question in political economy:

Are there partisan cycles, or tendencies, in economic performance?

Does one party tend to produce higher growth on average?

(Theory: Left cares more about growth vis-à-vis inflation than the Right

If there is partisan control of the economy,
then Left should have higher growth all else equal)

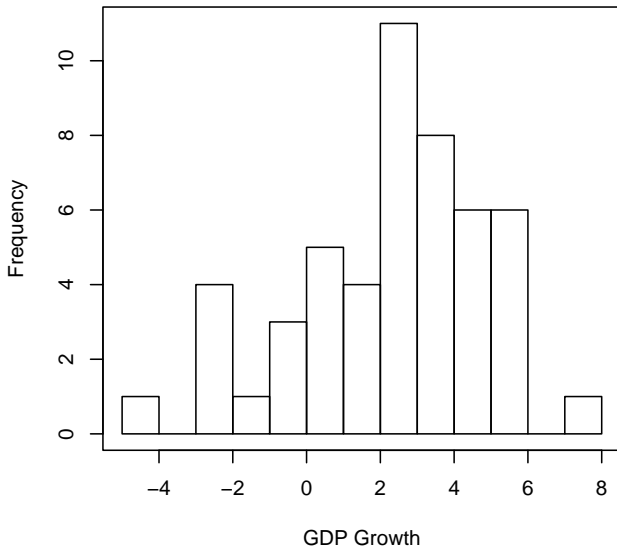
Data from the Penn World Tables (Annual growth rate of GDP in percent)

Two variables:

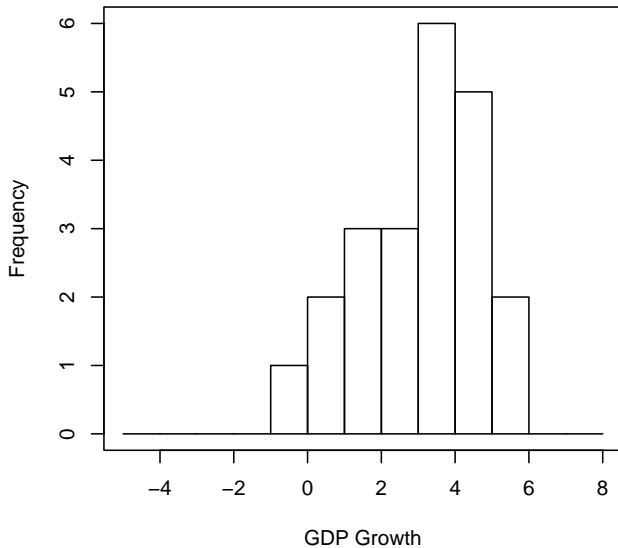
GDP Growth The per capita GDP growth rate

Party The party of the president (Democrat or Republican)

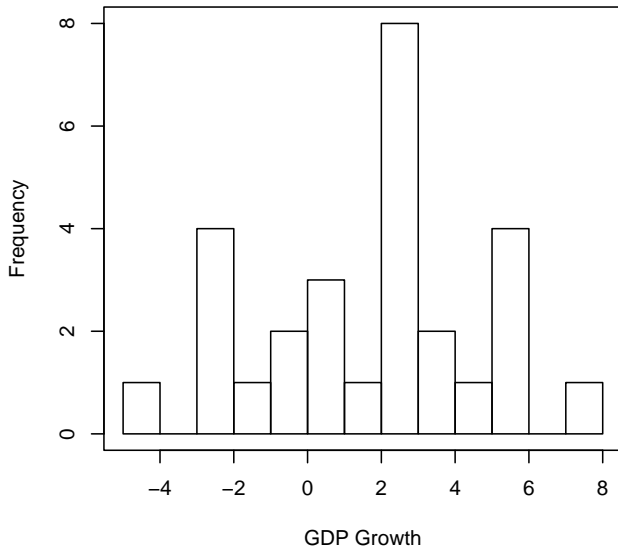
Histogram of US GDP Growth, 1951--2000



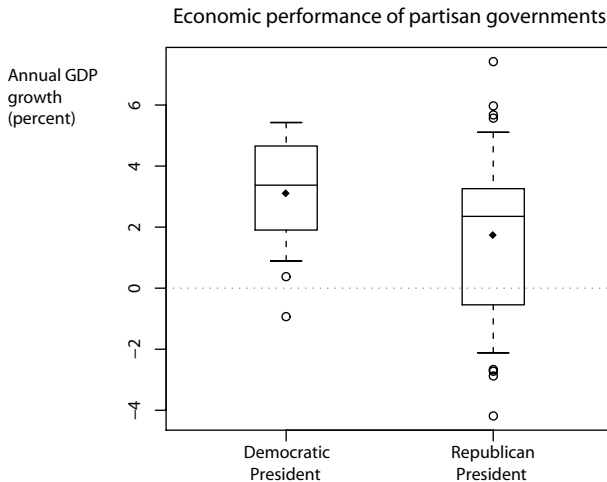
GDP Growth under Democratic Presidents



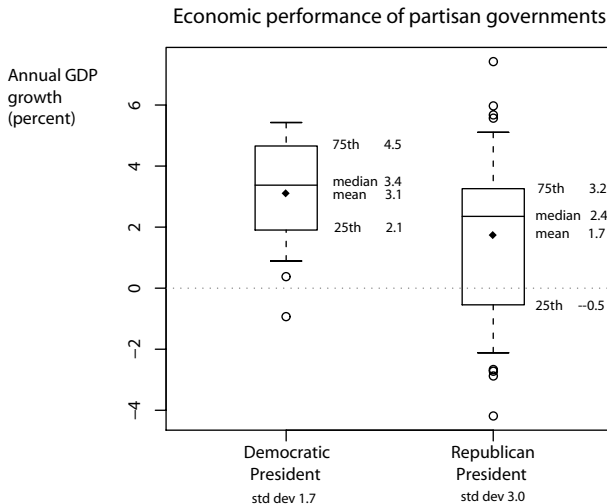
GDP Growth under Republican Presidents



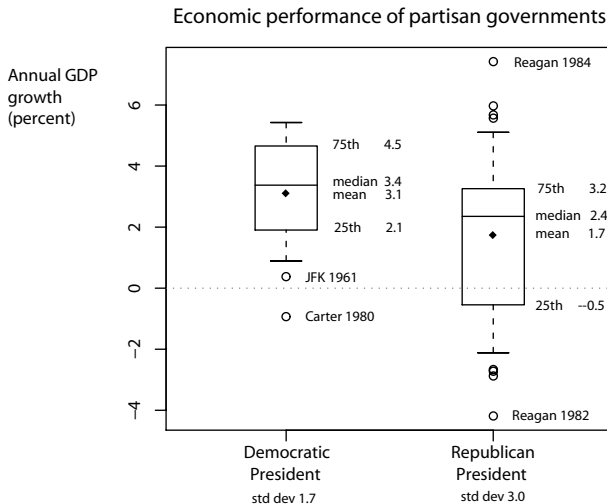
Box plots: Annual US GDP growth, 1951–2000



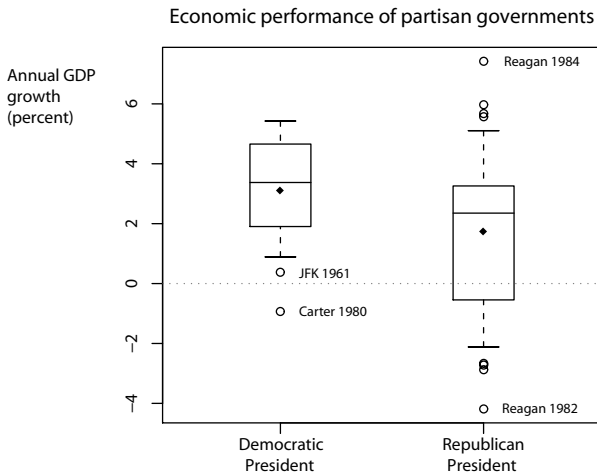
Box plots: Annual US GDP growth, 1951–2000



Box plots: Annual US GDP growth, 1951–2000



Box plots: Annual US GDP growth, 1951–2000



Are you persuaded by this analysis? How might it have gone wrong?

GDP and Partisan Government

Are you persuaded by this analysis? How might it have gone wrong?

Confounders What if other factors, omitted from the analysis, really drive growth? (Partisan control of Congress, or international economic conditions, or the past party in power)

Sample Error What if we just don't have enough data to determine the relationship?

Causation Could we have the direction of the causal arrow wrong? What if voters prefer Democrats when the economy is strong, and Republicans when it is weak?

We haven't introduced the tools to solve these problems yet – we need to learn some probability first

Stochastic and deterministic relationships

Some relationships are **deterministic**

They always work, without any error, noise, or surprises

- 1 $2 + 2 = 4$, always. Mathematical laws are deterministic
- 2 The fruit of a peach tree is always a peach, not an orange.

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(But maybe a mutant peach tree could make something new?)
- 3 Opening the refrigerator turns on a light.

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- 3 Opening the refrigerator turns on a light.
(But what if the light burns out?)

A **stochastic** process contains at least *some* natural random error, perhaps in addition to a pattern

Real world relationships are almost always stochastic

Correlation and covariance

We often want to summarize the amount of signal vs. noise in a real world relationship.

One way to do that is with a correlation coefficient.

Correlation between two random variables

We often want to summarize the amount of signal vs. noise in a real world relationship.

One way to do that is with a correlation coefficient.

We will work up to correlation coefficients by first exploring:

- Scatterplots
- Standardization

Height and weight example

Summary Statistics

	Height in feet	Weight in pounds
Mean	5.89	177.3
Standard deviation	0.25	28.5

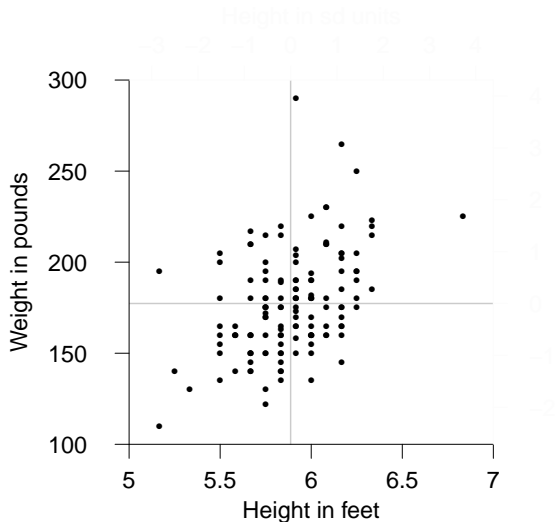
The CDC provides data from 2010 on the height (in feet) and weight (in pounds) for 21-year-old males

We have 137 cases in our sample

Question: to what extent do greater height & weight go together?

Best way to start exploring a relationship is graphically

Height and Weight: Scatterplot

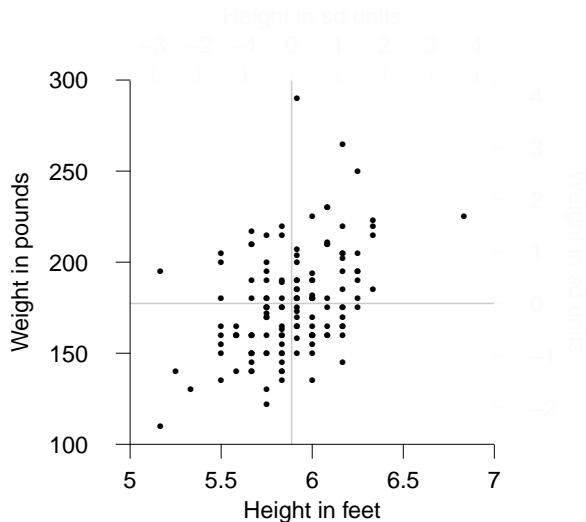


Gray lines mark
the means of
each variable

Mean height is
 $\bar{x} = 5.89$ feet

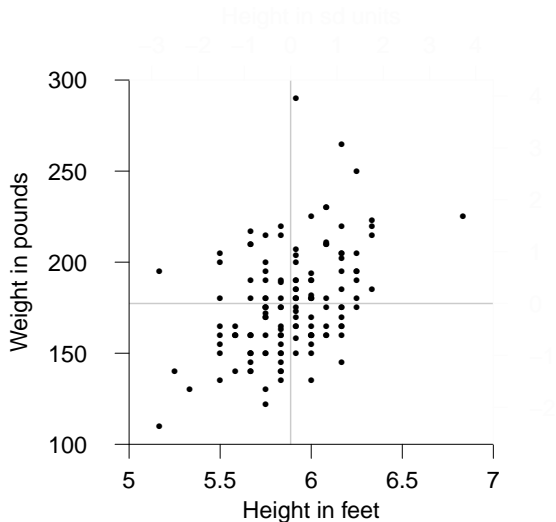
Mean weight is
 $\bar{y} = 177.3$ pounds

Height and Weight: Scatterplot



Is there a relationship between height and weight?

Height and Weight: Scatterplot



Is there a relationship between height and weight?

Height and weight appear moderately *positively* correlated

More of one usually means more of the other (but not always)

Scatterplots

Most powerful tool for bivariate data analysis

Need additive level variables though!

No matter what advanced methods we learn,
scatterplots will *always* be useful

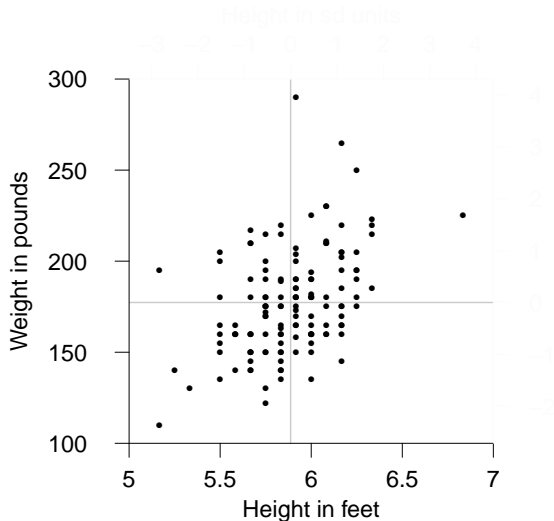
Standardization

The relation between height and weight would be easier to understand if height and weight were in the same units

But that seems impossible! How do you convert “pounds” and “feet” to a common unit?

Not impossible. The first step is to mean-center the variables

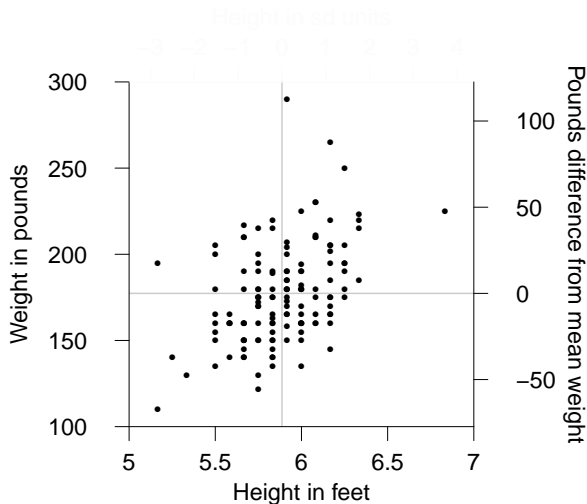
Height and Weight: Standardization



Let's mean-center weight

This means we need to “remove” the average weight from each observation

Height and Weight: Standardization



The right axis shows the *deviation* of each individual from the mean weight

$$y_i - \bar{y}$$

This doesn't change the data: we've just translated to a new unit

Standardization

It would be easier to understand the relationship between height and weight if height and weight were in the same units

How can this be done?

First step: Mean-centering

$$y_i - \bar{y}$$

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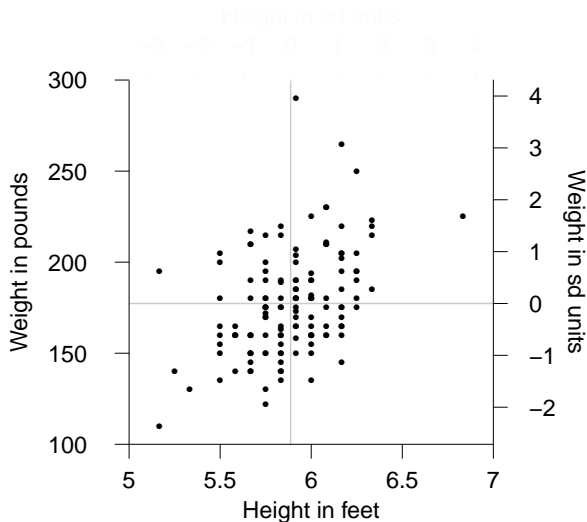
$$y_i - \bar{y}$$

Second step: Convert to standard deviation units

$$\frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$$

We can use this procedure to convert any continuous variable to a standardized unit

Height and Weight: Standardization

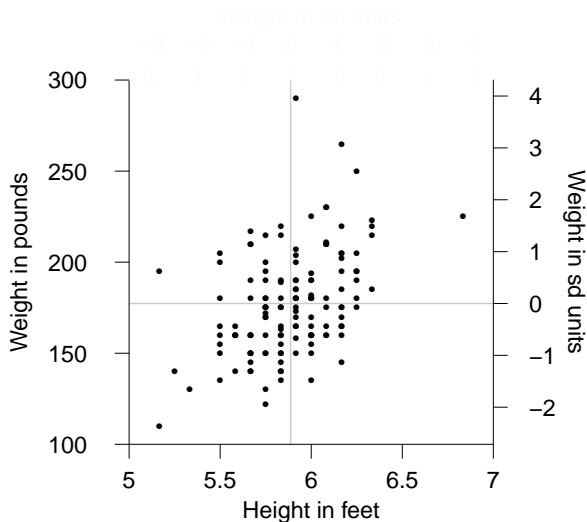


The right axis shows weight in *standard deviation units*

$$\frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$$

This still doesn't change the data: again, we've just translated to a new unit

Height and Weight: Standardization

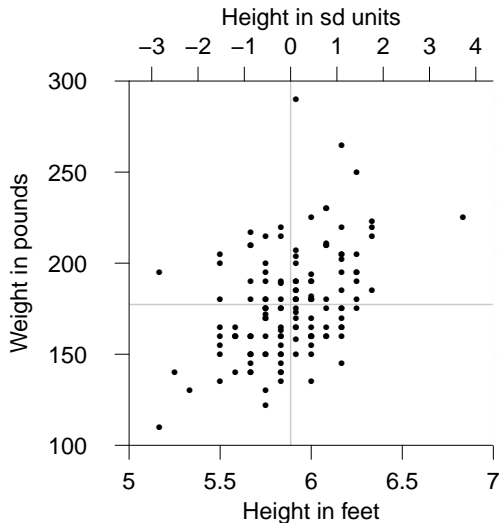


The right axis shows weight in *standard deviation units*

What does that mean?

One unit is now the average gap between a randomly drawn individual and the mean

Height and Weight: Standardization

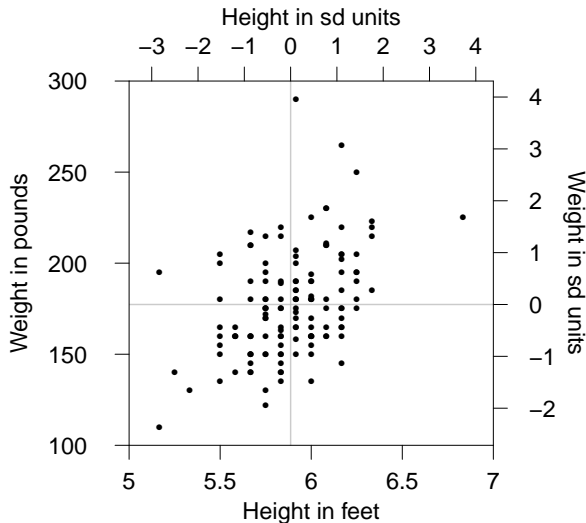


One unit is now the average gap between a randomly drawn individual and the mean

We could convert *anything* to standard deviation units

The top axis shows height in *standard deviation units*

Height and Weight: Standardization

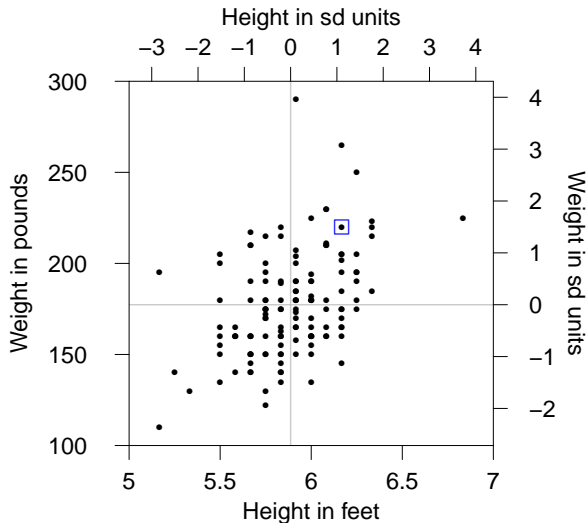


Standardization hasn't changed the pattern in the data at all

We've just relabeled units

Why did we do this? To help calculate the amount of correlation between height and weight

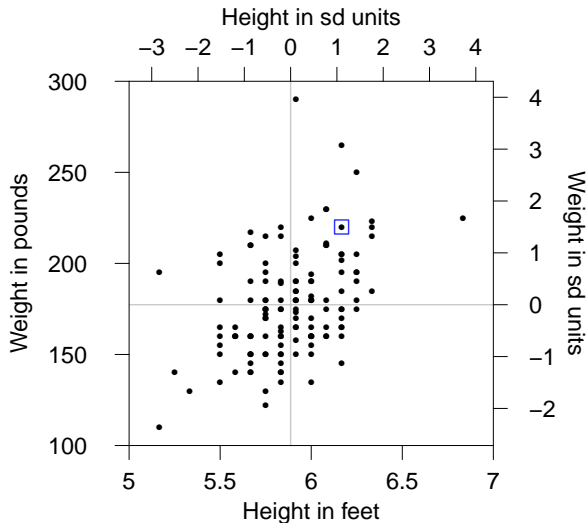
Height and Weight: Standardization



Standardized
weight for **blue** obs:

$$y_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$$

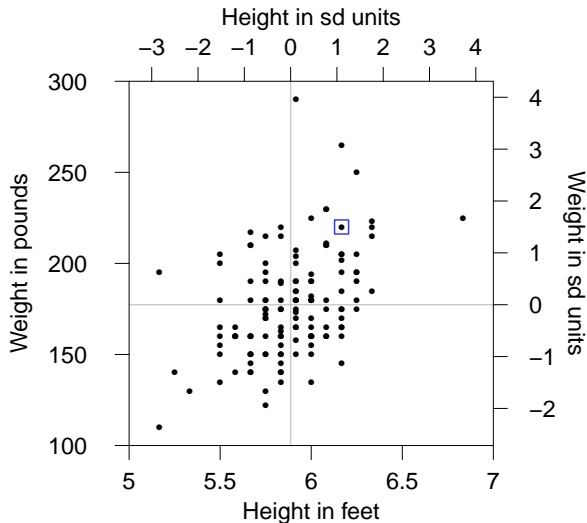
Height and Weight: Standardization



Standardized
weight for **blue** obs:

$$\begin{aligned} y_i^{\text{std}} &= \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y} \\ + 1.5 &= \frac{220 - 177.3}{28.5} \end{aligned}$$

Height and Weight: Standardization



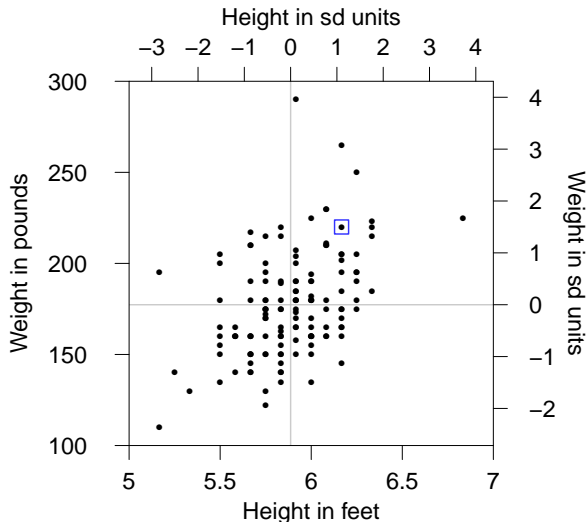
Standardized weight for **blue** obs:

$$y_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$$
$$+ 1.5 = \frac{220 - 177.3}{28.5}$$

Standardized height for the **blue** obs:

$$x_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}$$

Height and Weight: Standardization



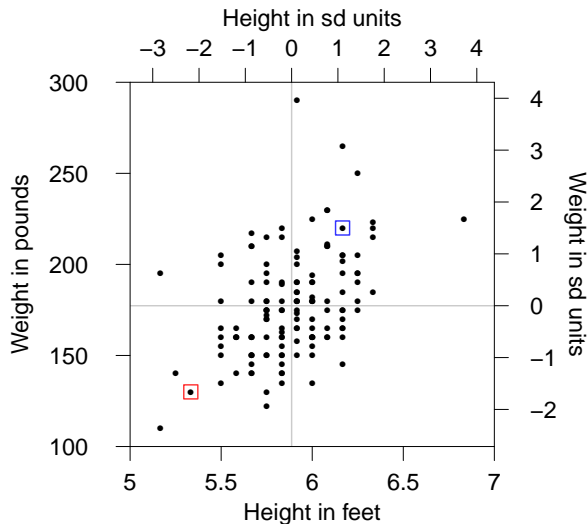
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$$y_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$$
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Standardized height for the **blue** obs:

$$x_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}$$
$$+ 1.1 = \frac{6.17 - 5.89}{0.25}$$

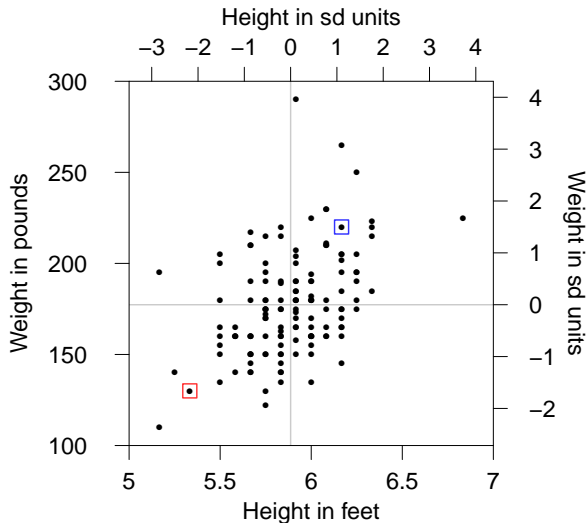
Height and Weight: Standardization



Standardized
weight for **red** obs:

$$y_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$$

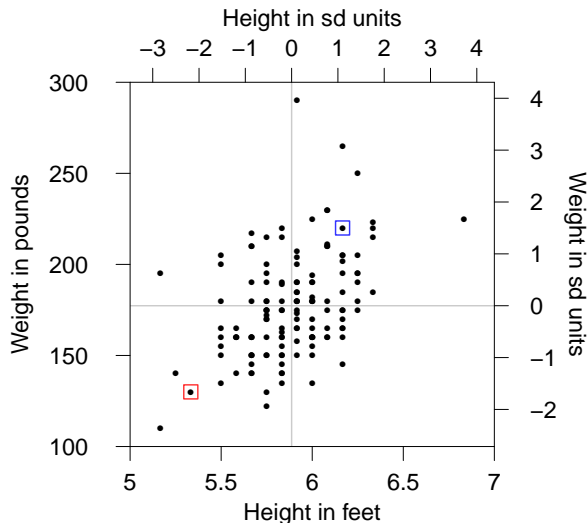
Height and Weight: Standardization



Standardized
weight for **red** obs:

$$y_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$$
$$-1.7 = \frac{130 - 177.3}{28.5}$$

Height and Weight: Standardization



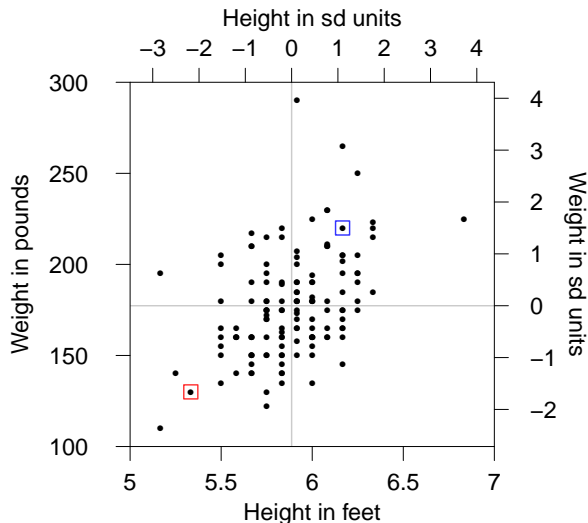
Standardized
weight for **red** obs:

$$y_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$$
$$-1.7 = \frac{130 - 177.3}{28.5}$$

Standardized
height for the **red**
obs:

$$x_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}$$

Height and Weight: Standardization



Standardized weight for **red** obs:

$$y_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y}$$
$$-1.7 = \frac{130 - 177.3}{28.5}$$

Standardized height for the **red** obs:

$$x_i^{\text{std}} = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x}$$
$$-2.2 = \frac{5.33 - 5.89}{0.25}$$

Correlation coefficient

The *correlation coefficient* between two variables measures the strength of association between them on a $[-1, 1]$ scale

For a population, the correlation of X and Y is:

$$\text{corr}(X, Y) = \rho_{X,Y} = \frac{E((X - E(X))(Y - E(Y)))}{\sqrt{\text{var}(X)}\sqrt{\text{var}(Y)}}$$

Note: the numerator of the above is also known as the *covariance*, or $\sigma_{X,Y}$, so the population correlation $\rho_{X,Y}$ can also be stated as:

$$\rho_{X,Y} = \frac{\sigma_{X,Y}}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

Correlation coefficient

To estimate the correlation of two variables from a sample, we can average the products of their standardized values:

$$r_{X,Y} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^{\text{std}} x_i^{\text{std}}$$

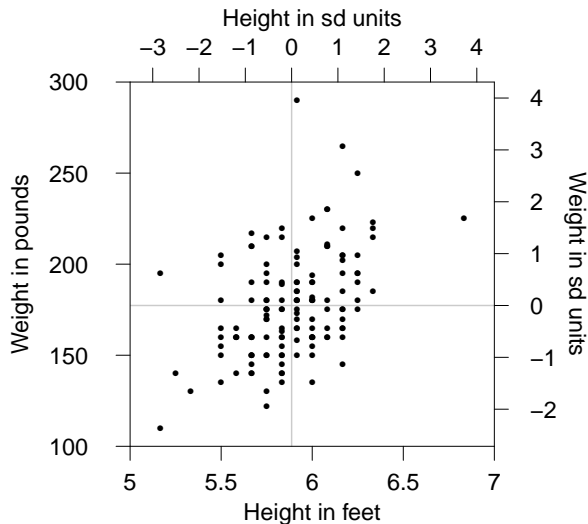
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$$r_{X,Y} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^{\text{std}} x_i^{\text{std}}$$
$$r_{X,Y} = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{y_i - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y} \right) \left(\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma_x} \right)$$

When two variables are closely related, their standardized values are similar, and their sample correlation is greater

Height and Weight: Correlation

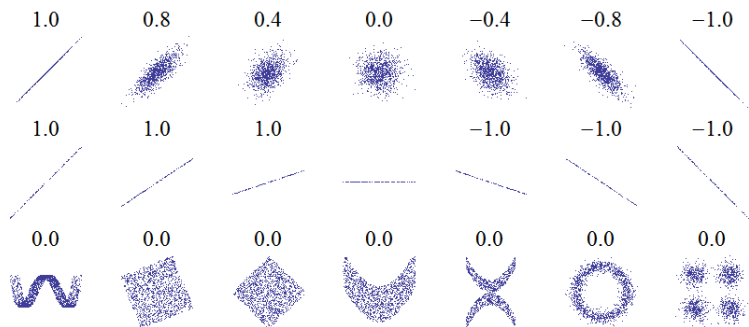


The correlation coefficient for height and weight is

$$r = 0.43$$

Is this “big”?

Correlation examples

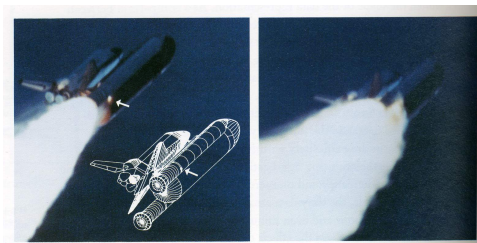


Correlation coefficients measure strength of association

When two variables X and Y are highly *correlated*:

- They have $|r_{X,Y}| \approx 1$
- If we know X ,
we can narrow the expected range of Y down to a small interval
- If we know Y ,
we can narrow the expected range of X down to a small interval

The *Challenger* launch decision



In 1986, the Challenger space shuttle exploded moments after liftoff

Decision to launch one of the most scrutinized in history

Failure of O-rings in the solid-fuel rocket boosters blamed for explosion

Could this failure have been foreseen? Using statistics?

The *Challenger* launch decision

Here is the data on O-ring failures at different launch temperatures

Flights with O-ring damage	
Flt Number	Temp (F)
2	70
41b	57
41c	63
41d	70
51c	53
61a	79
61c	58

Morton-Thiokol engineers made this table & worried about launching below 53 degrees (Why?)

O-ring would erode or have “blow-by” (2 ways to fail) in cold temp

The *Challenger* launch decision

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Failed to convince administrators there was a danger

(Counter-argument: “damages at low and high temps”)

The *Challenger* launch decision

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Are there problems with this presentation? with the use of data?

The *Challenger* launch decision

Engineers did not consider successes, only failures;
“selection on the dependent variable” (selection bias)

All flights, chronological order			
Damage?	Temp (F)	Damage?	Temp (F)
No	66	No	78
Yes	70	No	67
No	69	Yes	53
No	68	No	67
No	67	No	75
No	72	No	70
No	73	No	81
No	70	No	76
Yes	57	Yes	79
Yes	63	No	76
Yes	70	Yes	58

Other problems?

The *Challenger* launch decision

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No	72	No	70
No	73	No	81
No	70	No	76
Yes	57	Yes	79
Yes	63	No	76
Yes	70	Yes	58

Other problems? Why sort by launch number?

The *Challenger* launch decision

O-ring damage pre-Challenger, by temperature at launch			
Damage?	Temp (F)	Damage?	Temp (F)
Yes	53	Yes	70
Yes	57	0	70
Yes	58	0	70
Yes	63	0	72
No	66	No	73
No	67	No	75
No	67	No	76
No	67	No	76
No	68	No	78
No	69	Yes	79
Yes	70	0	81

The evidence begins to speak for itself.

What if Morton-Thiokol engineers had made this table before the launch?

The *Challenger* launch decision

Why didn't NASA make the right decision?

Many answers in the literature:
bureaucratic politics; group think; bounded rationality, etc.

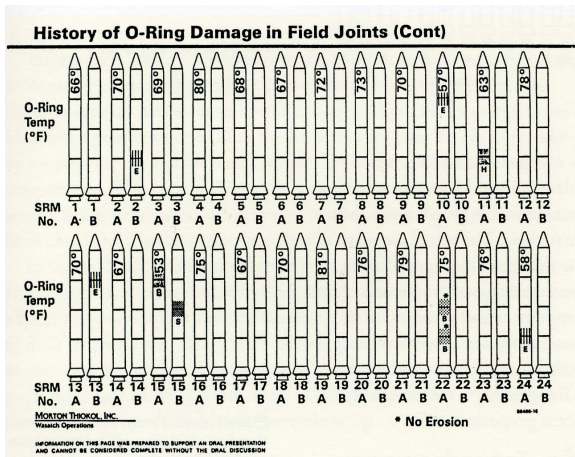
But Edward Tufte thinks it may have been a matter of presentation & modeling:

- Never made the right tables or graphics
- Selected only failure data
- Never considered a even simple statistical model

What do you think? How would you approach the data?

The Challenger launch decision

This is what Morton-Thiokol came up with to present after the disaster:



Scatterplots

Most powerful tool for bivariate data analysis

Will show full pattern of conditional expectation, including nonlinearity & outliers

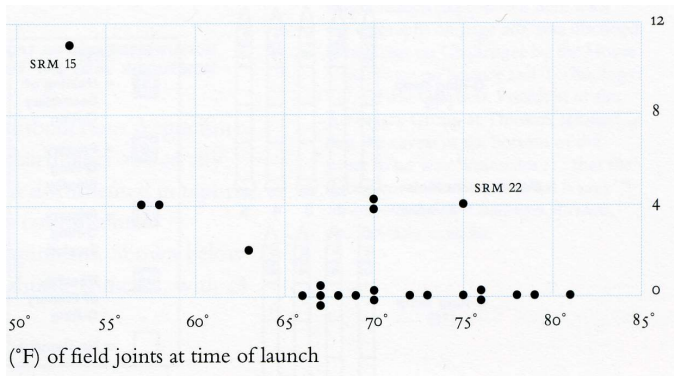
Need additive level variables though!

No matter what advanced methods we learn, scatterplots will *always* be useful

The *Challenger* launch decision

How about a scatterplot for shuttle data? Need an additive measure of O-ring damage (Tufte's index)

Vertical axis is an O-ring damage index (due to Tufte, who made the plot)



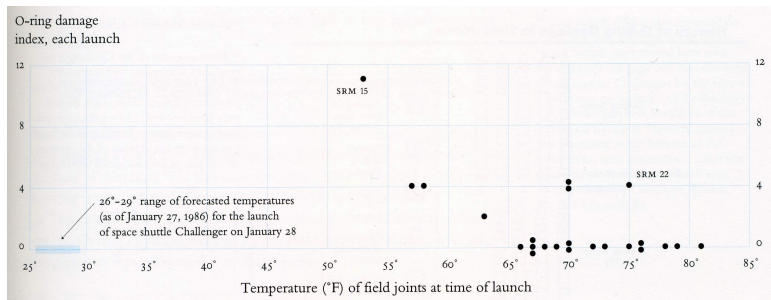
The correlation between the damage index and the temperature is -0.64
(What does this mean?)

The *Challenger* launch decision

What was the forecast temperature for launch?

The *Challenger* launch decision

What was the forecast temperature for launch? 26 to 29 degrees Fahrenheit!



The shuttle was launched in unprecedented cold

The *Challenger* launch decision

Imagine you are the analyst making the launch recommendation.

You've made the scatterplot above. What would you add to it?

Put another way, what do you is the first question you expect from your boss?

The *Challenger* launch decision

Imagine you are the analyst making the launch recommendation.

You've made the scatterplot above. What would you add to it?

Put another way, what do you is the first question you expect from your boss?

“What's the chance of failure at 26 degrees?”

The scatterplot suggests the answer is “high”, but that's vague.

But what if the next launch is at 58 degrees? Or 67 degrees?

Clearly, we want a more precise way to state the probability of failure

Another reason we need to learn probability theory. . .

The Line of Best Fit

In the next example, we refine our scatterplots by adding a line of best fit

This line is produced by a technique called *linear regression*

Major focus of the last two+ weeks of 321

Key for today: understanding what a *regression coefficient* is, and how it differs from a correlation coefficient

Cross-national fertility Example

We have cross-national data from several sources:

Fertility The average number of children born per adult female, in 2000 (United Nations)

Education Ratio The ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education, in 2000 (World Bank Development Indicators)

GDP per capita Economic activity in thousands of dollars, purchasing power parity in 2000 (Penn World Tables)

What are the levels of measurement of these variables?

Our question: how are these variables related to each other?

Example: Fertility, Female Education, and Development

Specifically, we ask:

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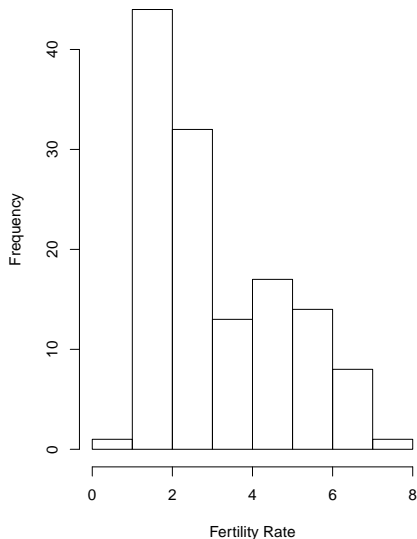
- If the level of female education changed by a certain amount, how much would we expect Fertility to change?

Example: Fertility, Female Education, and Development

Specifically, we ask:

- If the level of female education changed by a certain amount, how much would we expect Fertility to change?
- If the level of GDP per capita changed by a certain amount, how much would we expect Fertility to change?

Summary of Univariate Distribution: Fertility

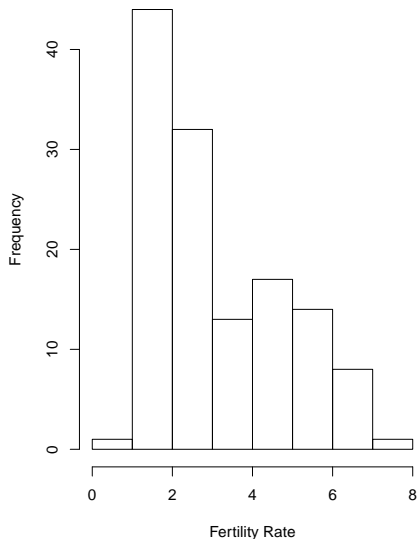


Median = 2.60

Mean = 3.12 children

std dev = 1.67 children

Summary of Univariate Distribution: Fertility



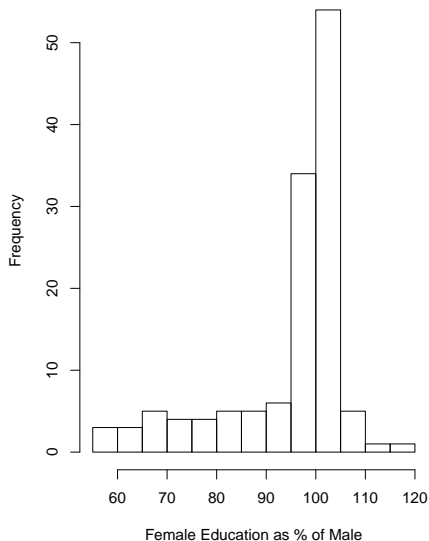
Median = 2.60

Mean = 3.12 children

std dev = 1.67 children

How would you
describe this
distribution?

Summary of Univariate Distribution: Education Ratio

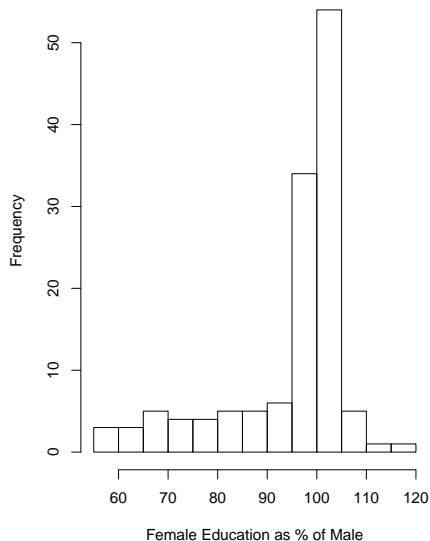


Median = 99.60%

Mean = 94.48%

std. dev. = 12.45%

Summary of Univariate Distribution: Education Ratio



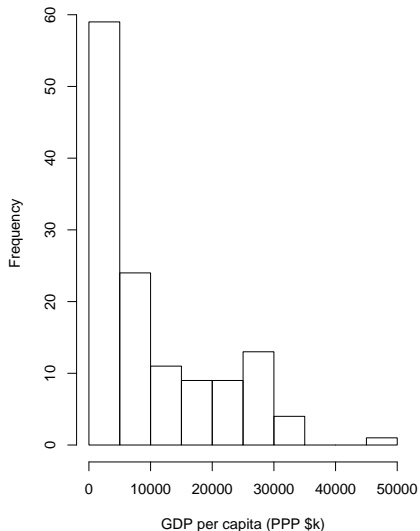
Median = 99.60%

Mean = 94.48%

std. dev. = 12.45%

How would you describe this distribution?

Summary of Univariate Distribution: GDP per capita

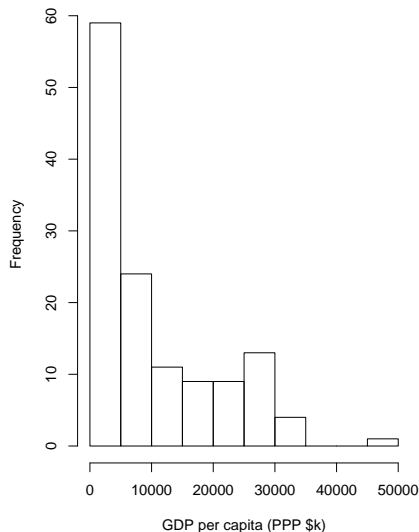


Median = \$6047

Mean = \$10,200

std. dev. = \$10,078

Summary of Univariate Distribution: GDP per capita

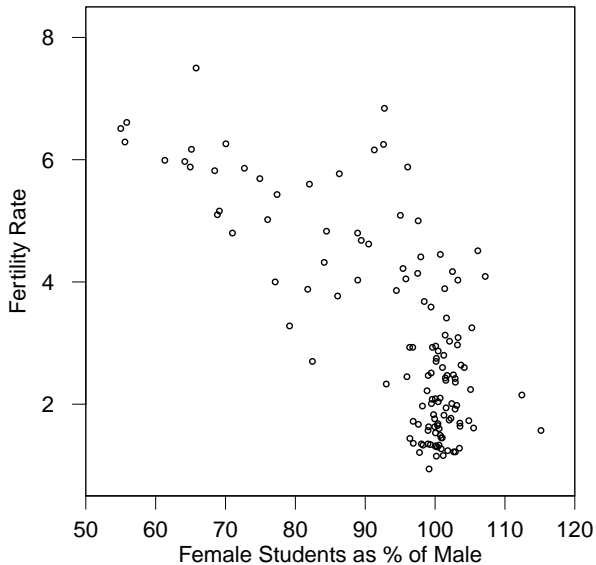


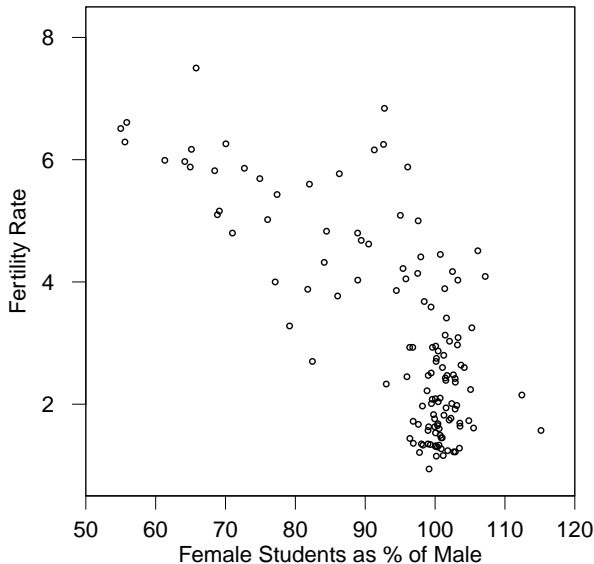
Median = \$6047

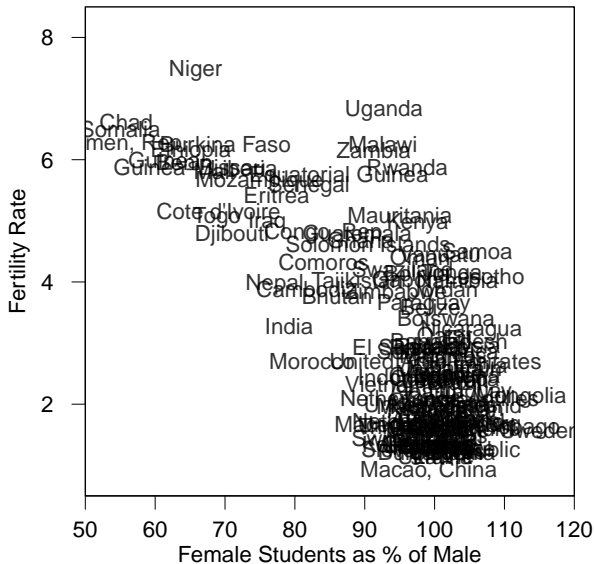
Mean = \$10,200

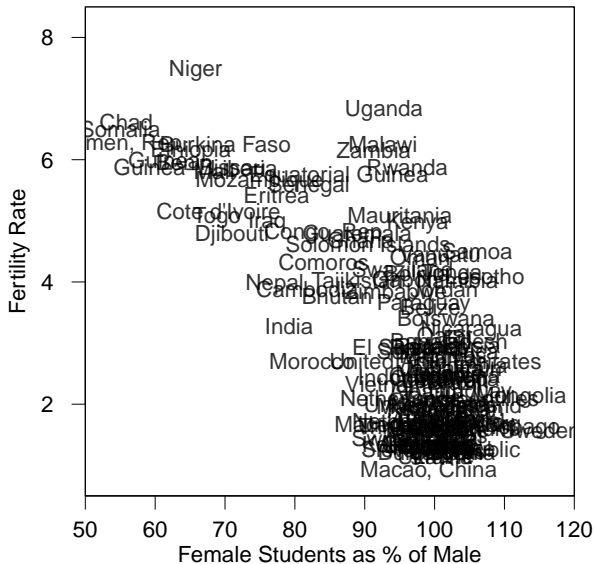
std. dev. = \$10,078

How would you
describe this
distribution?



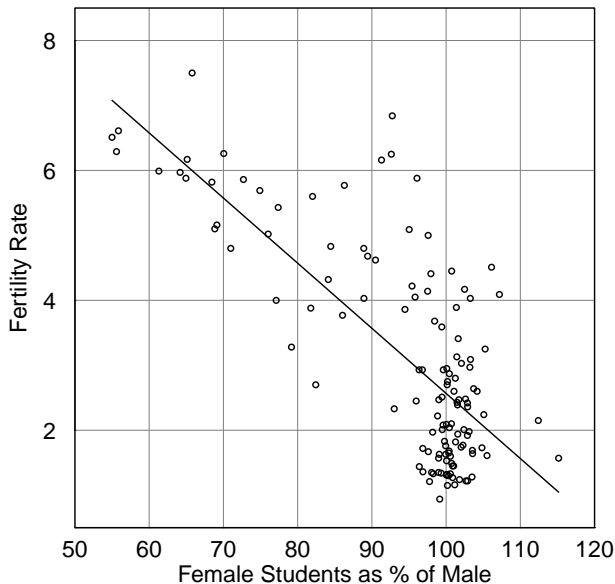




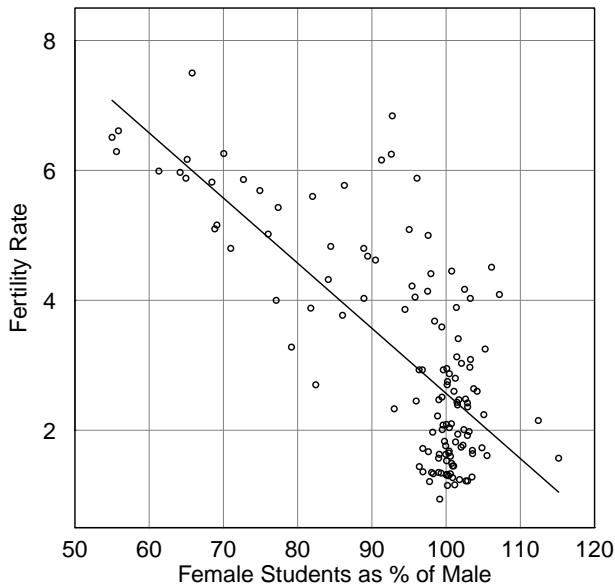


Labelling
cases
sometimes
helps,
especially
for
identifying
outliers

What
makes a
point an
outlier?



The best fit line is the line that passes closest to the majority of the points



The best fit line is the line that passes closest to the majority of the points

If we take this line to be our model of Fertility, how do we interpret it?

Best fit lines

From high school math, a line on a plane follows this equation:

$$y = b + mx$$

where:

- y is the dependent variable,
- x is the independent variable,
- m is the slope of the line,
or the change in y for a 1 unit change in x ,
- and b is the intercept,
or value of y when $x = 0$

Best fit lines

Customarily, in statistics, we write the equation of a line as:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$$

where:

- y_i is the dependent variable
- x is the independent variable,
- β_1 is a regression coefficient. It conveys the slope of the line, or the change in y for a 1 unit change in x ,
- and β_0 is the intercept, or value of y when $x = 0$

Best fit for fertility against education ratio

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\text{Fertility}} &= \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{EduRatio} \\ \widehat{\text{Fertility}} &= 12.59 - 0.10 \times \text{EduRatio}\end{aligned}$$

The above equation is the best fit line given by *linear regression*

The $\hat{\beta}$'s are the estimated linear regression *coefficients*

$\widehat{\text{Fertility}}$ is the *fitted value*, or model prediction, of the level of Fertility given the EduRatio

Intpreting regression coefficients

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{EduRatio}$$

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = 12.59 - 0.10 \times \text{EduRatio}$$

Interpreting $\hat{\beta}_1 = -0.10$:

Increasing EduRatio by 1 unit lowers Fertility by 0.10 units.

Because EduRatio is measured in percentage points, this means a 10% increase in female education (relative to males) will lower the number of children a woman has over her lifetime by 1 on average.

Intpreting regression intercepts

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{EduRatio}$$

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = 12.59 - 0.10 \times \text{EduRatio}$$

Interpreting $\hat{\beta}_0 = 12.59$:

If EduRatio is 0, Fertility will be 12.59.

If there are no girls in primary or secondary education, then women are expected to have 12.59 children on average over their lifetimes.

Can we trust this prediction?

Intrepreting regression intercepts

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{EduRatio}$$

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = 12.59 - 0.10 \times \text{EduRatio}$$

Interpreting $\hat{\beta}_0 = 12.59$:

If EduRatio is 0, Fertility will be 12.59.

If there are no girls in primary or secondary education, then women are expected to have 12.59 children on average over their lifetimes.

Can we trust this prediction? No.

No country has 0 female education, so this is an *extrapolation* from the model.

Using regression coefficients to predict specific cases

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{EduRatio}$$

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = 12.59 - 0.10 \times \text{EduRatio}$$

How many children do we expect women to have if girls get half the education boys do?

If EduRatio is 50, Fertility will be $12.59 - 0.10 \times 50 = 7.59$.

How many children do we expect women to have if girls get the same education boys do?

If EduRatio is 100, Fertility will be $12.59 - 0.10 \times 100 = 2.59$.

Using regression coefficients to predict specific cases

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = \hat{\beta}_0 + \hat{\beta}_1 \text{EduRatio}$$

$$\widehat{\text{Fertility}} = 12.59 - 0.10 \times \text{EduRatio}$$

If EduRatio is 100, Fertility will be $12.59 - 0.10 \times 100 = 2.59$.

Does this hold exactly for any country with education parity?

Using regression coefficients to predict specific cases

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If EduRatio is 100, Fertility will be $12.59 - 0.10 \times 100 = 2.59$.

Does this hold exactly for any country with education parity?

No. It holds on average. In any specific case i , there is some error between the expected and actual levels of Fertility

What's the difference between correlation coefficients and regression coefficients

The correlation coefficient (r) measures the strength of relationship between X and Y

Works in both directions

$[-1, 1]$ scale (standardized)

The regression coefficient (β) measures the substance of the relationship

Tells us how much Y increases for a one-unit increase in X

Intepretable in one direction, and can take on any real value

Contrasting r and β

Low r between Fertility and Education Ratio, for example, would tell us that many other random factors besides female education intervene in causing Fertility in a particular case

High r would tell us that few stochastic factors intervene in any particular case. (In this case, $r = -0.75$, which is “high” in absolute value)

Low β would tell us that it takes a lot of female education to lower Fertility, on average

High β would tell us that a little bit of female education lowers Fertility a lot, on average

Tabular presentations of covariation

Scatterplots are great for showing the relationship between continuous variables

But potentially misleading if variables are discrete

What if we can only order the categories of variables, but lack additive scales?

What if we don't even know the order?

A table of one variable against another will help investigate even unordered variables

Example: Education & Partisan Identification

We have two variables from the General Social Survey:

Education Highest degree attained: No degree, High School diploma, Associates Degree, Bachelors Degree, Graduate Degree

Party Identification Strong Democrat, Democrat, Leans Democratic, Independent, Leans Republican, Republican, Strong Republican, Other

We take these data from the 1990 and 2006 samples of the GSS

What is the level of measurement of these variables?

How can we ascertain the relationship between them?

Monotonicity

Monotonic relationships are those which either consistently move in the same direction, or at least “stay still”:

- If adding years of education always increases the *expected* probability one is Republican, or at least never lowers it, then Republican ID is *monotonically increasing* in Education
- If adding years of education always decreases the *expected* probability one is Republican, or at least never raises it, then Republican ID is *monotonically decreasing* in Education
- If adding years of education at first raises the expected probability of Republican ID, but then lowers it (or vice versa), the relationship is *non-monotonic*

Constructing a contingency table

The simplest way to explore the relationship between two discrete variables is a *contingency table*:

- 1 We consider every possible combination of education and party ID
- 2 Total up all subjects with that combination
- 3 Enter the sum in a *cross-tabulation*, with one variable's categories as the columns, and the other variable's categories as the rows
- 4 Customarily, the “dependent variable” (to the extent we believe one variable depends on the other) is the row variable

2006 General Social Survey: Partisanship & Education

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Str. Dem.	97	347	54	110	91	699
	Dem.	115	384	52	116	69	736
	Lean Dem.	67	265	50	87	58	527
	Indep.	263	503	86	92	53	997
	Lean Rep.	39	168	28	60	32	327
	Rep.	56	307	64	158	52	637
	Str. Rep.	40	256	37	118	44	495
	Other	9	32	3	18	3	65
Sum		686	2262	374	759	402	4483

The above is a *contingency table* or *cross-tabulation*.

Powerful way to get the data. Can be tweaked to be more informative.

2006 GSS: Collapse partisans, treat leaners as independent

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	212	731	106	226	160	1435
	Independent	369	936	164	239	143	1851
	Republican	96	563	101	276	96	1132
	Other	9	32	3	18	3	65
Sum		686	2262	374	759	402	4483

The first thing we will do is collapse some similar categories

Create **Democrat** out of the old “Strong Democrat” and “Democrat”

Create **Indepedent** out of the old “Leans Democratic”, “Independent”, and “Leans Republican”

Create **Republican** out of the old “Strong Republican” and “Republican”

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Consolidation of categories reduces noise in each cell, but at a price: we've lost some of the fine-grained nature of our data

Introduces a trade-off between borrowing strength by pooling cells and informative measurement

Tabular methods pose this dilemma when applied to detailed ordered variables

2006 GSS: Collapse partisans, treat leaners as independent

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Collapsing Party ID has simplified our table, but it's still hard to see the relationship between the variables

What could we do?

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Collapsing Party ID has simplified our table, but it's still hard to see the relationship between the variables

What could we do? Perhaps percentages would be easier?

Let's divide by $N = 4483$, the total number of observations

2006 GSS: Percent of N

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	4.7%	16.3%	2.4%	5.0%	3.6%	32.0%
	Independent	8.2	20.9	3.7	5.3	3.2	41.3
	Republican	2.1	12.6	2.3	6.2	2.1	25.3
	Other	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.1	1.4
Sum		15.3	50.5	8.3	16.9	9.0	100.0

Does this help?

2006 GSS: Percent of N

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	4.7%	16.3%	2.4%	5.0%	3.6%	32.0%
	Independent	8.2	20.9	3.7	5.3	3.2	41.3
	Republican	2.1	12.6	2.3	6.2	2.1	25.3
	Other	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.1	1.4
Sum		15.3	50.5	8.3	16.9	9.0	100.0

Does this help?

Not really. It's still hard to see the effects of each variable *separately*

We see that the combination of Democrat and High School is common, and Republican and College is rare, but does that mean there is an association?

That is, does being College educated make one less likely to be Republican? Or is it just that there are more High School grads than College grads?

2006 GSS: Percent of N

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	4.7%	16.3%	2.4%	5.0%	3.6%	32.0%
	Independent	8.2	20.9	3.7	5.3	3.2	41.3
	Republican	2.1	12.6	2.3	6.2	2.1	25.3
	Other	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.1	1.4
Sum		15.3	50.5	8.3	16.9	9.0	100.0

What can we do to zero in on the likelihood that one is Republican given that one has a College Degree?

That is, how do we estimate the conditional probability $\Pr(\text{Republican}|\text{College})$?

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How about the percentage of College grads that vote Republican in the sample?

2006 GSS: Column percentages

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	30.9%	32.3%	28.3%	29.8%	39.8%	32.0%
	Independent	53.8	41.4	43.9	31.5	35.6	41.3
	Republican	14.0	24.9	27.0	36.4	23.9	25.3
	Other	1.3	1.4	0.8	2.4	0.7	1.4
Sum		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

How about the percentage of College grads that vote Republican in the sample?

That is, what if we divide each *column* by its sum, to see how people with a given level of the column variable Education get distributed on the row variable, Partisan ID?

This is called showing “column percentages.”
Most useful presentation of a cross-tab

2006 GSS: Column percentages

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	30.9%	32.3%	28.3%	29.8%	39.8%	32.0%
	Independent	53.8	41.4	43.9	31.5	35.6	41.3
	Republican	14.0	24.9	27.0	36.4	23.9	25.3
	Other	1.3	1.4	0.8	2.4	0.7	1.4
Sum		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Notice that with column percentages, each column sums to 100%

The interesting comparisons appear when we look *across* each row

For each row, higher values show positive relationships between that column category and the current row.

Low values within the row show negative relationships between the column category and the current row.

2006 GSS: Column percentages

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	30.9%	32.3%	28.3%	29.8%	39.8%	32.0%
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	Other	1.3	1.4	0.8	2.4	0.7	1.4
Sum		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

In this example, $\Pr(\text{Democrat})$ is higher for those without high school diplomas or with graduate degrees, but lower for those with college degrees

Republicans do best among College degree holders, and worse at the ends of the Education spectrum

That is, support for either party seems to be a *non-monotonic* function of Education

2006 GSS: Column percentages

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	30.9%	32.3%	28.3%	29.8%	39.8%	32.0%
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	Other	1.3	1.4	0.8	2.4	0.7	1.4
Sum		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Notice that comparisons *across* rows in the column percentage cross-tab mean something different from comparisons across rows

For instance, Democrats do almost as well as Republicans in the strongest Republican category, College.

Why? College grads are more likely to be Republicans than any other education group. *But* more people on average are Dems, so even in this relatively weak category, Dems are fairly strong

2006 GSS: Column percentages

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	30.9%	32.3%	28.3%	29.8%	39.8%	32.0%
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	Other	1.3	1.4	0.8	2.4	0.7	1.4
Sum		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

What if you encounter a cross-tab “in the field”?

Check if it's in column percentages, then start looking for patterns in each row

Remember this mantra: **Sum Down, Compare Across**

2006 GSS: Row percentages

		Highest Degree Attained					Sum
		None	HS	Assoc	College	Grad	
Party ID	Democrat	14.8%	50.9%	7.4%	15.7%	11.1%	100.0%
	Independent	19.9	50.6	8.9	12.9	7.7	100.0
	Republican	8.5	49.7	8.9	24.4	8.5	100.0
	Other	13.8	49.2	4.6	27.7	4.6	100.0
	Sum	15.3	50.5	8.3	16.9	9.0	100.0

Why don't we use row percentages?

Because they show the conditioning of the columns on the rows, and we normally put the “dependent variable” in the rows

Visualizing Tabular Data

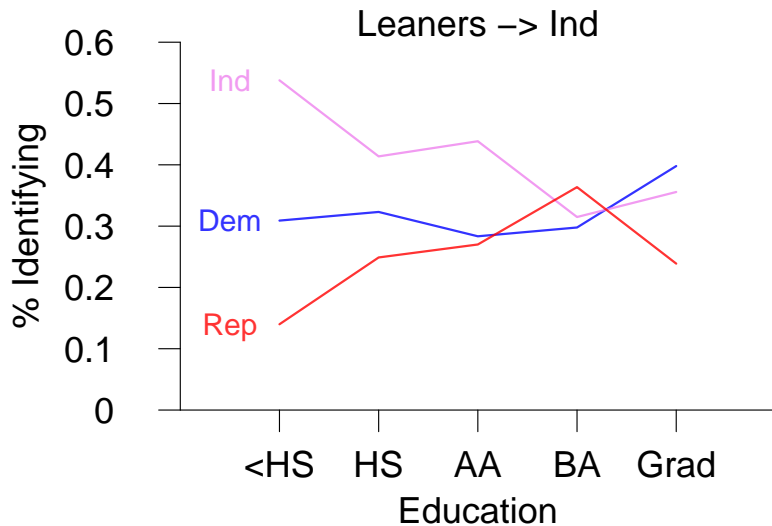
Just because our data come in a table doesn't mean we have to leave them there

A picture is often easier to sort out

But we need to plot the *right* numbers

What happens if we plot the *column percentages* from our tables?

The table as a graph



Exploring model sensitivity

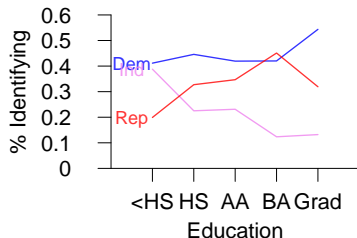
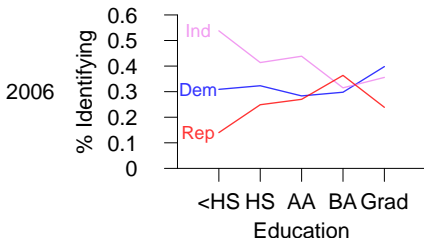
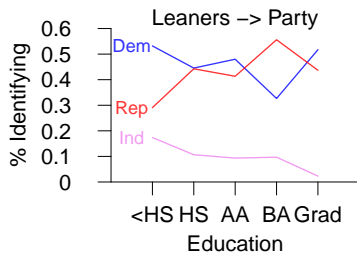
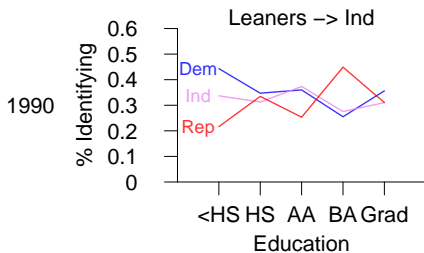
We made several assumptions in tabulating and analyzing our data

Categorizing Leaners We grouped leaners with other Independents. But many political scientists think they are actually intense partisans

Is 2006 special? We looked at just one year in American politics. Do our findings hold in other years? Is there interesting variation over time?

We could make more tables categorizing the leaners as partisans, or using data from, say 1990.

But who wants to pore over 4 cross-tabs?



Multidimensional Tables

If we want to consider possible confounders,
we need more than two dimensions to our table

That is, we need one dimension for every independent variable, plus one for
our dependent variable

This gets tricky fast: hard to visualize, or do our column percents trick

But important to consider: if we don't include confounders, we can make very
incorrect inferences about relationships

Discrimination?

Suppose the (fictional) University of Tlon is sued for discriminatory hiring

Both sides stipulate that

- the best candidate can be determined uniquely
- should always be hired
- is equally likely to be male or female

The case turns on whether the University hired male and female candidates at the same rate

Discrimination?

Here is the data for the university's “eclectic” departments

Hiring data for Tlon University's “eclectic” departments

Departments	Men		Women	
	Hired	Applied	Hired	Applied

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The plaintiffs point out that in each dept, a greater % of men were hired:

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Departments	Men		Women
Ancient Egyptian Algebra	25%	>	20%
Navajo Cryptography	80%	>	75%

Discrimination?

“But wait!” says the defense. “Look at the *totals*”

Departments	Men		Women	
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Departments	Men		Women
Ancient Egyptian Algebra	25%	>	20%
Navajo Cryptography	80%	>	75%
Both departments	46%	<	54%

What's going on here?

Simpson's Paradox

The Departments are different. Perhaps AEA has much less funding than NC, and can make fewer offers.

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When we look at the dept totals, we “control” for this difference in hiring difficulty

When we look at the grand total, we are omitting department-level variables

Simpson's Paradox

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