

**DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL SCIENCE
AND
INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS
Research Methods Posc 302**

RESEARCH DESIGN

- I. TODAY'S SESSION:
 - A. Three types of empirical research
 - 1. Sample surveys

- II. SUBSTANTIVE EXAMPLES:
 - A. Questions in turnout:
 - 1. Comparison of partisans and non-partisans
 - 2. Turnout of ethnic groups with similar social and economic backgrounds
 - 3. Trends in turnout.
 - B. We can use secondary analysis of sample surveys to illustrate research designs appropriate for investigating these questions.

- III. SAMPLE SURVEY:
 - A. "Direct" solicitation of information from (sample of) subjects.
 - B. Elements:
 - 1. Questionnaire (i.e., measurement and operational definitions)
 - 2. Population definition
 - 3. Sample design
 - 4. Data management
 - 5. Analysis

- IV. MEASUREMENT:
 - A. Turnout:
 - 1. The **Dependent variable**
 - i. Variable because it varies among individuals
 - ii. Dependent because it depends, we suppose, on other factors such as age, education, and ethnicity.
 - 2. Measure:
 - i. Reported self- voting in last election or in past elections.
 - ii. A **binary** or **dichotomous** variable:
 - 1) It has just two values or classes: voted and did not vote.
 - iii. A problem: respondents over report participation.
 - 1) Surveys report turnout rates that are 20 to 30 percent too high.
 - B. Partisanship
 - 1. An **independent variable**.



- i. “Independent” because we do not here try to “explain” its variation.
 - ii. A variable because some people are very partisan, some moderately so, and some not at all.
 2. Measure: self-reported degree of identification with one of the major political parties.
 - i. **Ordinal** variable:
 - 1) Values of the variable, response classes, have an implicit order or magnitude.
 - a) Many researchers assume an underlying numerical or quantitative scale that is not observed.
 - 2) Scale: strong to none (non-partisan)
 - 3) Note: although a numerical measurement may be implied, it is not observed and we can’t say that a strong partisan is twice as committed to a party as a plain partisan.
 3. Ethnicity
 - i. An independent variable because it does not depend on other factors in our study.
 - ii. Measure: respondent self placement or identification.
 - 1) **Categorical** or **nominal** variable
 - 2) Values of the variables are simply labels or names or categories.
 - a) There is no implicit numerical order among them.
 - b) High and low values are meaningless.
 - c) We can’t make numerical comparisons.
 4. Trend
 - i. An **numerical** independent variable
 - 1) Numerical because we will simply use a time counter.
 - ii. Time is indicated by **year of survey**
 - 1) The difference between 1996 and 1998 is two years as is the difference between 1966 and 1968.
 - 2) We can speak meaningfully of the growth in turnout in a 10 year period.

V. POPULATION AND SAMPLE:

- A. Population; well defined collection of objects (units of analysis)
- B. Sample: subset of objects selected in some fashion.
 1. Simple random sample: members of sample have an equal probability of being included in the sample.
 2. Non-simple sample: some members have different or unknown chance of being included.
- C. We want to be able to generalize about the adult (voting age) population of the United States.



- D. We'll discuss sampling procedures in more detail later, so for now we'll assume that the respondents to the survey constitute a random sample of non-institutionalized American citizens 18 years of age or older who reside in the continental United States.

VI. DATA MANAGEMENT:

- A. Questionnaires are "coded" and information is stored in a medium suitable for electronic (computer) data processing.
- B. Note: in survey research variables are often questions and the values of the variables are the possible responses.
- C. **Codebook:**
1. List questions and other information obtained during the course of the interview.
 - i. Question are usually reported verbatim along with instructions to interviewer.
 - ii. Example:

```
Generally speaking, do you usually think of
yourself as a Republican, a Democrat, an
Independent, or what? (IF REPUBLICAN OR
DEMOCRAT) Would you call yourself a strong
(REP/DEM) or a not very strong (REP/DEM)? (IF
INDEPENDENT, OTHER [1966-1992: OR NO
PREFERENCE]:) Do you think of yourself as
closer to the Republican or Democratic party?
```

Box 1: Sample Codebook Entry

2. List responses to questions.
 3. States numerical or non-numerical codes assigned to each response.
 4. Often gives raw frequencies or the number of respondents in each class or value of the variable.
 5. Data management information
 - i. List variable names and **locations** on the storage medium.
 - ii. Data processing information.
 6. See the appendix to these notes for a complete example
- D. A data file must be "processed" and analyzed before its contents can be interpreted.
1. Look at the codebook entry for partisanship at the end of the notes.
 - i. The question pertains to party identification with strong Democrats separated from strong Republicans
 - ii. But we want just "strong" partisans, so before analyzing and interpreting data we will want to recode this variable as follows:



- 1) Strong Republicans and strong Democrats are classified strong partisan coded 1, for example.
- 2) Moderate Democrats and Republicans are coded just “partisan” and scored, say, 2.
- 3) Independents who “lean” to one of the parties are “weak” partisans and coded 3.
- 4) Finally, those who are independent are coded 0 for “non-partisan.”
- 5) The new variable is thus:

LEVEL OF PARTISANSHIP
1. Strong partisans
2. Partisans
3. Weak partisans
4. Non-partisans (independents)

Box 2: Constructed Variable

- 6) We’ll illustrate the procedure many times in the coming weeks.

VII. ANALYSIS:

- A. Techniques, frequency distribution, cross-tabulation table, line plot, statistical test of significance:
 1. Simple frequency distributions
 - i. How many people gave each response or fell into or were assigned to each category or value.
 2. Cross-tabulation:
 - i. A joint frequency distribution.
 - ii. How many respondents in a particular category (value) of a variable are in the categories of another variable.
 3. Example next page.

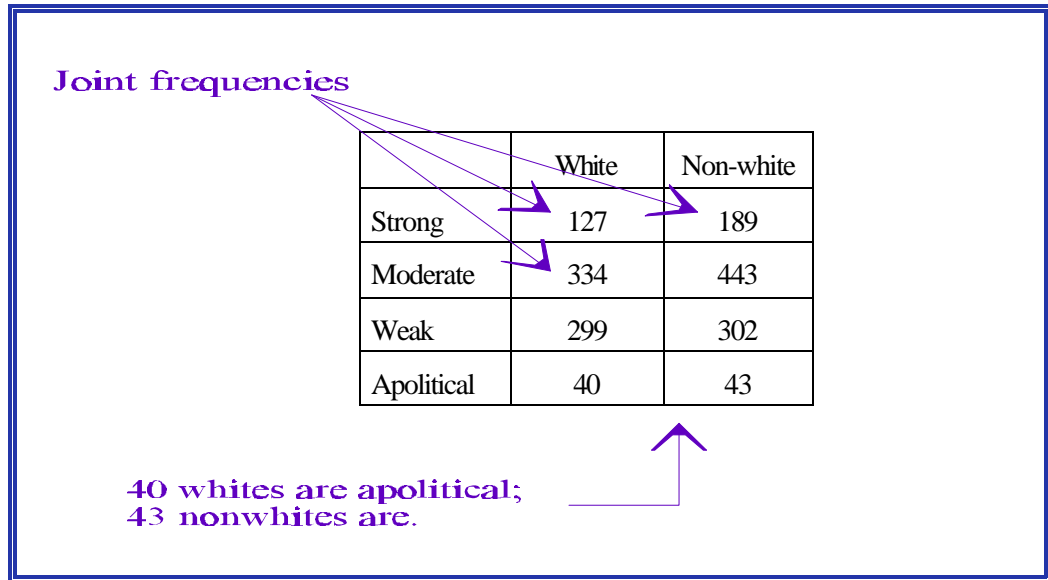
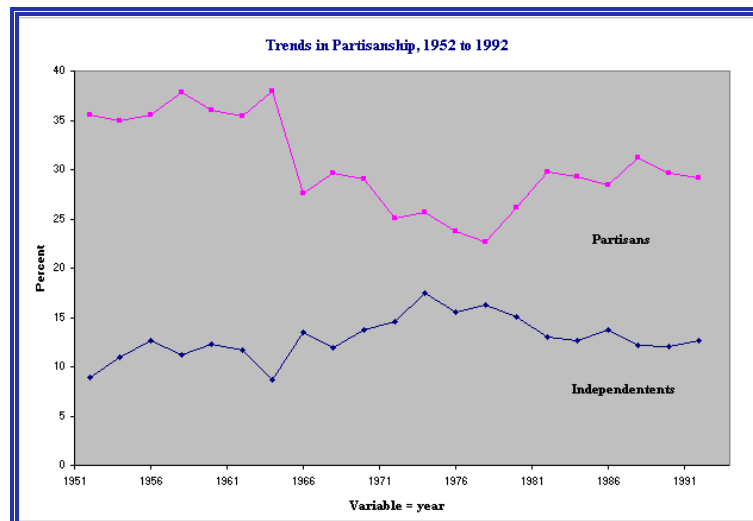


Figure 1: Cross-tabulation

This hypothetical example demonstrates one variable (“ethnicity”) cross classified or cross tabulated with another, “degree of partisanship.”

- i. But itself the tables provides only a limited amount of information, but it can be easily supplemented with additional material.
 - 4. A cross-classification is an elementary way to build a model that shows how one variable or factor is related to another.
- B. Plots
- 1. When displaying and interpreting “time-series” data—information collected on units of analysis at different time periods, we’ll use time as one variable.
 - i. Here’s an example.





2. We'll discuss these plots later.
- C. Statistical inference:
1. Since we just have a sample from a population, we need to make guesses or inferences about the population.
 - i. Our sample may show a relationship between partisanship.
 - ii. But is this observed observation the result of sampling error or does it point to the existence of a "real" relationship.
 2. Again, more later.

VIII. ANATOMY OF A TWO-WAY CROSS-CLASSIFICATION TABLE:

- A. General features
1. A (two-way) cross-classification table, also called a cross-tabulation or "cross tabs" for short or contingency table, tabulates the number of occurrences of combinations of categories of two variables.
 - i. The term "two way" arises because two variables are cross-tabulated.
 - ii. In a three-way table three variables are cross-classified.

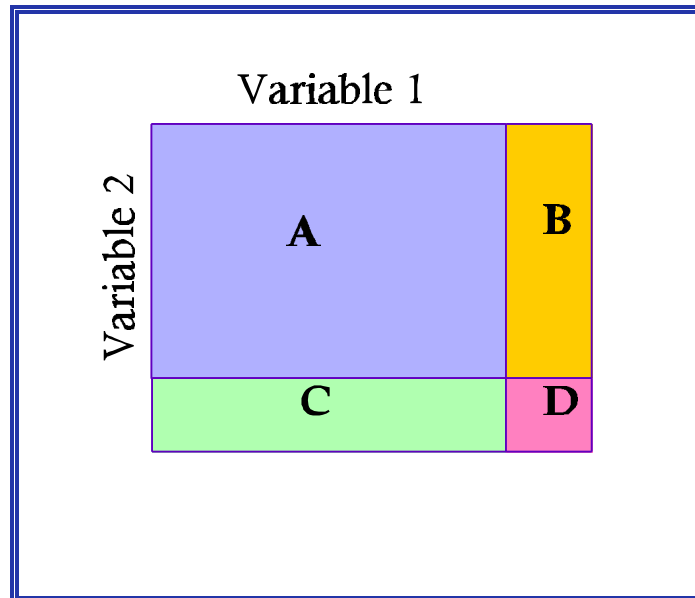


Figure 3: Parts of a Cross tabulation Table

2. A body of the table contains **cell** frequencies: the number (and percent) of cases or observations in the combined values of the variables.
3. **B** Row marginal totals: the number of cases in each row of the table, which is the number of cases in each category of variable 2.



4. **C** Column marginal totals: the number of cases in each column of the table, which is the number of cases in each category of variable 1.
5. **D** The table total or total number of cases or observations in the table.

IX. DETAILED EXAMPLE:

- A. Example of cross classification between partisanship, the independent or column or horizontal variable, and turnout, the dependent or row or vertical variable.
- B. Aspects
 1. Layout and titles
 2. Variable names
 3. Marginal frequencies
 - i. The number of cases in each category of the variables.
 4. Table total **N**, the number of “cases” in the table.
 5. Cell frequencies: the number of cases having value *i* on the dependent variable **and** value *j* on the independent variable.
 - i. Example: 416 are code 1 on partisanship **and** 1 on voted.
 - ii. Similarly, 366 are coded 2 on partisanship **and** 1 on voted.
 - iii. The entries are just the number of occurrences of each combination of variable values.
 6. Percentages: in this table cell entries are percentages, which the number in a category or combination of categories divided by a total and multiplied by 100.

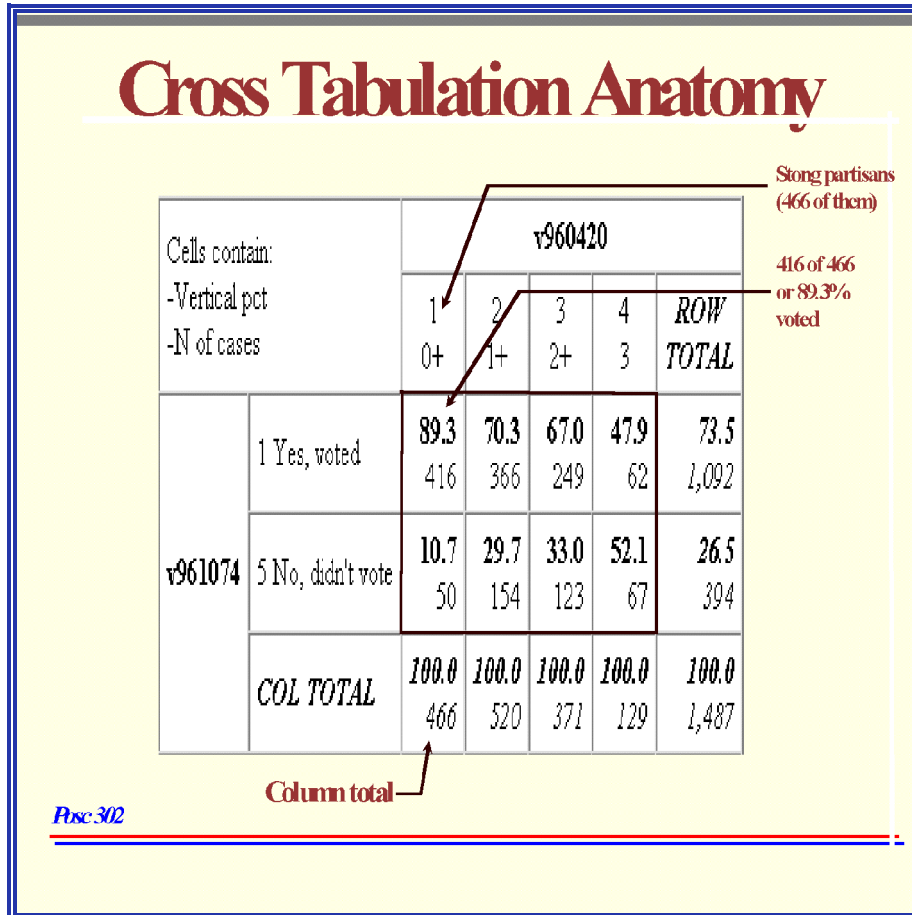


Figure 4: Column Percentages

i. Percentage:

$$Percent = \left(\frac{Cell\ frequency}{category\ total} \right) 100 = \left(\frac{N_{ij}}{N_{+j}} \right) 100$$

Percentage calculation

ii. For now forget about the notation.

7. In this example we see that about 89.3 percent of the strong partisan respondents report having voted.

8. Example:



Cross Tabulation Anatomy

Cells contain -Vertical pct -N of cases		v960420				
		1 0+	2 1+	3 2+	4 3	ROW TOTAL
v961074	1 Yes, voted	89.3 416	70.3 366	67.0 249	47.9 62	73.5 1,092
	5 No, didn't vote	10.7 50	29.7 154	33.0 123	52.1 67	26.5 394
	COL TOTAL	100.0 466	100.0 520	100.0 371	100.0 129	100.0 1,487

67 out of 129
or 52.1%
of
independents
did not vote.

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- i. Here we see that 67 out of 129 independents said they didn't vote. That's 52.1 percent.
 - C. KEEP THE INTERPRETATION OF PERCENTAGES STRAIGHT!
- X. INTERPRETATION:
 - A. Using percentages look for patterns.
 - 1. In the previous case we can make the generalization:
 - i. In this sample as partisanship declines, turnout goes down.
 - 2. A restatement:
 - i. Partisans are more likely to vote than are independents or weak partisans.
- XI. NEXT TIME:
 - A. Experiments and quasi-experiments



- B. Reading:
 - 1. Johnson and Joslyn, *Research Methods*, Chapter 5.

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Partisanship 1996
SUMMARY - R PARTY ID
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See K1, K1a/b, K1c for full question texts.
Built from K1, K1a/b, K1c

Code 8 (apolitical) was used only if the respondent had a code of 5 (no
preference) in K1 and a code of 3,8 or 9 in K1c and also showed little or
no interest in politics in response to the following questions: A1 (pre),
B1 (pre), N2 (pre), F1 (post).

  PCT   PCT   N  VALUE LABEL
VALID  ALL
19.4  19.2  329    0 Strong Democrat (1,1,0 in K1, K1a/b, K1c)
19.7  19.5  334    1 Weak Democrat (1,5/8/9,0 in K1, K1a/b, K1c)
13.7  13.6  233    2 Independent-Democrat (3/4/5,0,5 in K1, K1a/b, K1c
  8.5   8.5  145    3 Independent-Independent (3,0,3/8/9 in K1, K1a/b, K1c;
    5,0,3/8/9 if not apolitical)
10.8  10.7  183    4 Independent-Republican (3/4/5,0,1 in K1, K1a/b, K1c)
15.2  15.0  257    5 Weak Republican (2,5/8/9,0 in K1, K1a/b, K1c)
12.6  12.5  214    6 Strong Republican (2,1,0 in K1, K1a/b, K1c)
  0.1   0.1    1    7 Other; minor party; refuses to say (4,0,3/8/9 in K1, K1a/b,
    K1c)
    0.8   14    8 Apolitical (5,0,3/8/9 in K1, K1a/b, K1c and no interest in
    politics)
    0.2    4    9 NA (8/9,0,0 in K1, K1a/b, K1c)
-----
1714 cases

Type: numeric      Min: 0      MD Codes: 8,9-*
Decimals: 0        Max: 7

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Box 3 Codebook Entry