

# Political Science 104

## Lecture 4: Determining Causality

### Types of Causality

- **Deterministic Causality:** A change in the independent variable *always* causes a change in the dependent variable.
- **Probabilistic Causality:** A change in the independent variable *usually* causes a change in the dependent variable.
- In the social sciences we usually assume probabilistic causality.

### How do we know $A \rightarrow B$ ?

- Suppose we see a relationship between the independent and dependent variables in our hypothesis.
- Does this mean  $A \rightarrow B$ , or is there an alternative explanation?
- Unless we can re-run history, we can always come up with an alternative explanation for what we observe.

### The Fundamental Problem of Causal Inference

It is impossible to observe two different values of the independent variable simultaneously – thus, we can never know with certainty if the independent variable caused changes in the dependent variable.

### Observed relationships between A and B

- Causality:  $A \rightarrow B$
- Reversed causality:  $A \leftarrow B$
- Simultaneity (endogeneity):  $A \rightleftarrows B$
- Spurious relationship:  $C$   
 $\swarrow \searrow$   
A B
- *Selection effects* are a common cause of spurious relationships. Possible examples: “gateway drugs,” school vouchers, IMF loans.

### Four Strategies for Determining Causality

- **Correlation** between the independent and dependent variables.
- **Temporal ordering** – the independent variable changes before the dependent variable changes.
- **Controlling for alternative explanations** – showing other variables can’t account for what we observe.
- **A plausible causal mechanism** – a logical story for why the independent variable causes the dependent variable to change.

## Correlation

- If we believe that  $A \rightarrow B$ , then we should see a relationship between A and B.
- Positive correlation: larger values of A are associated with larger values of B.
- Negative correlation: larger values of A are associated with smaller values of B.
- Correlation does not prove causality. "Correlation is not causation."

## Temporal Ordering

- If we believe that  $A \rightarrow B$ , then we should see a change in A first, and then a responding change in B.
- Again, this does not prove causality. Making this mistake is the *post hoc* fallacy.
- *Regression to the mean*. Statistically, extreme values on a variable tend to be followed by less extreme values.

## Controlling for alternative explanations

- We think higher income increases voter turnout, but could education be the real explanation?

	High education	Low education
High income	70% vote	50% vote
Low income	60% vote	30% vote

## Plausible Causal Mechanism

- If we believe that  $A \rightarrow B$ , then we should have a plausible explanation for why this is so.
- Could be guided by theory (deductive approach) or simply a logical explanation (inductive approach).
- Can sometimes rule out competing explanations by pointing out they are not plausible.

## Example: The Florida Panhandle in 2000



- Claim that early call of Florida for Gore in 2000 cost the Republicans 10,000 votes in the Florida panhandle. But ...
- Call was 10 minutes before polls closed.
- Only 300,000 total voters in the panhandle.
- How many Republican voters plausibly heard call and didn't vote?

## Research Designs

- **Experiments:** The researcher randomly assigns observations to treatment and control groups.
- **Natural or quasi-experiments:** The researcher finds groups that are almost identical except on one independent variable.
- **Observational studies:** The researcher observes the independent and dependent variables, and attempts to control for alternative explanations.