

# Comparative Politics and the Comparative Method

Comparative Perspectives

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# An overview of today's lecture

- Comparison and its goals
- Differences between social and natural sciences and the role of comparison
- Methods of comparison
- Pitfalls and problems of comparison
- Strategies of comparison

# Comparison and its goals

- Comparing a part of natural human activity
- Prices of cellphones, courses at college, job offers, income, etc.
- What is the difference between such everyday comparison and scientific comparison?

# Q&A

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Why do we compare in comparative politics?

What comparisons have you already carried out?

# Comparison and its goals

- The two differ in their goals: comparison of states, political systems, regimes etc. has these four basic goals:
  - description
  - classification
  - testing of hypotheses
  - prediction

# Description 1/2

- A systematic scientific exploration of a subject desperately needs a good description of phenomena under investigation
- Description of political phenomena and events in one or several countries
- Sometimes referred to as “old/traditional” comparison, in contrast to more scientific “new comparison”
- Almond: “evidence without inference”
- Lijphart: atheoretical case study

## Description 2/2

- The author describes a considerable and interesting „story“ without more general inferences and generalizations
- Specific events, important personalities who played a role in decision-making etc.
- Potentially important information, data for case studies and comparisons
- General political phenomena (e.g. the emergence of social movements, military dictatorships etc.)

# Classification 1/2

- Helps categorize (classify) cases into several groups on the basis of a few similar features
- Simple dichotomy (democracy vs. non-democracy) as well as more complex schemes (1 or 2 parties, several parties)
- Classifications simplify the real world and outline differences among classes as a basis for comparative inquiry

# Classification 2/2

- Inductive and deductive reasoning: Blondel vs Aristotle
- **Blondel**: one, two, two and a half, multiparty with a dominant party, multiparty without a dominant party
- **Aristotle**: number of rulers and the character of their government
- One, several, many // good, bad
- Typology: monarchy, aristocracy, *politeia*, tyranny, oligarchy, democracy

# Hypotheses Testing

- Comparisons help to assess several competing explanations and to eliminate those that are not supported by the evidence:
- 1. Identify the key variables
- Specify the relations among them
- When comparing empirical evidence, we generate hypotheses about the relations between variables that are subsequently tested on several/many cases

# Predictions 1/3

- A logical extension of testing
- Predictions about development in the cases that were not included in the original set of cases
- Predictions in comparative analysis are probabilistic, e.g.:
- Incumbents are more likely to be re-elected than their challengers

## Predictions 2/3

- OR: countries that use the PR electoral systems are more likely to have more relevant political parties than countries with a single member plurality electoral system
- We can thus predict the effects of electoral system change from plurality to PR
- **HOWEVER:** It does not mean we can predict the particular results in a specific country

## Predictions 3/3

- Prediction are less common in comparative politics than a few decades ago
- A well-know “recent” prediction is Huntington’s assertion that conflicts are most likely to take place along civilizational “borders”
- Huntington believed his prediction was more accurate than any other competing explanation

# Differences between social and natural sciences 1/2

- The four goals of comparative politics (description, classification, testing of hypotheses and prediction) are also shared by natural sciences
- Newton's gravitation theory was originally formulated on the basis of empirical evidence that led to generalization and predictions
- gravity (as well as other concepts) cannot be observed directly, we can only observe its consequences: it is an intellectual construct that was verified in repeated experiments; only after that a theory was formulated

# Differences between social and natural sciences 2/2

- Experiments are nearly impossible in comparative politics but are typical for most natural sciences
- The importance of “counterfactuals”, i.e. thought experiments in which analysts imagine the absence of particular variables in their cases
- i.e. they imagine an alternative course of events (one variable would be different) in a case under investigation
- Democratic transition in Spain in 1975: parliamentarism vs. presidentialism

# Comparison instead of experiments

- When we emphasize the importance of an explanatory variable, we always implicitly work with counterfactuals
- To say that single member plurality electoral systems tends to produce bipartism involves considering a counterfactual situation in which a country would not have a two-party system without single member plurality electoral system
- In comparative analysis, we use a real world case(s) to replace counterfactuals: comparison substitutes experiments

# Question

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Do you know any political science laws?

# Comparative Politics is not strong in producing “laws”

- (However, there are some exceptions):
- Duverger’s law
- Michels’ Iron law of oligarchy
- Democratic peace
- Too few cases/too few observations
- Instead of laws, CP produces understanding and explanation of phenomena about which we have “a lot” of observations and our level of certainty is considerably high

# How do we compare?

- Case studies
- Small-N comparisons
- Large-N comparisons
- Differences rest in the level of abstraction of our conclusions
- The fewer cases we have, the less opportunity for generalizations

# Case studies 1/2

- What is comparative about single case studies?
- We can work with concepts that can be used in other cases (contexts)
- We can try to formulate conclusions about the more general aspects of our case
- We can supply a good description of the relevant context
- We can supply new classifications and generate hypotheses for subsequent comparative studies
- We can support/reject theories or explain deviant cases

## Case studies 2/2

- When analyzing one case (e.g. one country) we can increase the number of observations
- CASE is not OBSERVATION
- Analyze several elections
- Analyze several regions
- Italy and the civic culture
- India and the role of protestant missionaries in democratic development

## Small-N Comparisons (2 - 20)

- We deliberately choose several cases from the entire population of cases
- Search for similarities and differences
- Contrasting similarities and differences can reveal possible explanations of our research puzzles

# Large-N Comparisons 1/2

- Closest to the logic of experimental methods of natural sciences
- Advantages: ability to statistically control and eliminate alternative explanations
- Covers cases/countries across space and time
- Law-like generalizations

# Large-N Comparisons 2/2

- Risks and pitfalls :
- Validity of measurement is questionable
- Not suitable in analyzing processes where complex causal mechanisms are at play
- Not suitable for analyzing phenomena whose meaning is strongly linked to local (i.e. unique) context

# Problems of comparison

- 1) Too few cases, too many variables
- 2) Questionable equivalence
- 3) Selection bias
- 4) Spuriousness
- 5) Ecological and individual fallacies

# Too few cases, too many variables 1/4

- when there is more potential explanations than cases to test them
- Possible solutions:
- 1) increase the number of cases or observations

# Too few cases, too many variables 2/4

- Lijphart (1970) suggests:
- geographical or temporal strategy to increase the number of cases
- To reduce the number of variables by merging some of them
- To reduce the number of variables by focusing on the relevant variables (guidance offered by an existing theory)

## Too few cases, too many variables 3/4

- 2) use the **most similar systems design** (MSSD)
- To eliminate the variables that are the same across cases and to focus on those variables that are different and thus potentially cause the observed outcome
- Unfortunately, when using the MSSD, we will never be able to eliminate many alternative explanations (variables)

# Too few cases, too many variables 4/4

- 3) to minimize the number of relevant variables by employing the most different systems design (MDSD)
- We compare totally different cases with similar outcomes, focus is on the different variables across cases that potentially lead to the similar outcomes

# Equivalence

- Different understanding of the key concepts may lead to different (non-comparable) ways of measurement
- It is important to specify what the equivalent concepts could be
- Concepts must be modified to take into account cultural specificity of each case
- Best if applied to cases that are well-known to the researchers

# Selection bias

- Comparison is a substitution for experiments, however, it is an imperfect substitution
- Experiments select cases randomly, while in CP we choose among cases deliberately
- The most visible selection bias emerges when we use only those cases that support our argument

# Selection bias

- Less visible selection bias exists when we choose cases on the dependent variable:
- E.g. when we only work with cases with a particular outcome: where a revolution **did** take place
- If there is no variation on the dependent variable, we may reach conclusions that overestimate the importance of some of our independent variables

# Spuriousness

- Exists when we omit the key variable that influences both our dependent and independent variable
- There is no perfect solution to the problem!

# The most similar systems design (MSSD)

- We identify the key characteristics that are different in otherwise similar cases; we thus expect that these different features lead to/explain the outcomes

	CASE 1	CASE 2
VARIABLES	a	a
	b	b
	c	c
	X	Non-X
OUTCOMES	Y	Non-Y

Variables	Togo	Ghana
Similarities:		
Climate	High Temperatures	High Temperatures
Per capita income	Low	Low
Ethnicity	Heterogeneous	Heterogeneous
Dominant Religion	Christianity	Christianity
Other religions	Islam, traditional tribal	Islam, traditional tribal
<b>COLONIZING POWER</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>United Kingdom</b>
Outcome		
Regime Type	<b>Authoritarian</b>	<b>Democratic</b>

# The most different systems design

- Cases that are totally different, have only a few shared similarities
- They also share the same outcome

	CASE 1	CASE 2
VARIABLES	a	d
	b	f
	c	m
	X	X
OUTCOMES	Y	Y

	France 1780-1790	China 1940-1945
Differences		
Geography	Europe	Asia
Population	< 30 mil.	> 500 mil.
Century	18.	20.
Regime	Monarchy	One party state
XXXXXX	X	X
Outcome		
Social Revolution	yes	yes