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GREG PRICE

PR OCEED I NGS
MR. SCIOLI: Thanks to everyone for their promptness in arriving this morning. We're delighted to have you all for this very important program that Jim Granato has coordinated from the moment he landed at NSF last January. Talk about fire in the belly, it's been a tremendous inspiration to me to see how excited he is and how excited all of you are about this opportunity to share with us your thoughts.

A couple of bureaucratic items. If we could first have our representative introduce herself, and please tell us what you'll be doing and what you need from us.

MS. GRAY: Okay. My name is Irene. I'm going to be recording the whole meeting and then NSF is going to have a transcript prepared with everything that's said here. So if everyone can make sure that they address the microphone, they speak only one at a time, $I$ know that's difficult,

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but I can only record one voice at a time. And remember, all these mikes are going all the time, so if you want to have a side conversation, turn away from them. But make sure if you want it to be recorded that it goes into the microphone. Thank you. And audience members, if you want to make a comment, go to the mike and tell me who you are.

MR. SCIOLI: I guess it's clear, therefore, that if you have anything that you do not want recorded as part of the official minutes of this program, if you have any proprietary rights on a thought or a method or an equation, once you say it here it becomes part of the public domain.
(Laughter)
I hope you know Jim Granato. Jim, do you want to --

MR. GRANATO: I'd like everyone to introduce themselves -- start on my left -for the record.

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MR. FREEMAN: John Freeman,
Minnesota.
MR. BRADY: Henry Brady, from the
University of California at Berkeley.
MS. MORTON: Becky Morton, and I'm
in transit between the University of Houston
and Whitehue (?).
MR. ALT: Jim Alt, Harvard.
MR. KEECH: Bill Keech, Carnegie
Mellon.
MS. EAVEY: Cheryl Eavey, NSF.
MR. McKELVEY: Richard McKelvey,
Cal Tech.
MR. YOUNG: Peyton Young, Johns
Hopkins.
MS. ZINNES: Dina Zinnes,
University of Illinois.
MR. STRAF: I'm Miron Straf with
NSF, on leave from the National Academy.
MR. ALDRICH: John Aldrich, Duke.
MR. ACHEN: Chris Achen, Michigan.
MR. BRADBURN: Norman Bradburn,

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NSF, on leave from the University of Chicago.

MR. BUTZ: Bill Butz, NSF.
MR. SCIOLI: And I'm Frank Scioli.
Of course, I know so many of you from panels, either the science panel -John Freeman commented on coming up to room 1235 that things were far different from 1800 G Street. I think one panel meeting, because of some problems in the building, we met in a room that was about one-quarter this size. So we certainly didn't need microphones. Let me just say a word first to -for those of you who did not know, Bill Butz is leaving us in about 2 weeks. He has been extremely supportive of this activity in which you're participating today, has been a great facilitator. Those of you in academia know that without facilitators, we in the trenches cannot do very much. So we'd like to wish Bill good luck and thank him for

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being a strong supporter of this particular activity.

And to say to those of you who are not familiar with NSF, which is just about none of you, that we're delighted to have Norman take time from his very busy schedule. I think he appreciates the importance of the topic and in his introduction of himself noted that he was on leave from the University of Chicago. It's delightful for us to have a professor, a provost, a true scholar working with us on a day-to-day basis. And he's been extremely supportive of this activity as well.

For those of you who don't know, Miron's the current president of the American Statistical Association. So he will be one of the few persons in the room who is above us in terms of his statistical sophistication, I'm sure.

MR. STRAF: Maybe on the side.
MR. SCIOLI: Cheryl, as I'm sure

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you know, is the head of MMS? MS. EAVEY: Very good. MR. SCIOLI: Measurement -Methods, Measurement and Statistics. MS. EAVEY: Close. MR. SCIOLI: We change the names around here, but the intention is the same. Cheryl's been a big co-supporter with Political Science, as you know, of many activities that have to do with measurement and methods.

And throughout the afternoon you'll see other familiar faces, I hope, of NSF staff. Jim's workshop has generated quite a bit of interest and activity. We don't quite know where we're going to wind up with this. We have some ideas and, perhaps by the end of the day tomorrow, we'll share them with you if we get some sense as to what kind of enthusiasm you have for this particular activity. You should have in front of you a

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workshop agenda for today, and as you can see, we have a fairly tight schedule from now until, oh, just about 6 p.m. this evening. There are some breaks scheduled throughout. If you need directions around the building, we'll be happy to give those to you. There are pay phones directly outside this room. And if you need to get to your e-mail, we can make arrangements for that as well.

We have a group dinner planned, as you will see on page 2 of the agenda, for 7 p.m. this evening at a fairly nice and tasty Italian restaurant just a few blocks from NSF. I don't think you'll be disappointed. I certainly encourage all of you to come to that and to informally build on what was discussed today.

Tomorrow morning, we hope to resume at 8:30, and certainly should be done by noon. If you have particular travel needs that necessitate you leaving before

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then, just let Jim or me know and we'll be happy to facilitate whatever we can.

Jim has some opening remarks, and then we'll get right to the business. Jim reminded me that perhaps you two would like to make some opening comments. Do you have slides?

MR. BUTZ: Well, as a matter of fact, $I$ do have slides.

Now, who here can tell me what this thing is, in the NSF context? What is that called -- folder?

SPEAKER: We call it a jacket.
MR. BUTZ: And even though NSF is going electronic, we still have these things. In my 6 years here, I have signed 16,000 of these things.

SPEAKER: Did you count them?
MR. BUTZ: No -- well, actually,
16,037. In 4 of these years, I had responsibility for all of the social, behavioral, and economic programs, so that's

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-- science and archaeology and all of that; and then the last two, the social and economic. But 16,000 in all.

And when I go off and talk to people, give university lectures, my most popular slide is this one. And the title of it is, "How to Get Zero Money from NSF." And I want to show this to you because I think it bears on the topic. One of the things that your papers are talking about, and that is how unique is the issue in political science that you're talking about.

Now, these 16,000 proposals I haven't gone through systematically and, sort of, checked everything. But one thing that I look at always is this so-called Form 7 on the left-hand side, which is the program officer's reason for turning down the proposal, or funding the proposal. The Form 7, and there it is for this particular proposal. And frequently I'll read some other part, read the reviews, maybe read a

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little bit of the proposal, maybe read the whole proposal. But I always read the Form 7.

And of those 16,000, about 2 years ago I formulated just a sort of a stylized FAQ what the principal ways are to be sure that you don't get money from NSF. And out of all the possible reasons, there were three that came to the front. And since that time, I've been, sort of, paying more attention to it and my strength of surety of these reasons has only increased.

Now, it varies some across fields.
And I don't mean to say that this is particularly true of political science, but I want to show it to you because it may give you an additional context for the reasons why scientific proposals fail in the social and behavioral sciences -- how to get zero money.

The first and most important, the modal reason for failure is something to do BETA REPORTING
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with the theory or the conceptualization. And in that, the most frequent problem is that there just isn't any. The proposal starts and it says, you know, I'm going to run an experiment on such-and-such, and here's the sample, and here's the controls. Or I'm going to do a survey or something. But there's just no conceptualization, no sense of how what this person is doing fits into what came before conceptually or how the results, if they're confirmed or not confirmed, will feed some kind of a general conceptual sense of what's going on.

The second most common problem is that there is one, but it's not connected. One, for example, sees this frequently in economics, that there will be a well-developed deductive theory at the beginning, and then the next section will be data, the next section will be empirical equations, and you'll look at the empirical stuff and it's just -- it's not connected,
or it's only connected in the vaguest sense.
And a third and much less frequent problem is that there's a theory there but it's incorrect. There's something wrong with it. It's either deductively flawed or in some other way wrong.

The second most important reason and I'm going to skip over this one because this is less important for this context, has something to do with the importance of the proposal. The most frequent problem, as you can suspect, is that it isn't important. People ask, well, what difference will it make if these people actually find what they think they're going to find? And they go around the table and say, well, there's nothing in the proposal about it and we don't think it's important at all. The second-most is that the case is made but it isn't understandable. And I'll not dwell on this any further. But the the third most frequent problem has

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something to do with the experimental or the data or the statistical methods. And so it's sort of this and the first one that relate to some of the things that you're going to be talking about here today.

And the most frequent problem is "inadequately specified." I don't know how many panels I've sat in where people say, well, you know, we can't really tell how they're going to form this proxy from these variables, or we can't really tell how they're going to get over the statistical problem with such-and-such. And somebody around the table will say, oh, well, you know there's actually a very good way to do that -- you do so-and-so and so-and-so and so-and-so. And somebody else at the table says, well, that's great, you write the proposal and we'll fund it. So inadequately specified, inappropriate, or out-of-date. There are many other things that

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are wrong with proposals, but these two -something wrong with the theory and something wrong with the data or the statistical methods are two of the three most common ones across -- and I really don't think there are very many exceptions to this -- across the 18, I think now 19, programs in the social, behavioral, and economic sciences here. So I thought I would just point that out.

I want to also say that when I
recruit program officers at NSF, one of the things I tell them is that this job as program -- and I guess I'm recruiting even now by saying this -- that this job of program officer is arguably the most powerful science job in the world, NSF program officer. And the reason is not that the program officer has most of what to say about whether this jacket gets funded or not, the reason is what's happening here today.

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The program officer can come in here with an idea of something that's going on, or not going on, in their science at the core or the fringe somewhere and has the tools to make it happen. And can start a fire that their successors can't put out.

Sometimes that works and sometimes you're just pushing on a string because the field isn't ready for it yet. And what we see here today is that kind of result, of Granato coming in here with an idea that really resonated with Frank Scioli. And getting you all here and I judge from the papers it resonated with you, too. And we'll see in the succeeding year or 2 or 3 whether this is pushing on a string or whether it's really lighting a fire.

But my hope is and my fond expectation is that my successor 2 or 3 years from now, when he or she recruits a program officer, will be able to use today and tomorrow morning as an example of what a

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program officer can do. MR. SCIOLI: Thank you, Bill. Norman. MR. BRADBURN: Thank you. I wanted to say a little bit about the context within which NSF is operating at the moment, or at least the directorate is operating in, and how this conference fits into what I hope happens in the next few years. First of all, let me just, in the spirit of truth in advertising, I'd like to say that I am a fox but a closet hedgehog. But primarily, in the fox and hedgehog distinction. Most of my life has been foxy. As many of you know, and some of you have participated already in other activities related to this, I came to NSF last year to help design what was then called an initiative, but with the change of administration is now called a priority area, for a major investment in the social and behavioral sciences in fiscal 2003,

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which at that time $I$ thought was a long time away. But it's now upon us. And the next few months, in fact, will be the most important time for that because we are putting together the NSF budget request for fiscal 2003 this moment.

There is a strong commitment on the part of the senior management at NSF, and particularly the director and the deputy director, to make in 2003 social and behavioral sciences a priority area, which translates into a disproportional increase in our budget. Now, exactly how -- it's still a little bit unclear exactly how this will be structured, but -- and partially -and also the level, because as you know, we had a little setback in expectations based on the 2001 budget, where NSF got a very substantial increase and commitment from the Senate, at least, to being on a doubling track over the next 5 years.
Because of the change of

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administration and the 2002 budget, which is basically a stand-still budget or a half-step backward budget, I think is perhaps the more realistic way of talking about it, at least the way it is right now, we haven't had the markup of it. We are told by people who are supposed to know these sort of things -- you know, the unnamed sources -- that we may get a fairly substantial increase over what the President requested. But that won't be apparent until the very end of the fiscal year, I suspect. So now the thinking is still -still the aspiration is to double the NSF budget in 5 years. We just sort of slipped the years over in taking 2002 as the base year, which is actually slightly beneficial because 2001 was such a big increase. So we're starting talking about doubling from a higher base.

But the big question will be how big a priority area will be the social and

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behavioral sciences and will the administration and Congress buy it. It's not enough just to have the director and the deputy director and everybody behind it, but we also have to sell it to $O M B$ and to Congress.

So what I've been doing with Marin's help, who came over for a year from the academy to help me do this, was to try to put together the case for a substantial investment in social and behavioral
sciences. And we were making the case on basically two grounds -- perhaps the traditional two, in some sense: It's needed, and it's particularly important at this time. And we're basically hooking on the fact that there have been enormous changes in society as a result of the whole range of new technologies; information technology, biotechnology, et cetera, communications technologies, et cetera, et cetera -- and that these are having all

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kinds of effects which are on social arrangements, the social framework.

In the end you can do a lot of things at the individual level in terms of psychology and cognitive studies, linguistics. Not all, but most of the areas in social and behavioral sciences have things that can be done partially because of these changes as a consequence, because they're new methods of doing things, but also, particularly on the social side, economic side, there are a lot of problems that need to be worked on more intensively.

But what I think is more relevant to this particular conference is the second part of the argument, which is that the sciences are poised to make significant discoveries in lots of ways, or at least advance knowledge, partially because of new methods and new data, and I hope that maybe because of new theories, or at least the bringing together of theory and data.

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We've been making the case, I think, more heavily on the new data and new statistical tools side than we have on the new theory side. In fact, on that side we have more, I think, made the case on the challenges to perhaps traditional economic theory not so much, at least overtly, in terms of political theory, but more on the data side.

But I think this -- just to pick up on Bill's summation -- the joining of good theory and good data is particularly important, I think, if we're going to make some kind of progress in knowledge.

Now, let me just mention the three things that from my point of view are sort of background context, which don't -- you don't need to focus entirely -- not entirely, obviously, but I hope you'll keep in the background when you're thinking about your discussion today and in terms of one of the things I would like to draw out of it.

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One is there's a great deal of interest throughout the foundation, in all the fields, in what are the infrastructure needs for sciences over the next 10 years. Actually, the National Science Board has asked each of the directorates to address that sort of issue. And there are really two parts to that issue that -- one has to do with what are the, sort of, infrastructure things that one would propose. And those -- I would classify those into four types. One, are data platforms, the kind of things like the National Elections Study that is where their actual data is being collected, which is sort of public use.

Shared facilities, which we have been funding in our infrastructure competitions a couple of things which, for example, one will make survey capabilities available for small studies, for methodological studies, for pilot studies on

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a quick-turnaround basis available to people, we hope at a reasonable cost. But it's, in any case, to make available small survey capabilities -- survey capabilities for small studies.

And the second thing is creating, sort of, larger laboratories for experimental economics or experimental games of various sorts -- scaling up some of the things that have occurred in -- that have been done with, say, 10 or 12,15 participants, scaling this up to 100 or 150 or something like that. And some other things like that, but basically it's the possibility of facilities which -- for data collection, that can be shared by many investigators who, at their own university, can't afford to have that kind of facility.

The third one, of course, is the one we've invested in a lot over the years, and that's data archives, now extended to what are called digital libraries, which

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include, essentially, other kinds of data than statistical data, characteristics and so forth -- that is, brain imaging, samples of languages, audiovisual archives of structured interactions of different types of things. But making use of new technologies for storing archives of information in digital form. And that, of course, is something that we've been doing in the past.

And finally, we've kind of -- in these not elsewhere classified kind of -but what $I$ think of as centers for developing certain areas of research. We funded one spatially integrated social science at the University of Santa Barbara, which is, together with some geographic information system, mapping libraries and other things, an Alexandria project, if you know about that.

But this is a center which in fact develops some infrastructure, the sorts of

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software for handling spatial data and other
kinds of training aspects.

So that just is your idea of the kinds of range of sorts of things that $I$ would classify as kind of infrastructure.

Now, one is what are the things that we are investing in. The other sort of thing is how do you go about deciding what to invest in. And that's the most difficult problem for, I think, the social and behavioral sciences because we don't have any good mechanism at present for getting a community together and, sort of, mapping out what are its highest-priority needs.

I just had to write a thing for the National Science Board to say how did the Social Sciences go about deciding what we've done? And my answer was at least so far, or traditionally, it's been basically that the sort of entrepreneurial scholar who has had an idea for something that's needed has corralled his colleagues, or her

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colleagues, to band together to pressure us or others and written a great proposal, so forth, and convinced us or others to support it.

But it's been a sort of -primarily, I think, an individual or small-group enterprise. And maybe it will always be that way, I don't know.

The thing which is always around here contrasted with are the astronomers, who of course have very large infrastructure needs. And they do, as a community, band together and lay out a set of priorities, you know, in the long run if they want first this type of telescope, then that type of telescope, et cetera.

And they've managed to corral the people who want different types of telescopes and so forth to come to an agreement on what the priorities are, and then they march in to NSF and to NASA and to Congress, and look very well organized and

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(703) 684-2382 as if they know where they're going and so forth, and make their case.

And that is very impressive to people -- "people" being OMB-type budget people, Congressional staff, and so on and so forth. And they say to others, not just to social and behavioral sciences, but to physics and chemistry and geosciences and biology and so forth, you know, why can't you get your act together if you want these kind of infrastructure things in the same way?

Well, I think there are lots of reasons, not the least of which is that the needs for the other sciences are much more heterogeneous than the range of telescopes that run from optical to infrared to terrestrial and space. So that's a -- it's very expensive, but the range of variation is pretty small.

Any case, $I$ think any help on that sort of score that you can get us would be BETA REPORTING
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Two other things that I'm building into the, kind of, plan are for training. What kind -- I think -- I've been involved in training programs over the years. I think we need a much greater investment in, particularly, quantitative training for social scientists -- not just political scientists; perhaps theoretical training. But I think we need to invest in that. And again, the question is where are the places that we should be making our investments in that kind of area?

And that's related to the final
thing, which is -- again, it's a theme that runs across the foundation and all the scientists -- is in research that's done because of this increasing complexity, technical in some respects, but it's commented on in many of your papers about the kind -- but if you're really going to have high-level training in statistics and

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math and you're going to have high-level training in theory and so forth, given the amount of time that people are in graduate school and so forth, it's hard to get any one person to have all of these traits at the highest level; which suggests that what you need, of course, are people to work together in teams and so forth, people who are well trained as theorists working with people who are well trained as empiricists of various sorts.

That's certainly a theme which you see in lots of NSF program announcements if you look at -- and certainly a theme that's being developed in lots of different areas. And that's, to my mind, in some sense tied with the training, because one of the things that I've observed over the years in my own work -- and now since I've been here, Miron and I have been going around talking to people at different universities about how you do collaborative work and how hard it is

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    to work with people from different
    disciplinary orientations, even within your
    own discipline if they're different
    theoretical or intellectual styles, but also
    across disciplines -- economics and
    political science, or economics and
    sociology, sociology and political science,
    et cetera -- let alone working with
    biologists or general scientists or computer
    scientists or whatever -- that is, the
    problem of how people from different
    disciplines come to be able to work together
    productively, it seems to me, and what kind
    of training you need for that, if there is
    any.
    It seems to be an issue that we
    need to confront. And since another one ot
    the things, in looking at the papers and so
forth, is this difference between people who
are oriented towards theory and those who
are oriented towards more empirical,
statistical things, that's in the first
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instance, clearly, how do you get people like that to work together productively?

So those are the kinds of
contextual things which I think are going on here, and this, I think, is a very important workshop to address many of these issues, although it needn't be the primary focus of what you're talking about. But I do hope from the day and a half we can extract some things relevant to these issues.

MR. SCIOLI: Thank you, Norman.
First let's say hello to Carl Simon. MR. SIMON: Sorry I'm late. I
sort of had the air trips from hell the last couple of days.

MR. SCIOLI: Any questions for Bill or Norman before we begin? Anything about NSF you'd like to know, or -MR. YOUNG: Can I just ask one question? Are transcripts from this going to be available, or parts of it, to this group afterwards? Or how much do we need to

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scribble, I guess, is what I'm really asking.

MR. GRANATO: It will be available.

MR. SCIOLI: We will promise a report within about 3 weeks after this.

MR. GRANATO: Yes, I think so, about 3 weeks. And we will have a transcript, so if you'd like copies of that, we could run that off as well.

MR. SCIOLI: So the purpose of our engaging with a recorder is so that you don't have to be -- so that we don't have to scribble, either. So you can look and listen and be engaged.

MR. GRANATO: Ideally, we want you just to make notes if someone's talking and then interject something, just keep the discussion going.

MR. SCIOLI: I note we've been joined by two of our colleagues, and others may come in. Greg Price from the Economics

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Program, whom I hope you know; and Rachelle Hollander, also from Social and Economic Sciences. Say hello to them if you have any business.

Okay, Jim has some opening comments and then we'll get started on the agenda.

MR. GRANATO: Thank you all for participating in this workshop. To paraphrase Admiral James Stockdale, "who are you and why are you here?"

The answer to the first question is simple: You constitute the very best that political science and other disciplines have to offer. Your scholarship demonstrates a willingness to engage in work that is innovative and that meets the very highest of standards. In short, the way you analyze questions in your research makes you uniquely suited to address the issues that led to the creation of this workshop.

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The answer to the second question, why are you here, is a bit more complicated. You are here because there's a growing sense that political science has endured a technical separation between formal and empirical analysis for far too long. Indeed, the separation serves as a barrier to the scientific study of politics.

Now, what is meant by the scientific study of politics? Well, among other things, the scientific study of politics requires building theoretically informed models that take account of confounding factors that may undermine our inferences, or our betas; our predictions, or $y$-hats; or conducting policy simulations or some combination of all three.

Consider how a split between the two approaches undermines progress. First examine the risks associated with a strictly empirical, read applied statistical approach. Assume that the empiricist's

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theory dictates the empirical model contains more than one equation.

If one were to use a fairly rigorous standard, then the empirical model would need to be identified and thereby satisfy order and rank conditions. But even if a model is over- or just-identified and the zero order restrictions are credible, it is still possible the various parameter magnitudes constitute a result that undermine the entire theory; for example, an indeterminacy in a model that says the opposite.

Unfortunately, empiricists would not know this, given their singular approach. Instead, they note the model is identified and would dutifully report the $t-$ and F-statistics, the size and sign of the parameters, and believe they have created something valid that advances our stock of knowledge.

> Yet this situation is not

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necessarily long-lived, since any ex-ante or conditional forecasts using these "indeterminate" within sample parameter magnitudes would be inaccurate, even freakishly so.

There is also the distinct possibility that the residuals created in this estimation are not iid. Of course, it's possible to hid this problem by applying some residual weighting technique, which can be done and, unfortunately, is done. More on that later.

On the other hand, had the empirical model been derived from a formal model in a fairly straightforward way, it would become clear that certain limiting conditions of various parameter values produced the inconsistency between theory and outcome.

Now, consider a strictly formal
approach. Assume that the modeler devises an elegant model that, after much work,

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produces a single equation with a closed form solution. She also determines that an empirical test of the model with actual data is in order. The model is linear in parameters and functional form, so the modeler chooses OLS. She runs the regression, and sure enough, this conscientious formal modeler finds the residuals are not white noise. What is the modeler to do? Well, the specification took a good deal of effort -- months, maybe even years -- to devise.

So to keep the specification, the modeler weights the residual variance-covariance matrix and applies GLS. And voila! Residuals are now iid, and like the empiricist above, the formal modeler reports the $\mathrm{t}-\mathrm{and} \mathrm{F}$-statistics and shows that the hypotheses and theory are supported.

Now, what's wrong with this
picture? First, the non-random behavior of

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the residuals is a clear sign that the model and theory are misspecified. No application of GLS, no matter how powerful and efficient the technique used to weight the residuals, can cure this. Such practice is simply incoherent, since it makes no sense to correct the empirical model using information created by the misspecification in the first place.

More importantly, why would it ever make sense to correct the model by relying on the mistakes the model created? The model is wrong. It's as simple as that. In the end, this will be borne out again and again by out-of-sample forecast failures, both ex-ante and conditional. Nothing is learned, nothing is gained. There is no advancement.

As you can see, we have similar outcomes starting with different approaches. Are these examples exaggerated? Are they caricatures? One need only to look at the

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discipline's most selective "A" journals to uncover the answer. The journals are replete with empirical patchworks, such as the weighting of residual variance-covariance matrices, that attest to the failure to portray accurately political phenomena. Both approaches, acting independently or carelessly borrowing from each other, are equally guilty. These practices are pernicious.

And this is why you are here.
With your help, the Political Science Program seeks ways to take the lead in ensuring that current practices that are a consequence of this split become a thing of the past. There are many ways for this to happen, and indeed in some quarters, it is already occurring.

But this is not just about
technique. Rather, technique is a vehicle that, appropriately applied, can be used to reach our ultimate goal -- a deeper

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understanding of political phenomena.
A word about the excellent commentaries is also in order. In their discussion about the issues at hand, workshop attendees noted the split is natural. Others also noted similar patterns in other disciplines. It should be said that whatever the degree of pessimism or optimism expressed in the commentaries, certain themes do exist.

First, there is a problem with current technical practice. Second is the conviction that something can be done. Third, NSF can assist in this exercise.

So how does the practicing political scientist, the practicing social scientist, who sees the utility of reducing the divide, or is at least interested enough to give it an honest attempt, alter the way they currently practice their trade? A better answer to this question is a central issue on the agenda before us for the next

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day and a half.
While it would be presumptuous to think this issue will be resolved in this workshop, progress can be made. Indeed, as many of you have already noted, progress has been made in recent years. These relatively scarce works showing the link between theory and empirics are found in unpublished manuscripts, articles in various journals, and conference papers. For the most part, this research is motivated by a variety of subfield-specific concerns. However, they also contain a link between theory and empirics suitable for much wider applicability.

The hope of extending that accessibility -- the implementations of the workshop recommendations -- has not been lost on those who are participating today. MR. SCIOLI: Okay, with those opening comments as backdrop, the first discussion point, in which all, of course,

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are invited to participate, but where we have identified small groups to kick off the discussion and please bear in mind that we hope to do topic 1, identification of the factors contributing to the split between formal theory and empirical modeling in each of the subfields of political science, within an hour and a half. So we know that you have many more insights than you can share in that period of time.

We'll continue with that topic
after a break, but at the outset, let's start with the American Government and Politics subfield, which certainly by any measure is the largest subfield of the discipline. And John Aldrich, Bill Keech, and Becky Morton will kick off that. So John, if we're going alphabetically, would you like to give us your thoughts?

MR. ALDRICH: Yes. First, I'm
simply here because, unlike many of you, I'm often mistaken for Pollyanna. So I thought

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I'd start off with some of the good news. I was thinking about when, back in -- just to show how far things have gone; back in Rochester in graduate school in the late '60s, early '70s, a couple of items: One is that formal modeling hit a difficult time finding enough readings to fill out the second semester after his game theory course. That's not so true today. One of the really great advances has been just the development of rational choice and its diversity -- starting off within American, but going beyond.

The second thing is that it was quite common for people to be mistaken for both theorists and methodologists simultaneously. There was one semester I took econometrics from Dick McKelvey and a course where I learned behavioral decision theory for the first time from Chris Achen. And it could be that -- I mean, people have pointed out that my theory looks like it was

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taught by a methodologist and my methods -(Laughter)

I think that represents something about how far apart the whole discipline was from anything like a regression equation or a 2-by-2 game of prisoner's dilemma at the time. And all look alike. Indeed, when I got to Michigan State no one was ever sure what position I -- my first job, no one was sure what position I had, including the chair and myself.

So the two great accomplishments have been in the development of the possibility of having a split. Thirty years ago we couldn't really have a split because there wasn't anything to split.

Second point is that it seems to me that if there's going to be some progress, it's more likely, just in my view, to come from changes in the way political methodology is done than in the way theory is done. And the reason $I$ think that is

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because, first of all, it's very difficult to imagine, you know, Mickey Rooney playing Andy Hardy saying, "Hey, let's go back in the barn and build a new theory." It doesn't happen quite that way, whereas methodology has more of a problem-solving structure to it. And therefore the choice of problems is somewhat easier to move, marginally.

> Secondly, it seems to me the thing
that should be changed in terms of political
methods is -- at the current time, it seems to me that there's an overconcern with developing estimators and underdevelopment in the full range of all the stuff that, kind of, methods.

I know there are some -- several of the memos talked about qualification and this and that and the other, and a lot of things that should be done under methods, testing of theory doesn't necessarily require elaborate statistical estimation in
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all circumstances -- either _understand it or they didn't need to estimate that.

And the third thing that I'd like to see some attention to and I think Becky mentioned this, is that we do a really bad job of recruiting undergraduates to go to graduate school. I don't know about most of you around this table, actually _ than in most cases -- but most people don't become political science majors to study the actual science of politics. They're just in public policy, in government, law school, whatever. And we don't either attract -efforts to attract people who might be scientifically interested in the study of politics or even let undergraduates know what's involved in it very often, that there is such a thing. Maybe Becky's experience at Iowa could be a little bit of use.

It seemed to me that if we had something like a double major, a government and politics major, a B.S. in political

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science, that -- where we would actually go to undergraduates and teach them, not unlike economics teaches real or early versions of economics to economists, that we would do a much better job of recruiting people into graduate school and be a signal that, out there to undergraduates, there is such a thing as political science, and we mean it seriously and just as a label to cover up an easy way into law school.

And the final thing is, if we are ever successful at this, we shouldn't have the current state of the subfields being American Government, Comparative, and International. They should be devised problems sets by problem, micro or macro. I mean, Becky's idea of -- I think it was yours, wasn't it, of International and Domestic? Bob Coho and I have been talking about changing our graduate program along those lines and just doing away with the American-Comparative distinction and

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splitting Comparative in half.
Those are things that occurred to me that I didn't put in my memo.

MR. SCIOLI: Bill Keech.
MR. KEECH: Well, with respect to the question of the actors contributing to the split, I think it's to be understood historically in political science, and I think the history of the split is different in political science than it is in economics. In my memo I gave a quick sketch of this. Let me just be even quicker in repeating the nature of that as $I$ saw it.

I think that the scientific study of politics began as a quantitative study that was empirical and basically inductive, and theory in political science has meant, at least in the past, a political philosophy and the history of ideas. And in the '60s I don't think there was much sense of theory in political science, but there was an excitement about science and quantification.

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And it was largely inductive, based on -started on the study of voting behavior. And arrived first at Michigan and there was a kind of missionary impulse coming out of the ISR at Michigan.

I think theory came along later.
It was largely an import from economics. And I think Anthony Downs and Mancur Olson had a lot to do with that. And I think theory came in in the guise of rational choice models. And so there has been a split generated by the fact that there were two independent sources of these two scientific movements.

Now I would like to think that historically determined is not equivalent to past-dependent. And I think that it is possible to break out of this. It makes me think about economics -- I think for people who didn't come in with us, they're not aware of this history. And for them, the difference between theory and empirical work

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is more like that in economics, where $I$ don't see the kind of hostility that there is in -- which I hope will be a thing of the past -- in political science.

I think that the main source of theory in political science has been rational choice models. And rational choice is a very unfortunately divisive term in political science. One thing I think would help make progress is, and I'm not sure how this is going to happen, but for there to be greater sympathy for modeling on the part of political scientists. And I think this may need to involve some loosening on both sides.

Rational choice models are, in one respect, simply models that give human beings the credit for being intentional thinking beings. That should hardly be controversial. And at the other extreme, there's all kinds of reasons to think that human beings are not like the classic

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rational choice actors with perfect foresight and infinite computing capacities. There's a lot of work being done, much sponsored by NSF, about behavioral economics and how human beings are really slow and inefficient information processors and often have systematic deviations from rationality.

I think political science would be a lot better off this kind of idea was associated with the conventional view of modeling and theory, and that might overcome some of the hostility to theory which in political science, $I$ think, is partly driven by the high entry costs of mathematical sophistication, which $I$ think are higher than they are for empirical work, and partly what $I$ consider a pretty irrational hostility to modeling in this rational choice tradition.

I think progress is being made, but I think -- I'm discouraged by the amount

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of resistance to this. I'm less discouraged now because I'm not in an environment of an ordinary political science department. But it's never ceased to amaze me how much hostility modeling generates among otherwise intelligent people in political science. Let me endorse and echo the comments that American politics is an artificial subfield. It's the most arrogant of the area studies and the idea that American politics is unique is something that's certainly true, but this uniqueness is better understood in a comparative framework. And I'd just like to endorse the idea that there be domestic politics. I've suggested in my memo that John Londregen is studying American politics, and American politics includes South and North and his book is a marvelous combination of empirical work and theoretical work. And in that sense, I'd like to think that American politics, the

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study of American politics can go forward.
But it's not just Western
Hemisphere politics, it's a study of domestic political processes, wherever the location.

I once said something that I wish I hadn't said -- and I'll say it again because I think this is a friendly audience. In another context I -- what were cultural, the residual explanation for things that you couldn't put in models, I said culture is not a variable.

Actually, the more I think about it, the more $I$ have to recognize that culture is a variable and it's a pretty important variable. And one thing I'd like to see is a more scientific way of measuring and incorporating culture as a variable rather than as a residual explanation for things that can't be explained otherwise.

MR. SCIOLI: Becky Morton.
MS. MORTON: These guys didn't

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leave me very much. You know, I basically see the reason for the divide pretty much the same as Bill and John have talked about. I mean, empirical work developed sooner, has a longer tradition. Theory's been playing catch-up. I think that's a big issue. I also think that one of the reasons why empirical work has a better hold is -- you know, you come into graduate school, these students typically have very little math backgrounds, if any -- I mean, many haven't taken any math since high school. If they had calculus in high school, they didn't have to take it in college and so they don't really know any math.

And they come in and, well, you know, there are these empirical software programs where you can do some very complex things, and you still don't ever need to know any math. And we, unfortunately, have a lot of empirical people out there in

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political science who really don't know what they're doing.

So I think that that's a serious problem, because they just come in and they learn how to start up, put the data in, and they run regressions, and they really don't have any clue of what they're doing. And I think that there are lots and lots of programs like that. And I've seen it at Iowa and I've seen it at Houston -- even at Iowa, where we had required math class, they end one semester and it just seemed to go out their ears and they still didn't know what they were doing.

Whereas when you do theory, you actually do kind of have to know what you're doing, because there are these referees. And the standards I see often for theory in political science are extremely high. So I think that it's much harder to do theory. And I think that the students come in, they look down the road, and they want to get

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jobs, and they want to do something that can get published, and there's a big emphasis in our graduate programs in getting articles out and getting out in 4 or 5 years, while there is a much easier route if you just use that empirical side.

Maybe you might take a little of that formal theory, but only the light stuff. They don't want to really take the difficult stuff because that's just way too much of an investment.

And there's got to be some change in that. I mean, I think that that -- as long as that continues -- I mean, eventually I think these things will correct themselves, as I think Chris sort of hinted. But it needs a push. I mean, it's just going to take a long time if we just let it go on and on as it is.

I think part of it is because our students have these other motives when they come to undergraduate school and they take

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political science courses, and now I'm in the department of politics, you know, this is, like, really scary. But at least I'm not in government -- but anyway, at NYU it's the Department of Politics, not even political science.

So I really think that, you know, this fact that the empirical work developed sooner and then we had these canned programs that allow people to do empirical work without having to really know any math.

I also think that a big source of the problem is this anti-rational choice thing. I think it kind of goes both sides -- I mean, I think that when I read some of the stuff in political science about rational choice, it's much more defensive and, you know, out there than some of the stuff $I$ read in economics. And I think that that's partly because rational choice modelers in political science had to fight such a big battle just to be heard. And I

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think that, you know, there might be some need to lighten up a little bit.

And then some of the early conceptions of the way rational choice was explained to political scientists emphasized the self-interest nature, it emphasized certain things that, you know, political scientists really found offensive, and many political scientists don't know that things -- they haven't read beyond that. I mean, there's, you know, a lot of what is taught in the political -- you know, introduction to research design classes about what theory is is very old stuff, you know, like Downes. And they read the whole Downes and they spend a lot of time talking about it, and they don't read some of the more, you know, stuff published in the last 40 years.

This is not a good way to
introduce students to the current state of formal theory, because they're seeing this

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really old stuff that has a very particular rational-choice bent that they find offensive. And they find the other more psychological stuff they're getting taught, that maybe doesn't have any formal theory context, more appealing. We really talked about the math part.

Again, you know, I basically think that American politics -- what needs to happen is we need to stop thinking about American politics as American politics, as these guys have already said. I do think in American politics, though -- or, I guess, in domestic politics -- I shouldn't use this term, then -- there is this division between using formal theory for looking at elite stuff, like legislatures and executives, and talking about voter behavior.

There's a lot of theories out there about elections and voting behavior, but there really is an unwillingness to accept that work. And when we get to

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voting, in an individual-level analysis in political science, we tend to drop all the theory, as far as I can see. I mean, there's some theory, but it's not making the same headway as it is studying Congress.

And I really think, again, this is because of an unwillingness to think about voters as decision-makers and the attractiveness of the Michigan voter model of what's going on in elections.

So I see that area as probably the weakest area in domestic politics, in terms of theory. There's lots of the empirical work out there, but there doesn't seem to be the connection to theory that I would like to see.

So I guess that's about --
MR. SCIOLI: Would anyone else like to weigh in on this subfield of American politics that we've just eliminated?
(Laughter)
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SPEAKER: Could I just ask a question? Do the Americanists agree that Congress studies are the most advanced and that they come closest to meeting the ideal that Jim laid out?

MS. MORTON: Oh. Actually, I
think the theory's advanced. I think there's a lot to be said -- needed for the empirical work in the sense -- and I think that's why we need to move beyond thinking about Congress, and we need to think about legislatures, because I think too much of the theory is explaining how this particular rule in Congress works.

And then when we can't really do this comparative analysis because -- except maybe over time, and then there's all kinds of problems, right, and so we have to do it across legislatures. So --

MR. ALT: If I could just step in there. I think it isn't even a matter, in my eyes of just saying we want to go from

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Congress to legislatures. Legislatures are still too big, you want to go, I think, down a level to stylized problems and the mechanics for solving them -- delegation, bicameralism -- you know, things that are institutional features of legislatures. And then by all means study America if you do bicameralism -- kind of like __ along with Germany and other places that have -- you discover that bicameralism itself varies in interesting ways once you're looking at it.

As I said in the first paragraph of my memo, if you really want to study America's institutions, a great way to do comparative politics is to study the states, because you have about 47 replications of industrial societies with, you know, open economies that have these bicameral legislatures and a separate executive -- and that's data.

So, you know, it seems to me part of the answer to this conundrum is that
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American Politics should become Comparative Politics by using the states as data much more than has been the case in the past, even though, in the common spirit of all these memos, I'm happy to say that good things are happening. You know, there's an APSA short course on state data sources this year, and that's exactly how the infrastructure gets going, it builds up these possibilities.

And in the same way, I'd like to see comparativists tackle, along with many other things, the kinds of institutional mechanics, things like delegation or bicameralism or whatever, what I think are the stuff of which a real integrative comparative political science would be made. MR. ALDRICH: I think one of the reasons that the modeling part of legislative politics seems so advanced is because it seems to be addressing things that the rest of legislative politics

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scholars find substantively interesting -the structure of Congress, the stuff that people who don't do rational choice find interesting. So there's this sort of sympathy that's been a sort of positive development for the encouragement of what kinds of problems and how it developed over the last 15, 20 years.

MR. KEECH: One thing that the study of legislatures -- or to address it as Congress, referring to the U.S. -- but I have said that I think the study of Congress is the most advanced, and thereby agree with you. One thing that makes this true is that it's received so much attention and there's so much manpower and NSF money and so on behind the study.

There's something natural about the setting, though, that $I$ think makes it have a lot of potential. This is an area in which preferences of constituencies and the attitudes of voters and citizens are

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systematically brought to bear on public policy and law making. And there's the study of individual behavior, there's the study of legislative behavior, but one thing that makes Congress particularly challenging and, if we're going to expand our language, legislatures particularly challenging and uniquely political -- that is, relevant to political science -- is that, unlike other disciplines, this is a place -- oh, it's not a -- let me -- scratch that.

The relationship between what public wants and what governments do is, really, central to the study of politics. And that's one reason that -- I mean, it's not just the amount of attention and money that's been put into the study of Congress, but it's that feature of bringing together publics and policy making that makes it uniquely part of the subject matter of political science and it has a lot of potential for advancement that has been

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fulfilled, I think, in the study in the past.

MR. ALDRICH: A second problem is that -- a second dimension of this is that not only is it where people actually, you know, visibly strategize -- that's nice for applying strategic modeling to -- but it's also, looking at it as uniquely political in addition, is it's one of the places where we can observe how they're -- you know, rule makers as well as policy makers, and how to control -- might want to control the rule makers is a frustrating problem of politics as well.

MR. SCIOLI: So is it the sense, then, that this is where the greatest gains have been in the linkage between formal and empirical -- the legislative American politics sub-subfield? MR. ACHEN: It's been a lot of work. Not precisely the same thing. MS. ZINNES: Lots of articles.

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MR. ALT: I mean, if you meant within American politics -- within the study of American politics, I'd probably find it easier to say yes than, you know, across the field of political science as a whole. MR. SIMON: Maybe this discussion points out to one of the difficulties in developing the political science theory. In economics, one would never talk about which subfield is the most natural for developing a theory. But the fact that there are so many subfields, or a number of subfields, and that the approach to each can be very different $I$ think is possibly one of the barriers to doing the kinds of things we're talking about.

MR. ACHEN: I actually think that
I may disagree with Becky a little bit. I actually think there has been a pretty substantial influence of former models on the voting research side. And I've sent Becky references and so forth hoping some of

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them would get into the book that she did with Chuck, and so far I haven't been very persuasive.

MS. MORTON: Well, let me just say that's Chuck's fault.

MR. ACHEN: I never doubted that. MS. MORTON: And he knows that I'm saying that.

MR. ACHEN: But, you know, part of the difficulty, of course, is that an individual voter is not a strategic actor in any important sense -- you can't influence what anybody else does on your own. So it's mostly, you know, decision theoretic rather than game theoretic, but the Bayesian models of learning, for example, and how voters update, and differences in information or class voters, as well as some recent work on turnout that's been explicitly timed, the theoretical model, to the econometric stuff. All that's been done with the individual voting data.

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And it kind of seems to me it's been quite interesting and, by my lights, quite closely tied to the empirical evidence in ways that is much harder to do with legislators, where you've got so many fewer observation points.

So I guess I'm not convinced that the voting field is bereft of this connection. In fact, it seems to me that some of the best opportunities for tying theory and data lie exactly there and are being exploited.

MS. MORTON: I guess I have to admit that $I$ think that my view of the field is covered by referee reports and things like that.

MR. ACHEN: That'll cover
anybody's --
MS. MORTON: And since $I$ work in
it, I see the problems in it more bothersome than, you know -- so, you're right. There is lots of good work out there in different

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elections.
I should add also, we haven't
talked about experiments -- you know, Richard mentioned that and Jim did. And certainly in terms of domestic politics of looking at a lot of the former models have been developed for American, these things have also had a big history in terms of experimental work. And experimental research that's formal theory based is very much a testing theory. And I think that that's a really important part of the research of domestic in votings of elections in particular. And Cheryl certainly -- her work on that.

MR. BRADY: I think one of the problems with voting behavior, too, is that we draw a lot upon psychological research. And if anybody spends much time reading psychological research and one darned experiment after another, you start -- at least I start screaming after awhile that I

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wish there was a theory that put some of these variables together.

Because it -- everybody's got their little variable they've done experiments on -- yes, looks like there's some evidence, that has an impact; then another variable, another variable. And you just want somebody to sit down in psychology and say can you put some of these together into some kind of elegant formulation.

Now, maybe we're going to get that from the behavioral economics direction. They may be the people who actually start to do that, which would be enormously helpful, I think, to voting researchers.

MR. ALDRICH: Why isn't it us who are doing this? Why were you -- were you looking for a psychologist to do it? Isn't it our job?

MR. BRADY: Yes.
MR. SIMON: One advantage voting has over almost any other subfield in any

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area is the clear choice; $I$ mean the distinct sharpness of the outcome. I mean, economists have price, but what's the price of a car? Are you going to -- of a Dodge or van. But votes, Florida notwithstanding, are the sharpest measure we have in almost any science, including physics, of an outcome.

MR. SCIOLI: I don't think we've ever heard it characterized that way, but I'll not forget your statement. MR. SIMON: I'll fight to defend it. MR. YOUNG: Can $I$ jump in with a question to Chris? What -- although I'm perfectly willing to accept Bayesian models and this, that, and the other, but I mean you expressed some enthusiasm for their ability to possibly explain certain futures that turn out. The trouble in my experience with those kinds of papers, though, is it's very rare to actually consider an

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alternative model that would do just as well.

In other words, a typical kind of paper that says, well, now, here's a rather fancy, high-end sort of model, I'll say based on basing updating, just to take an instance, that explains the fact, which may be quite well-supported in data. But then there's no attempt to say, well, but actually here are one or two other theories lying around that could, or might not, explain the same data; possibly even more parsimonious theories.

All I'm saying is that that is not a typical way you see a paper written. And I think that this is related to our quest here, although I'm not quite prepared to say how one changes the standard, so to speak. MR. ACHEN: Well, as you know from the paper I wrote, I'm a skeptic. I talked explicitly about Bayesian models of voters and the problems that they have with data.

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So I think my position's pretty explicit on this.

Nevertheless, as Henry just said, the voting literature comes out of social psychology, for the most part. And there's a ton of empirical generalizations. One of the nice features of the Bayesian framework is that you can generate those empirical generalizations just by turning the crank, proven theorems. A lot of people have done that.

Now, you might argue some other framework could also derive these 12 propositions. Nobody's done that. I guess I think that the burden of proof is on the people working in the other frameworks.

MR. SCIOLI: The subfield designations that we've made have certainly been artificial, as Jim Alt has claimed, no longer being a comparativist and as we pigeon-hole John Freeman. But this might segue into another subfield.

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And I guess my experience has been that in terms of comparative government and comparative politics, we've tried many things at NSF to try to jump-start the comparative politics subfield and to try to move it away from, I guess, the way we were all trained, except for Jim, in graduate school looking at area studies.

Can you share with us your view on how this field is progressing?

MR. ALT: Well, I said most of what I had to say in the memo. Let me just hit the highlights. Let me start -- I do want to start, for a second, because there is a sort of underlying theme here. There are a couple that are sort of floating around this discussion, but they're worth articulating.

The first is that I think this conference is a very good idea -- a very good idea, $I$ think as all the memos made clear, not because there's such a huge

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problem in the field. In fact, as most of the writers said, this is a problem of science, not a problem of political science. And in fact in some ways it's just a reflection of specialization and cumulation of results and things like that.

And so I didn't want to echo what John Aldrich said in his opening sentences. When I was a kid breaking into this field, my heroes were people like Dick McKelvey, Gerry Kramer, Norman Schofield, who were innovators both in theory and in methods. And that was a very good thing for me because I knew right away that I didn't have their abilities and I'd better find an easier way to make a living. And I discovered computing and empirical work and never looked back.

> So that was, sort of, my first
personal reflection, you know -- some of the things we want people to do, people don't do in individual pieces of research because

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it's really, really hard and you have to be really, really smart to do it. But that doesn't mean you shouldn't ask, right? Because that's the goal of science, to cumulate by individual efforts what would be beyond all but, you know, maybe everybody, or the very, very best to do on their own. When I think about the way I work, this is just the way I set out the memo. I figured what I could contribute here, maybe, were some thoughts on what's special about comparative.

So I thought a little bit about how I work and that's why I had those kind of, you know, five steps to a paper in there. You have a puzzle, you have verbal theory, you have a formalization, you have a notion of a test, and you have data.

And actually, I don't have anything very deep to say about that, except that it was fun to think about those steps because in many ways a lot of the problems

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that we have in comparative come from different ones of those steps being dropped out of the enterprise.

The first one that I sort of dismiss is still the core problem -- used to be the core problem: That's a great idea, but how on earth are you going to get the data? The data, you know, was the principal constraint. And I'm happy to say that a lot of NSF money, a lot of individual effort, and a lot of development of techniques for imputation to solve the missing-data problem.

On the whole, that is not where I would start the discussion in comparative politics. Other things are interesting, like people who leap from verbal theory to testing without going down the road of formalization in-between. And there I do have something to say, so I'll get there.

But it seems to me, first and foremost, if you think about it the way I

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But I think, you know, that's sort of the first thing to think about, is that even in the institutional literature, most institutions are pretty big. If we're talking about countries over epochs, we are not talking about actors that have the beliefs and preferences of individuals that characterize rational models. And so dealing with the aggregation problem -- which, interestingly, was actually the core of Jim's and Frank's original proposal and, maybe surprisingly, wasn't picked up that much by people writing

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for the workshop -- but that is a real, real problem. I think the best way to see how real a problem it is is to look at, say, someone like Avner Greif, who would be a contender for the successor to my early heroes award, who has spent 10 or 12 years trying to reason out a model for what is in fact a very simple institution, the Podesta in medieval Genoa or wherever it was.

I call it a simple institution because the Podesta was only one person. There were only two families in conflict that he was supposed to keep the peace between. And he was only allowed to have 20 soldiers, no committees, and he didn't need an affirmative vote of a majority of his soldiers before taking action.
So really you would think this would be an institution you could reason about, and Grief set himself the challenge of deriving this institution as the equilibrium solution to a particular

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problem. And the last time I saw a draft, 12 years and some 500 manuscript pages later, he's not close.

So never underestimate the difficulty of these aggregation problems in getting to the equilibrium analysis of institutions -- would be kind of the main theme, what's the problem for comparative? It starts by looking at big things and it has this characteristic problem.

The problem we've all heard much more about is that when you turn from the puzzle to the verbal theory, there's no agreement whatsoever in the field about what the verbal theory is about, and that's why I love citing that book by Lichbach and Zuckerman, Rationality, Culture, Structure. That's it. That's all you need to know, the title of that book. What should our dependent variables be? Well, rationality, culture, structure, and you're rolling. So there's a book that's much more than a table

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leveler and I think they're right.
I think the line for the sermon part of this I didn't think of when I wrote the memo, but it occurred to me, particularly because many people drew comparisons with economics, to talk as I do about a puzzle and verbal theory in political science. I have one, you know, where is the theoretical hook to hang this puzzle on -- is exactly the thing economists finesse by presenting an intuition and a stylized fact.

Far more economics articles begin with a statement that something is a stylized fact and presenting an intuition of a model which addresses that fact than you ever see in political science. And it's good, because the articles that do that in economics are the only ones, typically, that I can understand.
And so I think -- I believe, Bill, this speaks to your "importance" point, you
know, as well, because the stylized fact is the presentation of the puzzle. That kind of helps you get it right. It's important. And the intuition of the theory is what helps the audience get to, you know, the relevance to solving the puzzle. And so I don't know how we do that in political science, but boy, we should have courses on presenting the intuition and the stylized fact in order to motivate the reader to get through the rest of the paper. Having said that, when we turn to testing, this stuff is familiar, the debate between empiricism and understanding the debate between comparative and area studies. I have got nothing new to say about that. When people ask me about area studies, I -- you know, to address Frank's question -- I just tell them it's up to you. I ask them what they're interested in and if geography appears in their answers, as far as I'm concerned they're area studies

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scholars. And if no words that describe geography appear in their answers, then they're not. I think it's that simple and we can leave it there.

I think there are lots of problems around formalization in comparative. I mentioned three characteristic things that you hear a lot. One is what was there in the model that couldn't have been said in words? All too often the answer is "nothing," because in fact the model was an intuition followed by enough notation to make you believe it was a formal model, but in actual fact it wasn't.

Another thing you hear a lot, and we've talked about it, is that the models are all about features of American institutions and they somehow don't fit comparative. I don't think that's true at all. I think even a quick look at the works of Cox, Huber, Tsebelis, Londregan, who's been mentioned a bunch, Laver and Shepsly,

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mentioned in another -- makes it clear that what's happening is that people are at most taking a feature of American institutions -something which is an interesting problem better understood than some others, in the case of American politics -- and taking it off to other appropriate contexts.

I think there is, you know, not just the books, but there are lots of articles by Myerson and Diermeier and people like that that make me believe that the enterprise is really going well.

In terms of where is it going best in comparative, to give you your example, we can debate in parallel to the Congress literature in American -- I would look at the coalition duration, cabinet termination literature.

Fifteen years ago it was nothing. It was a couple of conjectures. Then some people conjectured that the conjectures weren't incompatible and somewhat

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generalized the model and provided some supporting data.

You see exactly in this scientific enterprise data running ahead of theory. We had intuitions, but the first people to set down a good bargaining theory that predicted the end of a cabinet were Lupia and Strom. Count me among those who think there are problems with that paper, but it's nevertheless very interesting and productive.

And then, of course, Diermeier and Stevenson do what you want them to do, they pick up that model and they actually derive a statistical model appropriate to the bargaining theory, and test it and show that the theory mostly doesn't work but sometimes does in some interesting ways. And I'm sure we'll move on from here.

That, to me, is a perfect example of the way in which a literature should develop. You know, and we should all be

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very happy that it is possible to do that in comparative politics. It's not perfect, but it's way ahead of where it was 15 years ago. And it's pretty clear what the weak points are and what the debates and arguments are, and that -- when I say it's pretty clear, it's pretty clear to theorists, on the one hand, that the question is where are the voters; and it's pretty clear to empiricists that the problems with the data are whatever they are. I don't participate in that literature anymore, so I don't know what the current wave of data problems are.

So anyway, it seems to me we're progressing very well. Another thing that's characteristic of comparative is just, though, that there are so many topics that people want to talk about -- failed democracy, absence of the rule of law, ethnic political strife. I listed half a dozen off the top of my head in the middle of the, I guess it's the third page of the

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memo. And, you know, we just need modelers and theorists to turn more to some of these. What can we do better? Well, I make two big and a small pitch at the end. I think the biggest thing we can do better is to do a much better job, and here I really stand with Dick, on getting experimental methods into the curriculum. And I say this not just because, you know, experiments have something unique to contribute, but because right now there are such unbelievable innovations, methodological innovations, taking place in the mechanics of experimentation that comparativists, particularly, need to get into this.

What I mean by that is Dick has a pitch in his memo for lab experiments. And what I observe around me now is that lab experiments have left the lab. That is to say, the lab is Rick Wilson's microcomputer heading off to any context you want and

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addressing for the first time, I think, in a really good way the external validity problem of labs with college students, by actually not being either in a lab or dealing with college students when he does his experiments. This kind of innovation is something that our people need to see as a useful tool. And so we're trying to push that.

The other thing I think, and others said this as well, is the post-doctoral fellows are just enormously important. I don't understand, coming out of comparative with its area studies people, why every area scholar says, thinks it is perfectly natural that a PhD does not equip you to teach, it should be backed by a year or two in a foreign country, learning another culture.

Why the hell don't we say the same thing? A PhD doesn't make you a professor, it makes you ready to go and learn modeling

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by doing, you know, on someone's research project with someone who is good at taking a model out of a theory and finding data and making a statistical model that addresses the theoretical model.

I mean, I believe we all believe we have people who are capable of doing that, who young PhDs could watch do it, participate in doing it, and learn something valuable in the process. And I just think we need to reorient our notion of training to include that. And I reiterate the point that that's such a natural way for area scholars, you know, to think. And I think even in comparative we'd probably be able to get their support.

So, that's my speech.
MR. SCIOLI: John Freeman.
MR. FREEMAN: I'll try to be
brief. In terms of a -- I guess I'd characterize this as a metasplit, and try to fix ideas in the way that Carl in

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particular, and what is this all about. I think John encountered this first-hand last year at the APSA planning committee with the attack on science and political science. There's a whole group in comparative politics -- I'm not sure I'd call them area studies people, I think they're people who have at best a different conception of science, and at worst are anti-scientific.

So, Carl, when you talk about the difficulty of our concepts, they would argue that there is no cross-culturally meaningful conception of democracy. There might be a cross-culturally meaningful conception of velocity, but not democracy. And Lynch wrote a book 25, 30 years ago, right, the idea of social science is denied the possibility of cross-culturally meaningful concepts like democracy and this is a barrier to science. Peyton would argue that the

BETA REPORTING
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amongst dyed-in-the-wool comparativists, the first question they ask, well, how long were you in the country. They don't ask if you know the calculus of variations or whether you know anything about Bayesian estimations. How long were you in Vienna? If you were in Vienna 3 weeks, no credibility. Do you speak German? No. No credibility.

You have to go there, you have to learn the language. And that's a big investment. So you have to learn computing, you have to learn statistics, you have to know mathematics, and you have master a language and a culture. And that ups the cost. I mean, I think that makes comparative politics a little more challenging.

Disciplinary history. John, I'm not sure we had a Riker. God knows, I think the world of John Sprague and Adam Przeworski -- this is public, right? God

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knows, Bob Bates is one of the greatest human beings who ever lived, but, you know, Riker was pretty special. Riker was an incredibly special person. And my experience with this, in intellectual history in Cambridge, was in a dining room at MIT, when Lucien Pye talked about the crisis in sequences and development project that was funded by SSRC, and how they spent, at V. O'Key's urging, about 20 years working on predicting when democracies survive and when they develop.

And then these two guys at
Minnesota named Holt and Turner wrote an article in the APSR in 1974 that said they had no research design, no methods, no theory, and that they had basically wasted tens of millions of dollars accomplishing nothing. Now I know I'm in trouble, but it was my advisor, so I guess it's okay.

So we didn't really have a Riker to take us by the hand and show us in the

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same way. I think Adam Przeworski did a lot of good, John Sprague, Bob Bates, and others, but we really lack a central figure in our intellectual history, and I think that's an important factor.

The absence and inability to collect data, something that Dina has worked on for years, is clearly a barrier. And people doing survey research in Russia, I think, can talk a lot about that -- a country that Frank and I tried to study compare.

And Jim's absolutely right, what I would call a resistance to reductionism. Jim calls it an emphasis on macro-politics. People want to write the unified field theory of politics. And they want to do what Bob Holt calls social astronomy -- the big bang, the origin of the universe, why are there revolutions, the origins of the state.

And they're oriented that way and

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they're taught that way and their seminars are constantly posing big, giant questions like that. And it never bothered Bob Holt. He said, well, we're just social astronomers, you know, we're doing big things, we can't experiment. We just watch the universe. We watch these big, big phenomena.

But that creates a problem because, of course, you can't -- you know, problems of scale. Chris taught me about that a long time ago. You get 13, 14 equations and things unravel real fast. Standard errors get big real fast. There aren't closed form solutions and there aren't -- well, maybe there are if everything's quadratic, but I don't think I have to get into that.

> The outright spots, in addition to what Jim mentioned, I think he put his finger on one genre that really has made advance -- the study of cabinet duration, of

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cabinet equilibria, legislative process -- I stand corrected, I should have said legislative process. I think John Londregan is doing some of the very best work in the country, and every nickel you give him I think is a great investment -- as well as some others.

I would just add that the field of comparative political economy -- and I am nervous, and I hope Carl corrects -- I'm glad he mentioned epidemiology, because I think we do spend too much time trying to be -- at least I do, being like economists. But there are fellows like Torben Iverson, one of Jim's colleagues, who's doing some very important work on decentralized monetarism and what's the best form of democratic governance.

How do you match wage bargaining institutions with different kinds of central bank institutions to produce room to maneuver in and -- certain mixes of

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macroeconomic outcomes that are preferable? And Torben's taken a step in this direction, too, although I don't think he's attained it a dynamic stochastic general equilibrium model. Few of us have done.

The barriers to advancing comparative politics, data. We really have made progress on data, but there's still some really big challenges there, especially in Central Europe, Southeast Asia, other places. We just don't have polling data, public opinion data, things we need to advance the field.

There's a lack of variety. If you're going to do macro studies, there is a lack of variety. I mean, how many Nebraskas do you have, Jim? You know, you need a few more unicameral states. We need a few more majoritarian countries. How many democratic socialist experiments do we really have -Yugoslavia? A real success, right? You know, there is a problem of a lack of

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variety. I don't how the astronomers deal with this -- more quasars or more whatever. But we do have that problem, especially if we're going to be macro oriented.

I don't know, Dick, if you can do cross-cultural experimentation in the same way you do it in the states. Will Arabs and Israelis go into a randomly assigned experiment and do all the things you want them to do? I don't know if crossculturally it's quite as easy, but I hope you can do it.

Last year, at one of Dina's
conferences, we saw a fascinating simulation study by, I think, one of Carl's students on genocide, on Rwanda. It was one of the most powerful presentations I've ever seen and one of the most difficult papers I ever had to critique. Maybe simulations will work, but when you talk about genocide in the great lakes region of Africa, I don't know. I mean, $I$ just don't know if that's how you

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attack it, with a mathematical model and computational methods and so on. Yet it's a vitally important topic and something we have to study.

And I guess I'll just end by saying again, $I$ recognize these are not just problems of comparative politics. The lack of variety, the inability to experiment, lack of data -- these are problems that plague all the different fields. But I do think comparative faces challenges, because we have to fight this big metasplit before we even get to this other question. And we lack a real -- a Riker in our history, I think, that really sets us apart.

MR. SCIOLI: Do others want to weigh in?

MR. ALDRICH: Can I ask a
question? It sounds like -- I mean, listening to you guys, it sounds like where progress is going to be most likely made is, you know, in probably advanced industrial

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democracies.
All these problems seem like easiest to solve there. And is it -- does it make more sense to sort of emanate out -if you were, oh, let's say at an NSF conference trying to decide how to divide up money, is that what you'd do with the money rather than -- and just say, you know, as incredible as it is, sorry, Africa, it's just almost impossible to imagine many good projects; sorry, you know, South Asia, or something?

MR. ALT: You might want to do that. That's a really good and big question. The reason you might want to do it, not be embarrassed to do it, is that most of the time when $I$ visit people in places like Mexico, they ask me questions like how should we restructure our institutions so our economy will work more like yours?

Of course, the answer to that for

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me is I don't have a clue. That's a little beyond the present boundaries of what the field feels it knows. But when I think about how you'd go about answering that, you probably would concentrate your resources on understanding the institutions in the advanced industrial societies, because you can't really tell people, you know, with any confidence at all -- or with a complete lack of confidence -- how to create institutions that have certain effects unless you understand the effects of those institutions in their target society. So, yes, you probably would, though I don't think you'd put all your resources there because you'd also want to understand why the institutions they currently had were doing what they were doing. But I think that's not an outrageous way to think about, you know, how to actually get people elsewhere interested. You can't study the transition until you

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understand what the transition is a transition to.

MR. YOUNG: Well, it's a huge -- I
mean, of course this is how political
scientists give up jobs to economists.
Because an economist would have immediately
said, "Well, of course we know how to do
that. Here's a five-point program." It's completely wrong, as it turns out.

MR. ALT: Well, that's how we get
those jobs back.
MR. BRADY: I'd like to talk for a
moment about the two strategies by which
formal modeling can be brought to
comparative. One strategy we've talked
about. I think that's taking the micromodels by and large developed in American politics and bringing them to other countries, like studies of legislatures and so forth, or even mass behavior.

But there's another way to go, which is -- I might characterize as the Mike

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Wallerstein kind of approach. And Jim Robinson, my colleague at Berkeley who we recently hired takes this approach. The models look like growth theory models or macro models. They usually have very simple notions -- there's two classes in society, or maybe three if you're getting really complicated. And then those models have the great virtue that comparativists actually think that way, so that Jim can talk in our department to a lot of comparativists who would find the micro modelers impossible to understand, and who also would be dealing with problems that a lot of the comparativists don't find important, which I think is a mistake on their part. But nevertheless, that's the way they feel.

But Jim's made a tremendous bridge, I think, to the comparative faculty in our department. I have some skepticism sometimes about these macro models for all the reasons people worry about macro models,

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but it sure is one strategy, I think, to engage comparativists. And I would hope that we at least push that somewhat farther and see where it's going and make sure that we don't give it up.

That has also gotten some impetus from the fact that economists now are more and more concerned with some of these issues with the collapse of the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, and they're trying to discover explanations for what went on -some of which are micro, by the way, but many of which are also macro kinds of questions. So there's real points of contact there between economists and political scientists as well. MR. SCIOLI: Other observations? I was struck at the discussion between the big problems and the attack on the big questions and political science's reluctance and certainly Becky and Dick have experienced this over the years. And I

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guess we had criticized the psychologists for the kind of small questions, certainly the short prefaces to their articles, 12 pages with here's the problem, you know all the previous research that's been done on it, here's the method, here's the experiment, and here's the outcome. I mean, can we have it both ways?

MS. ZINNES: No, but you can
publish a lot more articles that way. MR. SCIOLI: At a cost. Is this an appropriate place for a break? Norman or Bill, any questions before we leave this section?

MR. BRADY: Could I ask where Bill's going off to? You said he was leaving --

MR. SCIOLI: Sure, if you want to gossip, that's great. Let's get a cup of coffee and Bill can --

MR. BUTZ: I'm going to a small private consulting firm that does work in BETA REPORTING
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less-developed countries -- Eastern Europe, former Soviet states. And they -- AID, Asian Development Bank, and all that, they specialize in restructuring central banking systems, statistical systems, and micro finance, and I'm going to be responsible for trying to build up a capability of poverty monitoring analysis and policy, and also responsibility for the statistical system.

MR. BRADY: Good luck.
MR. SCIOLI: There is an NSF panel -- a mission-like panel, I guess, will be constituted by our human resources folks. The competition for that position has closed. And I assume in several weeks, Norman, we'll begin to get the applications and begin to think hard about who might -none of that has happened yet, is that correct, Norman?

MR. BRADBURN: Oh, no -- yes, it
has -- I mean, we have -- all the
applications are in. They're being -- a

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first evaluation's been done by the upstairs people, which sort of weeds out the __ incompetent. They should begin the serious work of winnowing it down and bringing the people in to talk, I hope by the end of the month.

MR. SCIOLI: Well, we have coffee. We'll resume in 15 minutes.
(Recess)
MR. SCIOLI: Gentlemen, can we resume?

MR. MORTON: And ladies.
MR. SCIOLI: But you're seated. MS. MORTON: Well, what about

Dina?
MR. SCIOLI: An important piece of housekeeping. I'm going to circulate an attendance sheet. Please -- this is the means by which you become remunerated. And if you don't mind, just to be sure, print your Social Security number. The government payroll office will not release a check
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unless we have a correct --
MR. SIMON: But if we see each other's Social Security number, there's --

MR. SCIOLI: You can provide it to us privately, if you would.

Also, it's our objective at NSF to extract as much from you as we can while you're here. And I was talking to Cheryl during the break and then I approached Bill Keech directly.

Jim and I can think of 20 more people that we might invite to workshops. But it's the next 20 after that that we're going to have trouble with. And it's the younger scholars. I mean, now that we've identified this as being the over-the-hill gang -- and that's keeping it in layers.
(Laughter)
Could you, either now or at a
later point, e-mail us or scribble down on the pads names of others whom we might invite in subsequent months to participate

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in workshops, particularly junior folks who maybe are getting the kind of training we're talking about here and who could be excellent resource persons, et cetera.

MR. KEECH: Tenured -- or junior tenured?

MR. SCIOLI: Either way. We'll do our background checks as appropriate. MR. SIMON: How did this group pass?

MR. SCIOLI: Well, you know -SPEAKER: Don't answer that. Take the Fifth on that.

MR. GRANATO: We'll start with
international relations -- Dina?
MS. ZINNES: Okay. First let me just say what a pleasure it is to be amongst this group of people. I have to admit that when I got those initial memos I sort of put them on the side burners, thinking, well, okay, I'll look at them eventually, because I was worried about the fights and the

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antagonisms that $I$ thought would emerge. And it was with great delight that I read those and discovered, my gosh, there really is a consensus going on here.

And listening to people this morning confirms that. I find that it's wonderful to see that both the empirical and statistical side and the modeling side really all sort of agree on certain things. And I think that's a fabulous beginning. So it's a real pleasure to be here. Why is there a split in IR? Well, I think $I$ addressed that in the memo and it's been said a number of times here. It's historical. It happened that way. I think what happened was people came into the profession with a mindset that was much more quantitative, empirical-based, and that just spread -- it was easier to spread.

But I think it is perpetuated now by confusion -- a confusion over what is mathematics, what is statistics versus

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mathematical modeling. They're all math, right? Statistics is a branch of mathematics, after all. What is theory? What is a model relative to theory? And how do you do science? What is science?

I mean, people thought for a long time that science was counting things, collecting data, looking at empirical observations.

And in IR that really was an important step, because we did have "theories," big theories -- balance of power, you know, realism, idealism, all those wonderful big things which were very ill-defined. But nobody looked at observations.

Nobody went out and actually examined the way nations interacted with each other. And the notion that you could do that was a really important notion. And so in came the huge quantitative influx.

And I think once it was there, I
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think people were really very confused over what's the difference between doing -testing a hypothesis and actually setting up a theory. For a long time those were one and the same thing. A theory was simply a hypothesis, right? And then you go out and you sort of gather data and set up a null and test it and so on.

So I think there has been a tremendous amount of confusion. And I think the confusion continues. I'm struck by Jim Alt's comment that it's really very, very hard to do political formal modeling. Frankly, I think it's very, very hard to the statistical thing nowadays, too. I long since gave up on some of the fancy terminology and technical aspects of that area.

I think the problem that I see right now is -- and this is why I think people feel these things are hard -- is that we have lost sight of the most basic

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ingredient here, which is the ideas, the theory. That is to say, we no longer -- we think in terms of what $I$ call cookie cutters. And I think this is true in the modeling world as well as in the statistical world -- you learn, what, I don't know what is the latest thing in time series analysis. Or you learn something in theory, the limited information or whatever. And you squeeze your problem into one of those things, and it doesn't matter whether it's a time series equation or a game theoretic model.

We think in terms of theory as having these little cookie cutters that we take and we push our problem, our question into those cookie cutters. And whether it's a model or a statistical model doesn't matter, because once you start thinking that way, yes, it does get very, very hard. Because then you really do have to sort of move up there in terms of the advancements

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of game theoretic models or in terms of statistical models.

And I think we have to go back to realizing that what is fascinating and fun for us is the theoretical aspect. That is, thinking in terms of -- and I'll use Jim's terminology -- thinking in terms of puzzles. I don't think we train students to think in terms of puzzles.

I think we tell them a lot about literature and I think we tell them a lot about statistics and we say go find thee a problem and stick the two together and make up a dissertation.

And I don't think that's the way you advance science. I think you have to think in terms of things that are puzzling. Why are you interested in something? And that -- you know, the student goes through political science training, comes up against a dissertation, and says now what? Why does he come to that point?

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I would say he hasn't got any questions. He has an interest -- he may be interested in Congress or he may be interested in war or conflict or something. But he hasn't got a question. And I think the reason he hasn't got a question is because we don't train him to think in terms of questions.

I think we have to start -- and I won't speak to other fields, but I think in international politics we have to teach literature -- which I think, you know, the student has to know that -- from the perspective of seeing things that are puzzling. Well, what's puzzling? Puzzling is something that doesn't fit with the way everybody has been thinking about the problem. Why is it democracies don't fight? That issue is so interesting. Well, because democracies do fight, but they don't fight other democracies. Now, that's sort of puzzling, and that begins to pose a

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question.

Why is that important? Because it's out of those puzzles that comes theory. What is a theory? To me, a theory is nothing more than a story. It's a story that you tell yourself in an effort to try to put into context something that doesn't go together. And if we would go back to the notion of those stories -- and when I train graduate students, I try to point out to them that you are doing this all the time. Every time you practically walk down the street, read a book, see a movie, whatever, you are constantly faced with things that don't quite make sense from your perspective. And that triggers you to start thinking about what is going on. That trigger then leads you to a story. And that story, that explanation, is the theory. Now, what's a model? A model -to me, mathematics is just a nice way of being able to translate that idea, that

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> story into some form that allows you to generate some conclusions. Why do it that way instead of verbally? Because there are rules. People spent years and years and years, centuries, developing rules that will tell you how to get from here to there. If you set it up in this form, you come out with these kinds of conclusions. But I think the problem is we teach people the statistics and even the models from the perspective of a method instead of from the perspective: Here's a question you're interested in. Okay, here is a puzzle, here's a story you're trying to tell. Now, you've got the story elaborated. This is your explanation. it into something that will get you somewhere? And I think it's a terrible shame that we think to a large extent -- in IR, certainly, and probably in general -- in game theoretic terms. There's more out

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there in terms of the modeling languages that we have available. I think there are lots of interesting ways to cast problems. Yes, if you think in terms of voters, congressmen, there are strategic factors involved, maybe game theory is the right way to go. But I don't think we should shut it off at that point.

But we don't have any way of training people to be even aware of the extent to which there are these other languages that we could use, other models that we could put our questions into so that we could then derive something more interesting.

So I -- my feeling is that we teach people these methods, whether they be game theory or whether they be statistical models, and then they search around for some kind of a question and shove it into that format.

I would like, personally, to see a

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training program at the graduate level in which you start the student by thinking of questions from a puzzle standpoint. I've done that in a number of graduate classes, where I talk about something -- you know, artists have little sketchbooks, they go around, they sort of see somebody and then make a little sketch of that person, and they use it later on in another situation. And I have them keep a "sketchbook" of these sorts of puzzles. And I say, look, when you're reading your literature in your literature classes, ask yourself does it make sense to you. And if it doesn't, why? Could you explain it?

The interesting thing is a lot of these people have an awful time finding these puzzles because so much of the teaching of literature is from the perspective of who said what, okay, and how that builds on who said what before, et cetera, as opposed to what's puzzling about

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this whole thing.
So I would like to start the whole training program from the perspective of teaching people, teaching graduate students how to pull questions, puzzles out of the literature. And then, once they begin to get that -- and I would just do it verbally. That is, don't get them so tangled up in fancy mathematics. Just start verbalizing what it is you want to say.

Once you've got that, then look at the way the story operates; that is, what are the important ingredients of the story. And search for an appropriate forum, an appropriate language, mathematical language, that will capture the key ingredients of your story.

I think it would be fascinating to take political science questions and see if we couldn't sort of cast them in generic terms as having certain kinds of fundamental qualities. And then look across into the

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mathematics, theories of mathematics, and see what kinds of qualities of those languages parallel the ones that are in the political science kinds of questions.

In mathematics, you know, I mean, we do a lot of game theory, strategic decision making, rational choice sorts of things. We don't do very much with dynamic systems. There's practically nothing that's been done with graph theoretic notions, which I think have fabulously interesting potential for some of the kinds of questions we want to ask.

So I would then take the student and try to show them the variety of mathematical languages that exist with respect to the kinds of problems that they could match them with.

And then finally, I mean, you do have to train the students to do something mathematically. So there's no question that you either have to -- you don't "either" -BETA REPORTING
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you need some mathematical background in order to know how to take it the next step. And I think we need there to really think long and hard how we can short-circuit the becoming a PhD in mathematics problem. If you can't do that, that's all there is to it. But we can do other things that are short of that.

And then, I think, the statistical component here -- I think of statistics not as a mathematical model, but maybe that's my limitation. I think of statistics from the perspective of a mechanism for making decisions about data after I have my theory. And the theory then tells me what to look for in terms of the deductions, and then I go out and collect data. And the statistical part is a way in which it tells me how much confidence $I$ can gain about my theory based on this data that I have. And I don't think -- and somebody said it earlier here -- sometimes you don't

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need the fancy statistical -- sometimes you might, I mean, I'm not going to rule that out. But sometimes a cross-tab (?) is perfectly legitimate, or just seeing whether or not the sun rays go a certain direction. I think that the statistics should not dictate the model. I think the model -- I think you start with the puzzle, you then develop the story, you then translate it into a form that allows you to do something with it according to certain rules that people have already set up and found to work, and then you start collecting data and you ask yourself, now, how do I analyze these data in a way in which $I$ can then gain some confidence in what I've said.

And the reason I think the split needs to be pulled together, the reason I think that's so important, whether it's natural or not, is, from my perspective you don't want to just be a theorist.

You don't just want to be a -- at

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least I don't want to be just a math modeler. I want to talk about the world. I want to talk about nations and how wars occur and how conflicts occur -- how one goes into the other. I want to know whether or not my argument, my story makes any sense. And so I want to go out to the real world and I want to know how to collect data and I want to know how to actually process it so I get reasonable answers.

So I think we need to totally change the whole graduate training program. Now, I'm maybe optimistic, but I'm not an idealist. I don't think it's going to happen. And I think this is where the National Science Foundation has a marvelous opportunity, because I think departments are so, sort of, frozen into certain ways of doing things.

We're changing, but it will take a long time. And it will only be by seeing it happen somewhere else. And I think you see

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it happen through things like various people have mentioned, workshops, summer workshops. I think those sorts of things are the way to do it.

You do it bit by bit. You have perhaps a rotating summer workshop structured in certain ways so people begin to get the idea that this is a good thing to do, and so on.

I think you also need some conferences in which we talk specifically about what does it actually mean to test a model, a mathematical deduction? I don't think those things are at all obvious. Bueno de Mesquite wrote, is it War and Reason in which he makes a valiant effort to develop a very interesting game theory model, and then allegedly pulls from it certain deductions which he empirically tests.

The idea is excellent. The trouble is oftentimes those deductions are

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really -- it's not clear how those deductions follow from the model. Once in a while they do, but a lot of times they're kind of auxiliary to the model.

Which actually brings me to another point, which is that I don't think we often understand really what a deduction is from a model. That is, you know, what is it that you test? And that brings me to yet another aspect here, and this is where we desperately need the help of statisticians. When you test something, the idea is to be -- you want it to be set up so that you can reject it. Okay, that's the goal. And if you don't pass that goal, you're very happy but that's what you're trying to do. You're trying to get confidence in your argument. And you say, well, let me stack all the cards against me and if I can still make it, then I'll really have some confidence in this story.

The problem is it's difficult to

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know how you do that. For example -- let me just give you a quick idea -- the Richardson Arms Race, which I'm sure most of you are familiar with -- two linear differential -a couple of linear differential equations, and people have played with those for years in the discipline. And the question is how do you test it.

Well, you know, the usual regression notion is you just go out and do each regression equation on each of the two equations. But Richardson tested it by "drawing the deduction," that you add the two together and you get a linear something or other and then you go out and look at the linear aspect.

Well, okay, that's kind of a minor notion of a deduction. There are more interesting kinds of notions of deductions where, if the parameters of the model are of certain magnitudes, the system is stable, which means that you're moving towards an

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equilibrium point.
Now, suppose you go out and take a set of data, you actually estimate the coefficients of those equations, and now you look to see whether or not that arms race is actually stable -- that is, is it moving towards an equilibrium point, which you can define having given the values of those parameters?

But to what extent, if you've actually extracted the parameter estimates from the set of data, are you biasing your test when you go out to look to see whether or not it's moving towards the equilibrium point? I don't think that's at all obvious, and I've played with that for years. So there are things like that, that you want to set the test up so that you are really -- so that it's not circular.

So I think we need discussions of
how you do that. I think we need discussions between statisticians and

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mathematicians. But I'd like to see those structured from the perspective of actual problems -- not generically, how would you test a game theory, no; but rather, here is a model -- okay, well, here is a particular project and here is a model. And we probably could get data this way. What would you suggest as a way of actually testing that? So I think that would be yet another way to go about this.

And then finally, let me just conclude a little bit with a point that Becky brings up and was reiterated several times now, namely the need to get into the undergraduate scheme of things. I've come to that conclusion, too, after years and years. But I think -- well, let me tell you what I've done in the last, say, half-dozen years.

I teach a freshman course, it's called a discovery course, so it's a limited enrollment. And my goal in that course

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started out to be how to show freshmen, who are coming in -- it's a required course, you get, you know, required credits for it. How do you show them that political science can be analytic? How do you show them that that is a possibility and moreover that it's important? And even if they're not going to be political scientists, but just as ordinary citizens they have to make decisions about things, and that those decisions are actually based upon a bunch of assumptions. And what are those assumptions? They're assumptions about the way the world works. They're your theory about the way the world works. If you're wrong, you're going to be in trouble.

So I get them through a program of teaching them how to actually -- it's essentially a model, but $I$ never use those words; using propositional calculus, just simple logic. And we've developed a, actually a piece of software that will allow

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us to do this without their learning a whole lot of actual logic manipulation. And by gosh, you can show them how the assumptions you make do or don't lead to certain conclusions. And then, actually, how you might go out and test some of those -- what kind of data would you actually collect in order to check those out. Well, I've tried to evolve this course more and more now in terms of public policy, because $I$ don't think many of these kids are ever going to become political scientists. But they will become decision makers and citizens, and they do have to make decisions. And if they can see the importance of that, that will be very significant.

But what's happened with this course over the years that I've been teaching it is that, first of all, there's a huge standing in line to get into the class. But more interestingly is the fact that the

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\begin{aligned}
& \text { students that are coming into the course are } \\
& \text { largely now coming from the sciences, } \\
& \text { mathematics, engineering, and so on. } \\
& \text { And why is that? Well, for one } \\
& \text { thing, you know, they're told by advisors } \\
& \text { who apparently have heard about this that } \\
& \text { this is a course that is analytical, which } \\
& \text { is sort of along their training lines; and } \\
& \text { secondly, satisfies a requirement; and } \\
& \text { thirdly, uses computers. It's all } \\
& \text { Web-based. So the students come in and } \\
& \text { they're absolutely fascinated by the fact, } \\
& \text { my gosh, you can do these analytical things } \\
& \text { in political science? Yes, you can. } \\
& \text { of attracting these kids. Because what is } \\
& \text { happening is -- I mean, yes, we need to } \\
& \text { train people who are going into social } \\
& \text { science so that they have more analytical } \\
& \text { background. But I think we also need to } \\
& \text { entice those who have that inclination } \\
& \text { already and some very good background to } \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

come into the field. In the past we haven't done that to a large extent. Who goes into political science? People who didn't do very well in other places.

So those are my thoughts about why we're here and what we might be able to do. And I think, as I said, the National Science Foundation has a really potentially unique role in this, because $I$ don't think it's going to be done by universities by themselves. They need a push like crazy. MR. GRANATO: Would anybody like to add to that? MS. MORTON: I have a question. It seems to me that, in my experience at Iowa and some at Houston, that what happens is the people who do modeling and methods end up teaching those courses because there are very few people that do that, and then the other courses that are more substantive end up being taught by people that don't really do it. So when they do do articles

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that are more methods or modely, they don't go through them. They just kind of say read the intro, read the conclusion.

And so the students are getting -they're not -- when they take the substantive classes, it's all critique of the literature. And then we get the comprehensive exams, and the comprehensive exams reinforce that.

So they've spent all this time studying for that. And that's sort of why, when it comes to dissertation stage, they don't, you know -- aren't ready to think about how -- they may have ideas, but they don't think about methods and particularly models, how they might approach it from a modeling standpoint. And I was wondering if you had that feeling.

One thing, at NYU apparently they
don't give comprehensive exams, and I haven't quite figured it out whether I think this is a good or bad thing. So I was just

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curious as to what you think about that part.

MS. ZINNES: Yes, I think all of those things feed into this; the training we get or the training we provide for the graduate students is so segmented.

You learn the literature, but you learn the literature from the perspective of who said what. You learn the methods, so you know how to do regressions and whatever. You don't put those things together, typically. Now there are some attempts in some of these -- what do they call them? Research design-type seminars.

But it's very mechanical in the sense of, you know, you come into this course and you're supposed to just essentially collect data and do a statistical analysis. It's independent of any kind of theory, although it doesn't have to be. But typically, the student comes in and all he's got is kind of, well,

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> this-goes-with-this kind of a notion, from the reading. So then they talk about how do you collect data and they do the research and content analysis and so on. So yes, I think all these things are part of the way we train students. The reason they come up with the big question mark at the end is for that reason. Everything's a hypothesis.

But one of the things that I think is so important here, we need to get some of -- to go back to Jim's point -- we need to get some of the fear out of all of this. Theory building is not necessarily knowing huge amounts of mathematics. It may need some, yes, I agree. But you don't really have to be a dyed-in-the-wool mathematician to be able to do theory. You're telling stories. You need to translate those.

Propositional calculus has been for me a very, very interesting way to go, because it is so simple. It is so incredibly simple. Now, its simplicity also BETA REPORTING
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means it has a lot of problems. But that's also nice to show people because that shows the extent to which some modeling formats are more appropriate for certain problems, certain questions, and others are better suited.

But I think the students need to realize that they don't have to be so terribly sophisticated initially. Now, obviously we'd like to get them trained better and better, and hopefully over the years we'll do that. But initially we need to start getting them thinking about how you formulate the theories.

MR. GRANATO: Anybody like to add anything else on this topic? MR. SIMON: As a dyed-in-the-wool mathematician, I was thinking about something that you said and I think maybe Becky said also about one of the -something I was going to expand on a little later when I compare math and political

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science.
There really is a difference in the quantitative background of the students who go into economics versus students that go into political science. I see that when I chair public policy graduate students. And there are students that say whether they want sort of the econ track or the political science track. It's night and day, right? The math folks all go to the political science track. Those who've had calculus or something go the econ track. And I suspect the same thing happens at the PhD level.

I teach the course in the economics department at Michigan, or often do, on math techniques. In order to get into the PhD program, you have to have at least three math classes, undergraduate course, background. My impression is many political science applicants have no math background and they're choosing political science because of that. I think that's

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maybe really at the heart of some of the issues we're dealing with.

MS. ZINNES: But it's a little deeper than that. It's not just math courses. Math courses -- they don't have math courses by choice usually. Why is that and what does it mean in terms of the way they think? It means that they are not analytically inclined. I mean, the math course -- knowing calculus is great, but it's the reasoning process that goes on in learning those, how you prove things and so on. That's the part that we're missing. MR. SIMON: Right. You said something -- right. I actually meant to say it that way. I think many of the students that I see moving into political science are math phobic. It's not their background. And some have had calculus and, you know, don't even know what they did there. But it's the math phobic types that -- you know, there's a place for them in economics and

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political science, but it's -- I'm just sort of struck by the huge difference in those two areas.

MR. McKELVEY: But is that really
true? Say the schools that are represented in here, I mean, I know we require a math background, you know, a fairly substantial math background in the students we admit. But, I mean, is it true that in the political science programs you don't require that?

MS. ZINNES: No.
MS. MORTON: Most political
science programs don't require any math classes as part -- and there are many political science programs that don't require any methods. You can get out with a quantitative methods class. If you do political theory you don't have to do it in a lot of programs.

MS. ZINNES: Are you talking undergraduate or graduate? Because I'm -BETA REPORTING
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MS. MORTON: I'm talking about graduate -- and then much less have to have it to get admitted. I mean, if you don't have to take it while you're there, why do you need it before you -- but, you know, at Iowa we had a required math class and we were an exception. I mean, there's some required math class. Anybody else have the required math class in their political science? There's no required math class at NYU, there's none at Houston.

MR. McKELVEY: You mean a required math class once you get there --

MS. MORTON: Yes.
MR. McKELVEY: Or to be admitted? MS. MORTON: Much less before you get there, but --

MR. SIMON: And the economics course that I teach that's required, very, very rarely is a political science student in it. And they're almost all Chris Achen's students. They're all Chris Achen's

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students as far as I know.
MR. FREEMAN: Dina, how can you explain the fact that if we assess our average GRE scores in mathematics/analytical, I'll bet they're all 750, 780.

MS. ZINNES: It just shows they have the capability.

MR. FREEMAN: But then they have the analytic capability -- those tests -MS. ZINNES: They have -- no, I think they have the analytic capability. It's never been developed.

MR. ACHEN: Econ and poly sci have been about equal on math GREs for 30 years.

MS. ZINNES: Is that right?
MR. ACHEN: It's shocking to me that econ and math -- sorry, econ and poly sci, I said the wrong thing -- econ and poly sci math GRE scores on average are about the same.

MR. SCIOLI: You mean at Michigan

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or overall?
MR. ACHEN: Anywhere. So it's not raw talent.

MR. BRADBURN: Well, I think it's the case that -- and I can't remember whether this is all graduate departments or some selection, but I think it's all -- that if you combine engineering and math, the modal undergraduate degree now for people entering a graduate program in economics is that combination.

There are more undergraduate majors in mathematics -- Greg, do you happen to know -- in mathematics and economics than there are -- excuse me, in mathematics and engineering than there are in economics, who are going into graduate programs.

MR. YOUNG: Well, of course, this is -- something like that is right and it's alarming to the economics profession. I mean, it's absurd to say that you're not able to train undergraduates to go on into

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your own graduate courses, but that's exactly what's happening. MS. MORTON: Your training is much more analytical than -- I mean, we don't come close to that.

MR. ALDRICH: So the inference, then, is -- I think what Chris is saying particularly is that the only difference is advanced training going in. MS. MORTON: Yes, and I think -MR. KEECH: Motivation. MR. SIMON: Motivation, yes. MS. ZINNES: And, you see, I think that's a critical ingredient here. I think as long as you compartmentalize these things -- so you take your math courses or your methods courses and then you take your substantive courses, you don't see why it's important to be an analytical thinker, a theoretical thinker. And yet mathematics helps you in that regard. The value is it's not just to be a BETA REPORTING
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mathematician. It's not just to be able to, you know, publish articles on Markov chains and whatever. The issue here is what can it do for you? And I don't think we've really convinced people how important it is.

And again I go back to the propositional calculus. Because you can show in such a simple fashion why being analytical, just having a couple of simple rules that you follow, you get somewhere which you couldn't have gotten to otherwise. Or you can show that somebody can't get to where they think they got. And that, I think, is extremely important. Once the student begins to see that and realize that these mathematical forms are important to them, then I think that -- because they have the talent. They have the capabilities. They just don't have the motivation.

MS. MORTON: I think it's
definitely motivation not -- I mean, for

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instance, you know, one person who uses very sophisticated mathematical methods is Greg Wawro, and he told me he went to Cornell because they had no math requirement. Once he got there, he got plugged in to Walter Mebane and changed his tune.

But that doesn't always happen. Most of the students in -- there are political science faculty who have math -- I mean, I know one particular person who worked as a physicist for many years and now does international relations from a very constructivist, anti-theory math person -- I think a few people know who I'm talking about. And this person -- there's no question that this person has the math ability, but doesn't -- isn't interested in looking at -- so it's a motivational issue, and I think it becomes -- it happens at undergraduate levels, because -- you know, when I was an undergraduate, I didn't -when I got the kind of modeling of, you

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> know, social science, it was in economics classes. So, you know, that's where I went. I mean, I was never interested in farms and prices and markets, but I persevered with that because I was interested in the modeling of human behavior.

MS. EAVEY: I think in some sense you've identified two separate but perhaps related problems. When you're talking about raising the level of sophistication within the discipline, I think that's a public good that obviously will lead to more sophisticated analyses and perhaps more sophisticated modeling.

But that's not necessarily capturing what we're talking about when we're referring to the divide between modeling and empirical analysis. Case in point: I've been working with Chuck Manski on setting up a MacArthur-type network on the empirical implications of social interactions, or something like that --

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doesn't sound too much like Jim's acronym. But Chuck claims that theory is way ahead of empirical work in this area, that the two groups don't talk to each other, and one of the things we're trying to do is facilitate that.

Okay, that's basically in the field of economics where supposedly we have a higher level of mathematical sophistication. That doesn't seem to be affecting this problem of the theorists not talking to the empirical folks, and how the different areas are developing at different rates.

So I think you've got a couple of different issues going on here that probably are related, but also can be thought about separately and perhaps have some different solutions.

MR. ALDRICH: Another way in which they may be related is that if you come to graduate school, even if you had the

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inclination to start, if you're starting to learn analytic methods of any sort only then, it may be a lot harder to get any competence in anything but one specific, very specific aspect. Whereas if you had some in advance, you'd have the flexibility to be able to learn enough to be able to talk across the divide.

MR. ALT: One thing that I'd like to share -- it picks up on what John, Chris, and Becky have said -- we've had some success in our graduate program in recent years with a math "prefresher" we call it, which is an intensive course that just runs for a couple of weeks and is intended for the incoming graduate students.

I mean, we all know that you can't learn that much math for the first time in 2 weeks, so I think, you know, Chris has to be right, so to speak. But the people we are getting have already done the math and it's much more a matter of just reminding them of

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what they did. And this is, I think, the problem Becky raises -- and telling them for the first time why they're going to need it in political science.

I'm not convinced, therefore, that it's a motivational problem except in a very wide sense of motivation. But I do think that to far too great an extent people's exposure to political science as undergraduates does not lead them to expect any of what they get in graduate school, whether it's the analytic reasoning or the simple instinct of taking a problem to data, you know, rather than looking in last week's Newsweek for, you know, something canned or giving up on the state of human knowledge on a topic.

> I actually think we're potentially in better shape than we think we are and that attending to the undergraduate foundation is more -- could really have a big payoff. Because I think we are already

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getting a lot of the right people.
MR. SCIOLI: How about the GREs, Chris, for the difference between social behavioral and the physical sciences? Are they tremendously --

MR. ACHEN: It's been a few years since I've looked at this. What I remember is that it's the physicists who are number one and the ed school people that are at the bottom.

MR. SIMON: The teachers of our kids.

MR. ACHEN: My last one just graduated, so this isn't a personal crisis anymore. But it's more varied and uneven across natural and social science than you might guess.

MR. SCIOLI: Let me pick on you with one more question. Does the summer program still -- is there any effort in the ICPSR summer program to do theory?

MR. ACHEN: Yes. There's been --

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it's been 15 years ago, I guess, when that started and it's extended every year in more and more courses. I think there are four or five courses now out of whatever, 20 or 25 , that they offer that are formal theoretic in character.

It's not primarily a summer program dedicated to that in particular, so it's always going to be something that's done in addition to other things. But it's a large and growing part of the curriculum, and those classes are well-attended.

MR. SCIOLI: I mean, this is such an atypical group, any question $I$ think about each of you -- I hope each of you has two other colleagues with whom you are conversant on these issues and with whom you talk about offering courses. But again, the question Jim and I were puzzling about, and including Cheryl -- are there 40 more people who are in departments who have two colleagues with whom they have these kinds

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of conversations?

And here we're talking about, you know, one of the largest directorates in the foundation, the science education directorate, probably getting them fundamentally involved in terms of the very practical notion of thinking about problems just to get to the graduate student level -have to think about students perhaps taking an 8 -week or 6 -week summer course at Michigan or to go to the political methods workshop where we're trying to encourage more junior people to come.

It seems then, you know, the terrain is treacherous and very sloggy in terms of making any kind of a gain.

And here we're -- I guess this is the choir. I'm so fearful that we're preaching to the choir. And here you all go back to your respective institutions and keep doing the good things, but what about the --

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MR. FREEMAN: Well, it's
suboptimal, I understand. I admit that. The political methodology group does not have problems getting grad students to come to meetings. Our problem now is that we're like a traveling circus. I mean we get, like, $135-40$ people, and out of that, what, 60 or 70 are graduate students? MS. MORTON: Yes, in fact we had -- I think the problem is getting faculty, right? I mean, wouldn't you say -MR. FREEMAN: And also making people feel appreciated, making them feel that they're not being processed, that they can have the poster sessions and they really get to meet us and we talk to them and we stick around and we spend time with them, and they're not just sitting in a big room instead of around a table. Like at _, we used to have 21 people, everybody had to present. Now we have this huge auditorium and -- that's the
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problem, to personalize it.
But $I$ don't think in the realm of political methodology there's any problem at all. I mean, $I$ think getting 80 to 120 grad students is easy.

MR. ACHEN: And that adventure from its beginning shows what can be done. There were fewer people around the table at the first meeting of that group, which wasn't funded by anybody except Warren Miller basically, than there are around this table. There were 14 people at the first meeting and now it's well over 100 and you can't chat with everybody anymore and it's changed.

So it's, I think, doable. This one is much larger and more complicated. I think I have to say, I think in both poly sci, NSF, and MMS, as a little bit starved for money by international standards. And I think this will take some money. A few years ago, when MacArthur wanted to bring a BETA REPORTING
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group of people into -- it's about 12 or 15 years ago -- into international relations, for example, they bought people's time for a year, for instance, quite a large number of people. And it made a huge difference.

The same thing is happening with Robert Wood Johnson with these medical care fellowships. They are building a foundation for the future. But they're buying people's time for 2 years in pretty substantial numbers.

So I guess one question I have here is who we have to -- I shouldn't say "we" -- do you have the resources to really make a substantial difference on this? Because I think some real training and time off and all that kind of thing, some setting up of institutes. Those things aren't free. Doing that is what will speed this whole process up.

MR. FREEMAN: - 5-year graduate package, MacArthur pays 2 out of the 5
years. So that's about $\$ 45,000$ per student. And then they have —. And I guess I've got to tack this on. I know this is public and I'm going to regret it, but believe me, the MacArthur people at Minnesota are not teaching scientific method. They are exactly the opposite. And I've been to Stanford for them a couple of -- I've stopped going. That movie, "My Dinner With Andre," have any of you seen that? Need I say more? It's fascinating, it's rich, it's diverse, it's the celebration of life -- but it ain't

And that's if we're in competition. I mean, a scarce number of people for whom the large funding industries in this country are competing for their hearts and minds. God, I'm really getting in trouble now. Quite seriously, I mean, there's a very small number of students and they're being courted by all these funding agencies. And they're not all sharing the (202) $638-2400 \quad 1-800-522-2382$$\quad$ (703) 684-2382
same objectives. Even though -- verbally they are, and the rhetoric is there -- the reality's quite -.

MS. MORTON: One thing related to that and to the international -- going back to international relations, it does seem to me that of the fields, that IR is the most divided in terms of having a substantial group of people really anti-theory. I mean in a scientific sense.

MS. ZINNES: Theory or
anti-modeling?
MS. MORTON: Anti-modeling.
Anti-science. I mean, it seems to me there are more of that, but $I$ don't know -- you know, that just seems to me, you know -because when I talk to our IR people, they seem to think that there are the same number of people in American. I say, no, we don't have people like that in American. The way I hear about them in IR -- really anti -that they're, you know, just really anti
the --

MS. ZINNES: Anti-science altogether.

MS. MORTON: Yes. Yes. Yes. And I mean it seems to me that there is a special need in IR, you know.

MS. ZINNES: Well, it may be, and I don't see that largely -- I mean, I did a survey of the major journals over a 10-year period and I was very surprised to discover the extent to which what's called quantitative, whatever that means, statistical, mathematical, et cetera, dominates the IR articles.

Now, how many IR articles get into things like JOP or something -- nevertheless perhaps the divisions are much more severe in terms of those that don't do that, but they're not the ones that are really -- the ones who are objecting to that are not the ones that are really getting published out there. So I suspect it will take care of

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itself over the long run.
MR. KEECH: In American there's no good reason for American political development to be anti-scientific, and many people who do that are people we respect and admire. However, I think that is a movement or setting for people who don't agree with the kinds of analytical approaches that are common among us. And I think it's growing. People like Stuart and Weingast also publish in studies in American political development and make my point that there's no reason that the subject matter has to be anti-analytical.

MR. SCIOLI: All right, let me not dodge Chris's question, but say that it's too early in the day to get to a hard answer or even a squishy answer. But the fact that Cheryl's here -- you've observed that.

At the beginning of the morning Norman Bradburn mentioned the priority areas. And our job as program officers is

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to try to include as much of this topic
within that priority area when it comes to
fruition. So we're thinking about a number
of ways in which we might make progress, but
we're certainly only at the beginning stages
in that.
MR. GRANATO: Why don't we move on
and talk about methodology in modeling, and
start with Chris.

One more thing, too. Discussion point 2, discussion point 4 are related to the discussion we just had for the last 20 minutes. We're going to revisit these concerns again. Chris.

MR. ACHEN: I'll be brief. There are three of us in this category who want to talk.

> Let me just say that it seems to me that we have quite a bit of thinking to do on exactly how empirical work broadly conceived does connect to validation of theories. And I talked a little bit about

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this in the paper I wrote. And I won't repeat, except to say that $I$ do think that our current training, the training that's been current now since I was a graduate student -- so maybe not so current, but it hasn't changed; we do it exactly the same way we did it when I was a student -- isn't as helpful as it might be and is no longer, I think, the training that people need.

But I think we do want to spend some time here thinking about the incentives that we have, and students have at both the graduate and the undergraduate level, to do things the way we do them now. Let me start with the undergrads, where the point is the most obvious.

Faculty appointments are driven at most places by the size of the undergraduate enrollment. If you turn political science into what the people around this table would want it to be turned into, the enrollments would drop, budgets would drop, appointments

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would drop, a lot of other things would happen. And I think we all try hard at every institution I'm aware of to do what we think is right and pay as little attention to these other consequences as possible. But if you've been at it as long as all of us in this room have, at the margin you see some decisions being made that simply protect those budgets.
So I think we've got to think
about ways in which the undergraduates who, you know, are on their way to law school and who will say to you things like one of my undergraduates from one of the most prosperous Michigan suburbs said to me at office hours last fall, when I was teaching difference equation models -- came in and she said I'm having a lot of trouble with this, I don't see this point here. And we spent 15 minutes going over it. And I finally said, I think what you're not seeing is that if $A$ equals $B$ and if $B$ equals $C$,

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then A ought to be equal to C. And she looked at me with a sad look on her face and she said, you know, my mind just doesn't work that way.

We have a fair number of those. MS. ZINNES: But she's a high GRE, right?

MR. ACHEN: Well, she may be. So I think we have to think about them, too, and how exactly they would fit into what we want to do.

At the graduate level the problem is somewhat different but it's related, and that's the area studies people, their quite separate agenda. I don't think it's an accident that in most political science departments now the main cleavage is area studies versus the rest of the department. And there again, there are incentives there that are quite different from those that we face. So how does the topic of this
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workshop play into all of these concerns? I think it plays in mostly by bringing to our attention the fact that we do have these colleagues back home, we do have to think about ways in which things can be restructured in ways that will create the right set of incentives for people.

We're redoing our undergraduate curriculum right now and one thing we're trying to do is to give a separate honors degree in political science, and this separate honors degree will be in fact what we're talking about here, that leaves the other people in place and maybe creates some incentives to do some other things.

But I think it's this kind of working out of a graduate and undergraduate curriculum in ways that's really politically feasible given the set of people we have, who have agendas quite different from those of us around this table. That's a pretty important thing to do.

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I'll just say this briefly -- I do think there's a deep and hard rethinking that needs to go on about the ways in which empirical evidence is brought to bear on theory. And Dina just talked about this and so have many of the rest of you.

I think increasingly we see econometric methods, statistical methods taught to students in ways that maybe make us happy, but from the students' point of view -- again, they're out there drowning. The Titanic has gone down and they're in the water. And it's cold and the sharks are circling and so on. And that's how they think about all of these methods. And they're desperate for a lifesaver, or a lifeboat. And the lifeboat is mechanical application of these techniques so that they can be protected from criticism.

One of my friends in graduate school said that most students' relationship

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to what you do -- he was talking to me -- is that of primitive people to the local dangerous gods, you know, bad things can happen to you if you screw up. So you need to offer sacrifices, you know, t-test and so on.

That really is the way a lot of people respond. I think the curriculum plays into that more than it should, and that some rethinking of the ways in which we really can focus when the puzzles and the scientific bottlenecks, whatever word you want, is in front of us. But the institutional momentum, for some of the reasons I've mentioned, in the textbooks and so on is pretty substantial.

I think this will work itself out if left alone. If we want it speeded up, I think it's not a $\$ 1.95$ budget that will do that.

MR. GRANATO: Henry.
MR. BRADY: I want to start by

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thanking Jim and Frank for inviting us here. This is really a great opportunity, and it's tremendous to be able to sit around the table with this group of people. I'm also pleased to be able to follow Chris Achen once again, which I've been doing for, I think, 22 years -- mostly with good effect, I think. But it's always great to hear him talk and to read what he has to say. I'm not going to repeat what $I$ said in my comments. You can read it. It quotes philosophers and things like that in an attempt to try to sound erudite, and to actually provide some background to why we are here, why there is a difference between people who think in terms of formal models and in terms of empirical work. And it really is a deep division.

I want to just make a few comments about that and then go on and talk about where we should be going. The few comments are the following, is that it seems to me

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that one of the differences between formal modelers and empiricists is that formal modelers often think the truth is hidden in unique models that sort of get at what's really going on.

So, for example, in IR, formal modelers are concerned very much about how you get at deterrence and that it's a really hidden kind of thing in there. I mean, unless you have a really pretty sophisticated understanding of what's going on in the interactions between states, you're not going to get at deterrence. Whereas often empiricists think these things are more superficial and you can just find them in the appearance of things.

I tend to be on the formal modeling side in this regard. I think in a lot of cases what formal modeling has tended to do is help improve our understanding of concepts. Oddly enough, I'm not sure formal modelers often realize how important that is

BETA REPORTING
(202) 638-2400 1-800-522-2382 (703) 684-2382 as an aspect of what they do. And one thing I think, more could be done on that to make sure that people who do empirical work understand how important it is to have formal models often to just clarify the concepts you're using. And that is a very important thing.

I've run this idea by Bob Paul (?) and he gets upset. He says, oh, no, we do much, much more than that. And I say, well, yes, maybe you do, but I think that's an important thing to focus on is how much do just clarify concepts and that would help empirical work a lot.

Let me just talk about the two techniques, that it seems to me the perversion of mathematical formal modeling is that you get theorems that are sort of meaningless; the perversion of statistical work is we get estimators that are meaningless in terms of real empirical work. I feel a little guilty about this because,

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following Achen, I helped to start that political methodology group. And sort of the currency of the realm there is new estimators, and that's supposed to be very exciting.

I don't think that actually was quite Chris's message from the beginning, and certainly now, if you read what he says in his marvelous little paper of his, to some extent, maybe to a large extent, a rejection of that idea. And then there's the following marvelous statement: "I propose the following simple rule: Any statistical specification with more than three independent variables should be disregarded as meaningless." I'm not sure how you got to three. But there's a lot of truth to that. I think we've got to think in methodology a lot harder about what we've been teaching people. And I feel even teaching them with sophisticated maximum likelihood or whatever kind of estimators

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are the answers to our problems, when in fact that's just not the case at all. We need better research design. We need to think harder about how you make an argument with nature and deal with its cunning wiles to get at the truth. And I don't think we teach people enough about that, how hard it really is to make any argument, how hard it is to infer something. And that $t$-statistics, good estimators, consistent standard errors are not necessarily the way to go.

I think if we did more of this, then I think there'd be a more natural link with formal modeling, because pretty soon we'd realize the problem is just clarifying our concepts, clarifying what we're really trying to get out, and we'd say, gee, formal models can be very useful in that enterprise. And to the degree that we hide behind statistical technique, $I$ think we put off the formal modelers in bad ways. And so

> that's something that really has to be done, is to think harder about what we're trying to teach people in political methodology.
> Let me just say something about the caricatures that each side has of the other. It seems to me that the caricature that formal modelers often have of empiricists is that data can't tell you anything, and basically the argument is that it's the problem of induction -association, not causation. And I think there's a lot of truth to that problem. Again, formal models can often help show you how you can rule out alternative explanations. So that can be a good thing. the the -- and I've heard formal modelers really say this, you can't really learn anything from data very much because it's so terrible. And one approach to that is to do what Dick's suggesting, is to take refuge in just doing experiments. I think there's a

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lot of good reasons to do experiments, but I'd be nervous if that's the only direction we went in terms of empirical work.

So that's one caricature. On the other side, I think that, and people have said this already, formal modelers are often characterized as models can't tell you anything; after all, they're simply tautological -- which of course they are if they're done correctly. But that's wrong, too, for the reasons we all know. So we've got to get over those stereotypes.

And some ways we might do this. Well, it seems to me, as I mentioned in my memo, behavioral economics is one way that's helping to bring things together. Natural experiments. One of the things that's really happening in methodological work, especially in economics -- I would hope more in political science as well -- is we're beginning to realize that we have to go around and look

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for observational data where there have been natural experiments. Because we really can't have much faith in being able to specify complicated systems of equations and getting much out of that unless we have really good instruments, which often just amounts to saying there's a natural experiment in there someplace that will allow us to do that. Better research design. I think there's more realization we've got to do better in that regard. And as I say, I think that will lead to a natural bridge.

How do we do these things? I
think -- there's been a lot of suggestions. I just wrote down 20 suggestions that come from the memos. I'll not go over them, but I hope one of the things we do in the succeeding sessions is write all these things down. Maybe we need a board, like over there -- I'll assume you're going to maybe do that -- and put them up. And as we

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go through them, we can say, well, which ones really would work? And they've got to be not just suggestions in terms of procedures but also in terms of substance.

So, for example, a substance suggestion would be tell people that one way they can talk to comparativists is talk about macro concepts, so macro modeling might be one way to do that. In terms of process it might be let's have summer camps where we bring people together to talk about these things. And I hope we come up with both kinds of suggestions.

MR. GRANATO: We're running up against the clock. Would you like to start after lunch, or --

MR. McKELVEY: Yes, I guess I'd prefer that.

MR. GRANATO: Okay. All right, so let's break for lunch. (Whereupon a luncheon recess was taken.)

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A F T ERNOON SESSION MR. SCIOLI: We've been joined by a colleague from social and economic science. Paul Wahlbeck is program director for law and social science, visiting scientist from George Washington University, just back from a meeting in Budapest.

I guess one of the unintended positive consequences is that you folks know each other better than 90 percent of the people we bring into rooms like this. So it's harder to get you to stop talking at the breaks and, geez, the luncheon discussion here was -- I think we have to include some of the formal people, some of the empirical people, and then some of the ascientific people, and that would probably cause all the discussion at the breaks to stop. Right, Henry?

MR. BRADY: Yes, either that or you get fist fights. MR. SIMON: What do you mean, fist

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fights?
MR. BRADY: Outside, big guy.
MR. SCIOLI: Well, we've been
waiting for the senior members here to return, those who taught -- who I thought were the senior members.

MR. McKELVEY: Yes, well, first thing I was going to say is I feel very old.

But the second thing I've noticed
is that seem to be a lot more insulated from the things that we've been talking about than most of the other people around this room. Part of it, I guess, is just because, being at Cal Tech, it's not a standard political science department so you'll interact mainly with economists and the other political scientists that are on our faculty, who mainly sort of share the views of most of the people here.

So maybe one of the ways of addressing this divide would be to take people like me and other people at Cal Tech

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and place them in the universities that you guys are from. But -- I'm not seriously suggesting that.

Anyhow, I guess -- yes, so let's
see. I guess the first thing I wanted to say something about was just give a little bit of an overview of what $I$ think has been sort of the main direction that political theory has gone over the past several decades. And I think actually this direction has contributed to some of this drift that we see between empirical and theoretical work.

I mentioned some of this in my comments that I distributed. But my question is that as opposed to economics, where the far Asian market economy is taken as sort of a starting point for a lot of -or at least it was for a long time, I mean it's less so now, but for a long time it was taken as a starting point everyone could agree to. So then when you go off and do

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empirical analysis, everyone had something that they agreed on, that they could start from.

In political science, we've never really had that, at least not since Charlie Plott _and Anthony Downs, and a lot of the other work on sort of lack of equilibria in these political models led us to the realization that you really need to model institutions.

And so I think what's happened over the past several decades in the theoretical work is that there's been an attempt to bring in the details of what you're modeling. And you're sort of averse to do that because there is no sort of general equilibrium theory. What this had meant is that we've tended to -- well, first of all, we've started to model, I guess, incomplete information, repetition, as I said, the details of these institutions. And so a lot
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> of the models require that you specify, say, an extensive form for a particular order in which people make decisions and so on. And so these are areas in which theorists sometimes I think just throw up their hands because you have to throw in too many particularized details. You can't get really general results. If there are any general results that will come out of this, I think it's that -- well, some of the results, say, of, like, Peterson, Peserdorfer, Banks, Austin Smith, these results on what happens when you introduce incomplete information. They just show that you get very different kinds of results than what people thought you would get in the complete information models. important these variables are, but on the other hand I don't think we're at the stage where we have any kind of general theory (202) 638-2400 for
about how these kinds of variables affect things.

On the other hand, I think one thing that theorists do agree on is the importance of game theory. But even here, there's a little bit of a qualification. Certainly most theorists, I think, accept the idea that any kind of theorizing has to start from a game theoretic basis. And here, I guess the way I convince my students of this is I just tell them, look, if you want what you publish to be still read 20 years from now, it's going to have to be the case that your description of behavior is still going to be relevant after people have read it. Okay, and so the very definition of Nash equilibrium is that people will not change their behavior once they've read the theory. So I think this sort of encapsulates the idea of why these game theoretic models have really sort of taken

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over, both in economics and political
science, where we're trying to explain human
behavior. You want an explanation which is
still going to work even after you tell
people what the explanation is, what they're
supposed to be doing.
So we sort of agree that these
models have to be game theoretic, but beyond
that I think the most we agree on is that
you've got to have really detailed
information about the particular process it
is that you're modeling. Now, on the other
hand, I think this is sort of problematic
from the point of view of getting any
general theory, but I think it also provides
us opportunity in which there's really a
chance for the empirical end of the spectrum
and the theoretical to have some common
interest. Because I think it's the
empirical people who -- they know a lot more
about these details and they're more
interested in them.
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They don't particularly care when theory is general, and so they're frequently a lot more willing than the theorists to develop a model that's based on particular details of the processes they're studying.

So this is one of the reasons why I think this effort to bridge this gap is a good idea, because I think there really is a niche there for people who can speak to theorists and speak to empirical people and sort of do some of both.

I think -- let's see. One of the other comments I made is in -- what I tossed out was that right now, at least myself, I frequently find that a lot of the empirical work, what $I$ do read, $I$ guess I frequently discount it because -- simply because of all the problems that are inherent in doing a good piece of theoretical work.

For instance, in American
politics, which I guess people sort of agreed was one of the areas where theory is

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most developed, I mean here, you in this work, you know, you see a lot the models be the theory that -- well, the theory that is used is usually very oversimplified from what I guess a theorist would want you to look at, so frequently you look at these one-dimensional models where individuals or committees or legislatures are considered as individual actors. And the same thing in the case of IR and comparative.

You know, frequently the theory that is considered good theory itself is really simplified. And so you have these oversimplified theories which don't really -- they may not take into account things like incomplete information, repetition and so on, and they're built to explain certain kinds of phenomena.

So one of the things that $I$ worry about in the empirical work that's done now is that, you know, you can build a theory to explain just about anything. So you build a

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little game theoretic model which will explain a certain kind of behavior, but you could build another model that was more -you know, that would introduce more features of a situation, which would explain exactly the same thing.

And I guess what's missing is what we expect of theory, which is namely that the theory -- you should be able to take a similar theory and apply it in a number of different situations.

So on one hand -- okay, what I
just said is that we want -- you know, I think it would be good if some of the empirical people would start helping to develop some of these theories specifically applied to the problem, but I think also it's necessary to keep in mind that you don't just develop the minimal theory to explain what it is that the data shows, but that we try to develop these theories, first of all so that they actually reflect the

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variables that are active in the particular situation so that we can take these models and explain more than just one phenomenon with them.

Okay, and finally, I guess the other reason why I tend to frequently maybe not pay as much attention to some of the empirical work as I should is that a lot of the theoretical work that's done in these empirical papers is basically game theoretic. And yet the methods to test the theory are still methods that are based on non-game theoretic reasoning. And that's starting to change.

There are some papers now that have started to look at some of these questions. But that's something that actually I've been very interested in in work that I've been working on with Tom Palfrey is how to test some of these game-theoretic models statistically. But I think -- yes, that's another
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area where there could be a bridge between the empirical people and some of the theoretical people, is trying to develop some of the methodological tools to actually test some of these game-theoretic models. MR. GRANATO: Let's open it up and talk about this.

MR. SIMON: Actually, it's pretty telling, I think, this statement that you just made, Richard, that there's this disconnect between the game theory that permeates political science theory and the empirical methods that are used. But it's a little scary that only you and Palfrey are the ones who know about the -MR. McKELVEY: No, I don't think that -MR. SIMON: Well, almost the only, right? I mean, it's not a well-known empirical technology to test the game theory models that are so important for political science.

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MS. MORTON: It's been discussed at the methods meetings. In fact actually I would argue that the very first non-experimental use of quantum response was in political science with Curt Signorino's paper, right? I mean, that was -- so I think that political science used quantum response with non-experimental data before economics did. That said, there aren't that many. There aren't that many in economics either that use structural estimation, right?

MR. SIMON: Actually, I will talk about it when I --

MR. McKELVEY: But I think in economics -- you did have econometrics that was developed for the theory, and that's where simultaneous equation estimation came from. MS. MORTON: Right. MR. McKELVEY: Basically to test the, you know, sort of the model, sort

> of supply and demand so on. But now -- I mean actually, I think even economics has moved more in the direction of introducing all these specific institutional variables, __ information and so on, so that the -_ model is less well --

MR. FREEMAN: What do you say to the problem of observational equivalence, that what we do in political methodology is we study reduced forms because in fact there's many different professional choice models that could rationalize our results and it's a waste of time to try to identify -- Jim alluded to this in his opening remarks -- to identify the so-called true model that gave rise -- or set of models that conceivably could give rise to -?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { MR. McKELVEY: Yes, well, I mean } \\
& \text { there is no true model, right? I mean any } \\
& \text { model that we -- you know, like in physics, } \\
& \text { you take the Newton's -- you know, the } \\
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$$

mechanics, of classical mechanics. I mean there it's wrong, but it's still very useful in certain classes of -- as approximation. But the thing that makes a model a good model is how many different things it explains at the same time. You know, I think that's --

MR. BRADY: I think he's asking about the harder question, which is sort of a Lucas critique kind of question, which is that the truth is there are so many models we might build which could lead to the same set of data that it's foolish to try to figure out from the data which model is correct. It can't be done.

I mean that's the sort of base of the Simms Lucas -- isn't that what you're alluding to -- sort of macroeconomics and -MR. FREEMAN: The Nash equilibrium point as I understand it is in answer to the Lucas critique, right? You're just saying that the model would change. Once you saw

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the results you would change your behavior and therefore the model underlying would change. When you're saying if it's a Nash equilibrium -MR. McKELVEY: If it's a Nash equilibrium, then -MR. FREEMAN: And you saw the
results --

MR. McKELVEY: Right.
MR. FREEMAN: But suppose it were all Nash equilibrium, isn't it still -isn't there still a problem of observational equivalence that is in some sense insurmountable? MR. MCKELVEY: You mean that there are several different theoretical models that could be built to explain the same phenomena?

MR. FREEMAN: Yes --
MR. McKELVEY: That's basically
what I was -- one of the points that I guess I was making is that if an empirical person

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starts to build a theory about a particular situation, they frequently, I think, just stop when they get the result that they want. Which is -- you know, that's not really very much help. You want a theory that is going to have a broad applicability and be able to explain a large class of phenomena at the same time. And that's --

But here I think the problem is that, yes, there's really partly a problem in theory right now. We don't have any really -- I mean the theory we agree on is game theory. At least that's what most people agree on. And even there, I think there's -- people explain these evolutionary models and -- may not agree that that's the basis for scientific theory.

But I think most people, I've found, at least when you present them with this argument that the theory's got to survive its own publication, that they tend to agree that the game theoretic models are

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what we're going to be based on -- what we want the theory to be based on. But even so, if, you know, what -- the direction -_ say you have to include all these institutional details because there is no equilibrium otherwise.

MR. FREEMAN: —— indeterminacy result and you run into Folk (?) theorems and you run into multi-equilibrium, so you take your chaos that you gave us, the majority rule, and you just reproduce it in the form of time inconsistency of optimal plans, you know, every strategy is a question of -. You know, I find, sort of, I'm left standing on a slippery slope every time after I read in this.

The more I read, the more disheartened I become. There's no order. Everything's chaotic. The world's unraveling. So I go back to my vector auto regressions in the field, you know, -. I'm not being facetious, Richard.

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I sometimes wonder if the real contribution of you and Errol (?) and other people has been to convince us that democracy's impossible -- it should not be happening, it should be no order. Everything is -- I mean, that's a deep insight, God only knows, but --

MR. McKELVEY: Well, no, I think democracy depends on not having equilibrium. If you have an equilibrium, there'd be nothing for legislatures to do.

MR. ALDRICH: I think _- argues that at times; at other times ——. But this is essentially -- I mean your argument is essentially there is an impossibility result of building -- in your models?

MR. McKELVEY: I don't think I really believe that. I just think that we're in a stage in theoretical development where there are a lot of things we don't really understand, like, you know, how incomplete information plays out in these $\begin{array}{lc}\text { BETA REPORTING } \\ \text { (202) 638-2400 } & 1-800-522-2382 \quad(703) 684-2382\end{array}$
models, how repetition plays out. And, you know, so that in a way, a lot -- I think a lot of the problems are that theorists don't have any overall theories that they can hand to the empirical people and say, yes, this is what you should use. Yes, I mean, I think that's part of the problem. But -MS. MORTON: I would like to pick on something that I think was mentioned before lunch. I can't remember which of you guys had said this, but -- about natural experiments, in that, you know, I can't stand that, so -- Jim knows this already -because I just -- I mean everything, there's always some variable that's in the real world, right? And so it's just that we happened to find one that we liked the way it varied and it happens to answer some questions we want. But I don't see that that's any more in a, you know, particularly interest, you know, natural experiment than any other.

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I think that that's a nice direction, because you can -- you get so many results with that, but it's a real problem if we build too much on that, because if you come too much strapped in to what actually occurs, you lose the ability to think outside of the real world, and the counter-factuals and the things that can actually occur.

And then there's a lot of things that we need to be able to think theoretically about that we don't expect the world to give us variation in the data, and maybe we don't want it to until we think about it for awhile.

I also think this is one way that laboratory experiments can be very useful in, for instance, like checking out cumulative voting. I mean, instead of having some elections where we have cumulative voting and we actually elect people, I mean, it's kind of nice to check

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it out in the lab, see how it works in the lab, see what kind of outcomes you get. And we can't go around waiting for these natural --

Yes, I think that this idea of natural experiments as being, you know, a clever way to think about the empirical world, and data gives us - - you know, it's nice, but I'm afraid that the discipline has just gone way overboard on this and I think we need to think more carefully about what we're advocating --

MR. BRADY: Well, I want to differentiate first between quasi experiments and natural experiments. Quasi experiments is sort of an unfortunate term. I think even Donald Campbell towards the end of his life wanted to recant it, because it seems to suggest that observational data is sort of like of experiments, when typically it's not.

But natural experiments, that's
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something like the draft lottery in the late '60s, where you basically ratably assigned people whether or not they were going to go into the military, and from that you can learn a lot, what happens to those people in later life. That's a circumstance where I don't think we could learn in a laboratory what would happen to people if you randomly assigned them to military service. But we can, with the draft lottery, experiment. In places where we can learn in a laboratory, because we can manipulate things in practice and ethically, then great, let's do it. But in cases where we can't do that, like the lottery experiment, then natural experiments are a great boon because they overcome the impossibility otherwise of really not consigning variables. I mean, you really have orthogonality between that and the _actually not quite, it turns out in that experiment, but that's another story -- in that natural experiment, but at
least it's better than what we usually get.
MR. ALDRICH: I have a couple of questions. But first I could preface by saying that Dick taught me when he was a graduate student and I was a graduate student, and the natural experiment of the lottery explains why Chris could be my professor and I could be the graduate student. It's not age. I have two questions. I think there's a couple of people asserting this issue's __ to be better, which -- I mean, that's probably a truism that, you know, has been around for a very long time. Is there something new that we're talking about, or is it, you know, we need to improve our introductory course and make sure it's actually followed through upon? The question specifically for Chris, if there are -- if you can't trust any equation with more than three variables -- are you getting up? Is that
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a --

SPEAKER: He's been on a diet.
MR. ACHEN: After the ribs at lunch -- No, I don't think so, but I do think that we're not very careful with our empirical work. And so even when there are a dozen articles on a given topic in the discipline, $I$ often find reading them through, actually in the same way maybe that -- as you read them, and you think, well, I don't know what to believe.

And part of that is just because the very patient, careful data analysis that I think is necessary to validate the statistical models that we do use, which have a very large number of assumptions built into them, is rarely done. And the result of that, then, is that you look at the work and you say I don't really know whether that inference is right or not.

And that, it seems to me, -. A lot of hours go into this, a lot of time and
effort. But the kind of patient work that you see in some other fields, where a 5 - or 10- year project will be carried out to find out whether there really is little bugs in the water that cause this particular disease. We don't do that. We just kind of run regressions and, well, they had six bugs per cubic inch and they had three, and sure enough there was more diphtheria in Area A.

It sounds like a caricature, but it isn't. It really isn't very far from what we do. And I do that careful selection of subsamples will allow you often to get rid of six or seven of these variables because you really controlled for them with the sample that you picked and the people that you talked to in the survey and so forth. And the result of that would be, you know, he says 5-3; well, I counted the number of dimensions I live in. You can look at 3-dimensional data on a screen and see what's going on.

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And that is the difference, $I$
think. Right now, you look closely at the empirical work that's in the journals, you look closely at it, take time with the data, give yourself a month, go through it line by line, and it's a reliable event that sometime over the course of that month you will find hideous mis-specifications in there that move everything around really badly when you -. That seems to me to be on people like me. You know, we've trained people a certain way and we're paying for it.

MR. ALT: I think -- you know, that's a point worth spending some time and thought on, because if acted on in different ways it would make some of the things we're trying to fix actually worse. It would, I think, in many ways increase the divide between the theorists -- I'm like Becky, I can't remember now who said exactly what when, so forgive me for getting it wrong.
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I think it was Henry who really stressed the point about the elimination of alternative explanations, as opposed to the kind of, you know, have a theory, write down a model, collect some bit of data, find -you know, find traces of the effect you want to predict in the data, and regard your job as done.

That's right. I mean, the point to me is not that that's a problem. Those are different parts of the enterprise, as is the kind of very careful validation of statistical work that Chris is talking about. My feeling is the field's a little small and not nearly rich enough to do all those things as well as we'd like.

My guess, and Bill, I'd welcome a comment back from you on this, is that in economics people tend to assume that that's just going to come out in the wash, every finding is going to be followed up by some number of other people at some point and,

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you know, eventually all relevant mis-specifications will be located or they won't be big enough to worry about. Because it's not my impression that I --

MR. BUTZ: You ___ economists who believe in an efficient method.

MR. BRADBURN: But that's -- isn't that variable a mind state?

MR. ACHEN: Segue. I would say that most people think that. MR. ALT: Yes, and I think -that's why what I -- you know, basically I think Chris is right and I think what he's put his finger on is that we're a much smaller field, and so there are enormous gaps in what actually gets checked up on. And, you know, things survive for 3 years, 5 years, 6 years, then somebody says, you know, they coded that wrong. And, you know, everybody goes back and rethinks. MR. YOUNG: Well, can I jump in here with a remark about economics? I mean, BETA REPORTING
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    I -- there's a more -- a darker
    interpretation, which is that since
    economists come to these questions with a
    received theory and the theory generally
    predicts the direction of movement, actually
    I think a great deal of empirical work goes
    on that's very sloppy in economics. If it
    gives a prediction that's in the right
    direction according to the theory, everybody
    just buys into it and they -- and actually
    it may not be corrected.
    So part of the difference, I
    think, between the two subjects is that
within political science there's much more a
priori skepticism that the theory was right
to begin with, and therefore you get
searching critiques of attempted empirical
estimation.
But agreed that it's a small
field, and of course it's difficult to have
the proper number of follow-ups and
embellishments and so forth.
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MR. ALT: Yes, I actually think that raises another good related point that I talked on before at other meetings down here. I think it's actually -- in political science, let's go back to the previous case where you have a theorist who derives one implication, finds it in the data, and says job done. And then a lot of, you know, this finger-pointing that says you have to check it more carefully, control for all the relevant variables, check your specification against the kind of usual way of doing it, and eliminate alternative explanations.

My view has always been that there's absolutely no reason to ask the person who did that first piece of work to do those other things. It's actually inefficient to do that.

Any theorist will, not by cause of deceit or ill-nature, but just by knowing what they know better than what they don't know, do a better job of generating

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> imputations that are likely to support what they believe than really being capable of thinking out those things that are most likely to falsify it. So it seems to me it's healthy that we're skeptical. But it should be the people who believe other things who then, instead of saying, eh, you know, partial equilibrium, God I hate those small regressions -- actually go out and do the work of saying there are three other ways that I think we could get to this result; here are the theories, here's some data, here is a result; and look, they're not excluded or yes, one is excluded and one isn't. There is in the memos -- and I want Henry to -- I want you guys to give Henry that piece of paper so he can write those 20 things up there so we can begin kind of checking ones that we like a lot.

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But there was in one of the proposals a suggestion, which I think would be very valuable, to bring groups together on a common problem who actually have different approaches to it. It's got to be handled carefully -- hard to do it so they don't just talk past each other or not talk to each other at all. We all know that, because we've all tried it.

But I think that is the way to get to some of the things Chris and Henry and Peyton -- and everybody else, because we're all agreed in a way -- are talking about. I don't think it's a good idea to say, you know, yet again, train one person to plan to do it all because that's just not how research is going to get done.

MR. SCIOLI: It seems like a natural segue to our visiting disciplines to tell us about how the divide exists. I think we've heard some of Peyton's in economics, but this whole -- easy stuff or

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not, what's the big deal.
MR. SIMON: Well, I guess I wear three other hats, so I may try and talk about math, economics, and epidemiology, where I have some appointments in.

Was it Jim who said it was a problem of science, not political science. And that's true in all these areas. As Becky said a little while ago, economics has the same problem. I did this little survey of, you know, randomly chosen APSRs and AERs, and while it is true that there was no article in the APSR that combined theory and empirics, there were very few in economics, maybe 20 percent in the AER, which is a rather -- the journal. If it's going to be anywhere, that's where I think you might find it. MR. ACHEN: In 1981. MR. SIMON: In -- no, in 2000. MR. ACHEN: Oh, in 2000 . MR. SIMON: In 2000, too. There

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was very little change. It went from 15 to 20 percent.

The -- so that it certainly -- you
know, the topic of this meeting is a disconnect between theory -- formal theory and empirical modeling. And I think it's there. It's certainly there in epidemiology, as I mentioned, and I won't repeat things I wrote about. But NIH is a good example. There's a case where the government organization is pushing it, and it's very difficult to squeeze theory in an NIH proposal. They really do want to see empirical work and almost only empirical work.

Even true in math. I mean, math the divide is between the very pure and the impure applied math. And, you know, you would think that a pure problem would come from some real-world example or that a real-world example might somehow tie in and be motivated by the pure techniques, but

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it's absolutely not true, and I'll tell a little story about that shortly.

So I think it's there in all the fields. It's certainly there in economics. Economics does have a simpler task, I think, than political science. We've talked about that in different talks here today. You know, the terms are better defined, the problem's simple. I mean, microeconomics is simply modeling decision -- you know, decision theory, modeling decisions of consumers and firms and some -- at least how it's -- Peyton raised his eyes a little bit, so I'll hedge on that a little bit. But the way it's taught in the standard micro book 10 years ago, I think that it's pretty much a course in decision theory, which automatically makes it pretty easy to model. So it has, to make it simpler, it's got all this nondynamic, the equilibrium, the pure rationality. And part of the problem, I think, is something that

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those of us who do genetic algorithms call premature convergence. Economics has tended to glump onto equilibrium notions and perfect rationality, and maybe to its detriment in some ways.

I think it has become more empirical, and you can certainly see that in the AER articles, where the empirical part -- I mean, in 1981 there was almost no empirical part, and more than half the articles were empirical by 2000. So I think that's worth noting.

I agree with -- most of it I -instead of repeating what I said, I actually find I'm commenting on trying to give a well laid out comment on things people said. But I do think in political science it seems to me the problem is that the theory is so poorly developed and maybe a rather a scary thing to students.

> Richard mentioned game theory as the thing that -- the theory that political

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science hangs on. Most of the theory I know in game theory's pretty much 2-dimensional, I mean two-person, rather. At least, you know, the kind that most students learn, the kind that you would teach an introductory course on. It's sort of a strange political science paradigm to have something that works well for two people or two groups. So I think there may be another problem there. So I certainly would hope that political science doesn't build on equilibrium and pure rationality. To do that it would have to open up to other techniques. And I think as I mentioned in my writeup, computer modeling is a good way to tackle things that are not amenable to paper-and-pencil calculus groups. There are plenty of problems -how do you prove something general out of two or three computer runs? Well, you can't. You have to think this out. Another problem that -- I do want

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to challenge Chris's statement about the GRE score. I just can't believe that in fact the political science -- there must be a big tail -- maybe you're talking about the mean and there's a big tail that, you know, the variance may be large.

I also think -- the articles that I've read in political science, the empirics are much less careful than they are in math. The best statisticians $I$ know are some of the econometricians, like Gary Solon and that group. And except for Chris, who I think is -- leads the charge in being careful.

But formal modeling is still, it's hostile in political science, it's hostile in epidemiology, it's just very comfortable in economics.

Bill Keech mentioned culture as a
variable, and $I$ think that really highlights the part that in our disciplinary approach is called for to really carry this out in

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the way that makes sense in political science.

We talked about some suggestions for fixes. I do think post-docs are a great idea. They don't exist in economics. Although I meant to -- I talked about -economics hasn't had this discussion, as clearly they should. I mean, they do a little better, but not much, than political science, and maybe this meeting will move political science beyond economics.
Post-docs would be great. It takes a little bit of change in expectations of what happens to new PhDs. But the Robert Wood Johnson foundation health scholars that Chris mentioned are a fantastically successful idea, of taking students out for 2 years, putting them in an environment that is conducive to what you'd like them to do and learn, and drawing them out and watching the magnificent changes they make -- in this case, you know, putting health policy into

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their work.
I like the idea of summer workshops. Scott Page teaches one at Michigan in ICPSR and also one at Santa Fe on computational political science. And those are oversubscribed.

And I really think NSF can make a difference. And let me close with a little story. Personal background -- my PhD's in math, but at some point $I$ was 50-50 math and economics at Michigan. And I really liked the economists more. They were much more fun. Ted Bergstrom and Hal Varian and Ken Binmore -- a wonderful crazy bunch.

So I decided to move -- and 50-50's an unstable equilibrium. You know, everyone expected 100 percent. So I decided to move 75 econ, 25 math. And the chair of the math department at the time said great idea, Carl, in fact why don't you go 100 percent over to econ because you're an applied mathematician and, you know, that's

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not our favorite kind. I mean, he literally
said that.

And then NSF, right about a year later NSF math started really emphasizing the importance of applications, of having math be founded in real- world problems. And suddenly there was a little more support. And the same person came back to me 2 years later and begged me to change my appointment back.

And I think this is purely an
NSF-related -- you know, that -- the initiatives at NSF generated quite a big role. So I think it can make a difference. MR.GRANATO: Peyton.

MR. YOUNG: Actually, Carl, you provided the perfect lead-in for me. I'll also give a story related to Michigan. I got my PhD in mathematics at Michigan. And at the time, Harmos (?) was there and, of course, just one of the most spectacular teachers ever.

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However, I found -- he was giving a course in functional analysis. And after about 3 weeks, we hadn't seen anything but point set topology. Nothing. It was just totally abstract. Not a function in sight. And so I went to him in his office hours and I said, you know, this is a really fascinating area, but $I$ wonder if you could just give me a book, tell me about a book or two that would give me some historical perspective on the field. Where does all of this come from? What is it good for?

And he looked at me and said, "I don't know and I don't care."

So much of what I wanted to say has been said. The one thing I'd like to pursue a little bit that's come up in several of the comments is the question about whether formal theory in political science really is just game theory. I don't think anybody meant to say it was "just" game theory, but there has been a tendency.

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If you ask somebody in political science what do you understand by "formal theory," they very often will say the rational actor model or game theory or some combination thereof.

Now, I think, frankly, that's part of the problem. That's too narrow a theory for political science to work with -leaving aside the question of whether it's right, of course. I mean, economists don't bother themselves too much with that, so why should we here -- I mean, what if people aren't rational?

But leaving all of that aside, there are various problems and questions, central questions, in political science that actually I don't think are very well addressed by any of those theories. Actually, Errol's (?) -- you know, and earlier, Duncan Black (?) -- I mean the whole theory of voting has a whole incarnation that's completely separate from

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game theory.
Now, you can reinterpret some of this in terms of strategy and equilibrium and misrepresentation and all the things we know about, but the fact of the matter is that, going back to the French Enlightenment, the idea of a theory of voting, of collective decision making that had a normative flavor, that's to me also eminently a theory. It's a formal theory, it's a very carefully reasoned theory.

And I think if one cared to one could make a list in political science of a number of these things that are simply sort of conveniently forgotten or kind of pushed to the side. It's not being maybe general enough to qualify as "the" theory in political science, but that's where I think the mistake is coming.

Political science addresses a huge variety of problems, and I think sometimes we're just going to have to admit that the

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relevant theory isn't rational actor models,
it's some other theory. It's a theory
that's tailored for that particular problem.
Just to give another kind of quick
example that I myself have worked in, you
asked the question how do entities -- public
agencies or something -- distribute scarce
goods.
Well, you can develop a theory of
this. It's a partly empirically based
theory. It's a theory of fair division, as
it were, but it's an empirically based
theory. You can develop terms of reference,
you can go out and study whether these terms
are or are not in practice. You can do the
whole thing without a single mention of the
word "rationality" or a single mention of
the word "game."
Now, I'm not saying it's
contradictory to those theories. What I am
urging is that a broader definition of
theory -- that we think about enlarging the
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boundaries of theory in political science. And indeed, I think this is one of the great advantages of political science. I've always been envious of your guys. I mean, you know, economics is so trapped, in a way, in a narrow explanation of human behavior. It's just hopeless. But we'll never undo it.

You are in a position where heterodoxy reigns, or at least it did reign until maybe a few years ago, I don't know what's -- it's said there was a sort of circling of the wagons in some departments and in some parts of the field, that this is the way to do it and other ways are just inappropriate.

But I don't actually sense that that is a completed task. And I would urge that there would continue to be a sort of a hundred flowers blooming in this field.
I just -- it's -- Carl said it, there's a notion of premature convergence.

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Good. Let there be a variety of competing explanations -- not all of them formal, by the way. If the institutionalists or the evolutionary people or something else can explain a phenomenon better than a rational actor crowd can, well, fine.

In fact, what $I$ want to argue is you should have contests. And I think the way you would have a contest is you would -you can't do what we're doing here. You can't have a 2-day philosophical debate. That just isn't going to cut it. What you've got to do is take a few substantive, concrete questions and you devise a kind of a workshop setting maybe, or a summer program, I'm not sure what, in which you turn loose the different -- the exponents of these different schools to try to explain the phenomenon.

And you include empirical people who know about the phenomenon who can say, well, you know, that just doesn't comport

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with the facts; I mean, it's a great theory but you've left something critical out. It could be the empiricists could simply be people who are familiar with data, and maybe in addition you need some people who are just good methodologists -- that is, can see how you would construct an appropriate test of a give theory, either by regression or by other means.

Now, what would be candidates for sort of a contest like this? Well, you can provide them better than I can. I mean -but models of turnout in voting is the obvious thing to start with, I mean, something that's just totally central to the field and, in my view, still hasn't been resolved. There is no, to my knowledge, thing that you could say in a graduate course "this is the correct explanation in political science for the rate of turnout and why people vote."

I don't believe we have such a

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theory yet. We have components of a theory, there are competing points of view, there are lots of coherent arguments, but it just hasn't come together yet.

Have a contest. Culture, identity
and again, what I'm thinking of is you would have a variety of kinds of theories and approaches that would be brought in to attack that kind of a problem, not just formal theories.

Now, this brings me to another point which is going to perhaps offend some people. I'm sorry, but -- I love experimental economics. I love behavioral economics. And I'm sure that I would love behavioral political science carried out in the same way. But it's going to be a whole lot harder in political science. And the reason is that the fundamental limitations to work in the laboratory are it's tremendously difficult to inject the sense of context, which often I believe does make

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a difference in decision making.
And thus, where you can have people plot-like playing kind of some sort of trading game, and the context is sufficiently rich so that you're probably capturing the real-world phenomenon or something close to it, I am very, very worried that all kinds of questions in political science involve so many cues, psychological variables, as in escalation, party platform development, ideology -- how are you going to recreate plausibly these kinds of motivations in a laboratory?

Now maybe I'm just being naive. That is, maybe it is possible to do all this in a convincing way. But $I$ just -- I want to raise a red flag here, or at least a yellow flag, that I'm all for it, I think all of these fields are better off with experimentation than they ever were without it-- no question about that -- and that NSF should be putting money into this.

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Still, I just want to point out that I think in political science it's going to be harder to draw, kind of, real-world conclusions from some of those kinds of experiments than it will be for some kinds of similar exercises in economics.

MR. McKELVEY: Let me respond to that since I'm the main proponent of the experimental approach. I think I agree that there's no way that with laboratory experiments you can address the big problems. And it seems to me that the question you're raising is, you know, how do we build theories of big problems as opposed to little problems.

But laboratory experiments are really very good for addressing basic questions about the underlying theory. So, for instance, what we're looking at is questions of equilibrium selection and games, things of that sort, looking at very simple models like the models of incomplete

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information with juries, where they're very -- you have theories which specify a small number of variables which are relevant and can be controlled for very precisely in the laboratory. And for that kind of question, $I$ think it's -- you know, doing laboratory experiments is just an ideal way to go.

But I agree that, you know, you're not going to be able to address these big questions in the laboratory.

MR. BRADY: Well, there's also field experiments as well, and I think we should be willing to think about the stuff that, going back to Harold F. Gosnell (?), who did it in the ' 20 s, $I$ think it was, and more recently Don Green and others. And certainly in labor economics, field experiments have been enormously important in helping us to understand the impact of labor supply and various kinds of welfare policies. So we should be thinking about

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real field experiments as well.
MR. SCIOLI: Jim Alt, you've become a recent proponent of sharing information on experiments -MR. ALT: Well, no, I'm not, but I think that experiments should be part of the tool kit of any social scientist, and political science no different from the rest. And so we sponsor conferences and we're pioneering a little short 4- day, 5-day program courtesy of Al Roth. I mean, we look to behavioral economics because right now they have all the money and we can get them to -- you know, it's the Willie Sutton principle of how to set up programs in political science. So we're doing that, courtesy of Becky and others. My view of experiments, the only -- I think the debate's a good debate. I probably don't really agree with Peyton on this one, largely because I think the developments of the technology for

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> conducting experiments, the ability to use video clips, particularly in relatively natural settings, has totally revolutionized the degree to which you get context across.
> Kent Portney (?) at Tufts has these wonderful sentencing simulations in crime in which you just actually put it on the TV and sit there in the courtroom -- you know, it's not quite a courtroom, it's court TV, but that's close enough -- and you just watch the sentencing report be read and this and that happens. And everything is the same, except you never know whether the defendant is going to be male or female or black or white or the judge is going to be male or female or black or white, and these things are just dubbed in automatically as needed.
> into a very simple experiment. I mean, you probably all heard -- the funniest story I ever heard about this came from Shanto in

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Yengar (?) with the shopping mall experiments, where they built a little living room for people to sit down in so that they'd believe they were watching the evening news. And then they would, you know, doctor the news. The problem was that they had to hide the clicker because people, as soon as politics came on the news, went and changed the channel.
(Laughter)
But that shows -- I mean, to me, you know, we laugh, but that shows how realistic it must have been, you know, that people really thought they were in the living room and they didn't want to watch the political news that night, so they wanted to put on something else. So what I'm feeling is these innovations, these -- I don't want to say you're wrong. I'd say these innovations support your contention that it's difficult to challenge the contention that it'll be

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impossible.
MR. YOUNG: No, no, I never said
it would be impossible. All I said is it's
a lot harder. It's going to be much
trickier in political science to do it
right.

MR. ALT: Well, I want the initiative guys who are concerned about technology to notice that this is an area in which the methodology is being driven by gigantic technological changes that are having an enormous impact on the way in which a field can conduct its research.

MR. ACHEN: We're even putting these clips onto laptops now to send out into the field, so you can literally put them in somebody's living room.

MR. ALT: Okay, and if we're going that far, remember field really means field. I mean, if you want to show a smiley face to, you know, an Inuit or somebody in Africa and all this is being done -- so, you know,

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it opens up the world to the method in a way
that just never was true before.
MR. YOUNG: Can I get one more
minute of time?
MR. SCIOLI: Sure.
MR. YOUNG: I was going to pose
the following question just to think about
over the next day. In -- I think it was in
1901 that Hilbert proposed his 20 problems.
I think that's exactly what political
science needs to do -- needs to pose 20
problems, key fundamental problems. And
then, once you've got the problems, you can
bring to bear both empiricism and theory on
the same thing.
MR. SIMON: Physicists have been
doing that the last couple of years, exactly
imitating Hilbert.
MS. ZINNES: Let me make a quick
comment. First of all, about
experimentation, I think it's great in
certain domains. We tried it in IR, with
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horrible results. Carl Getzgow (?) and the inter-nation simulation was a very famous attempt to put heads of states in simulated environments and see what -- whether you got wars and so on.

The problem is that it's not just context. I think context is one thing, but I think perhaps Jim's right. You could probably get more and more of that going with all the technology.

I think the other issue here, though, is are you experimenting on the thing to which you want to generalize? That's the real issue. As long as you're talking about people -- and people can be voters, okay, or they can be -- they can be a variety of things in political science that have meaning in politics. But when you start talking about institutions and talk about nations and so on, it gets a little squeamish.

I don't know how you do

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experimental work on some of the major problems in international politics. I'd be happy to hear about it because I think it would be a -- I mean, what's the value of experiments? You can control them, right? That's the reason you know whether something affects something else, because you've got the controls set -- experimentation is a marvelous thing. But there are some domains in political science that just don't lend themselves to that unless somebody's very imaginative.

The other thing I wanted to
mention is thank you for that game theory. Yes, game theory is a wonderful avenue for exploring all sorts of things, but again, it carries with itself a set of assumptions. You have to ask yourself are they relevant to the question, are they germane to the question you really want to investigate. In some cases, yes, they're very, very important, and in a lot of things in

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But in lots of things I deal with in international politics, I'm not sure that game theory is necessarily the way to go, or even decision theory. I mean, what do you have then? You have to start thinking about a government as a unitary actor. Well, okay, you can do that and you can get some purchase on the problem. I don't know if that's the most interesting way to go, though.

So, yes, we need more than just that one paradigm.

MR. KEECH: Well, there's -- this is not to deny what you say, Dina, but something is going on in which -- at Carnegie Mellon in which the international issues of bailouts and moral hazard and so on are being made parts of experiments, and they've got finance ministers and World Bank

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officials who say they want to play these games. And some of these things are decisions made by just these people. So there's an approach to big international problems that is going to be done in a lab. MS. ZINNES: Well, Carl Getzgow played a lot with those things, too. He took the simulations to different parts of the world and different types of cultures. People -- different peoples from different cultures played, and he brought in State Department representatives. So there's always this question of -- and this is where the mix between the people you're working with and the context and the environment and the structure within which they operate -to what extent can you transfer that whole thing? So, you know, this isomorphism issue is really very, very important. MR. SIMON: How does the discussion about the usefulness of experimental political science fit in with

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the disconnect between theory and empirics? I have a rough idea, but it's not clear to me. Is the experimental stuff theory, is it empirics? I mean --

MR. ALT: No, no, I mean -- sorry, you go first. MS. MORTON: I just -- I think that there's been a real rise in experimentation in political science -- not just in terms of testing formal theory, but also in testing social psychology and psychological experiments. I mean, it's just -- it's really been a big increase. And I think it's because -- I think it's -the formal theory part is driven by theory, obviously, but I think also the social psychology and the psychological increase in experimentation is a desire to find -- to get at a more carefully developed theory. I think that's what they're trying. They're not -- I'm not real pleased with some of the ways they go about it, and

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they're not really good at putting it together in a coherent format that I like. But I think that the rise in experimentation that has occurred in political science -and there's no question there's been a rise in the last 30 years -- is theory-driven. And I think that it plays a real big role. I don't think -- I think it's a complement. I don't think it's a substitute for non-experimental research. But I -- so, and I think that it definitely doesn't -there is some context where it doesn't work as well. But there's a bigger increase in the psychological and the social psychology.

In fact, most people who do experiments in political science are -- I mean, probably half the formal theory people who do experiments in political science are sitting at this table. I mean, who else is there?

MR. McKELVEY: Well, I mean, there are a lot of economists who do --

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MS. MORTON: No -- formal theory. MR. McKELVEY: There are a lot of experiments in, sort of, game theory and public goods and things of this sort that are done by economists which are related to the questions we look at. There's, I think, a very large group of people who do that. MS. MORTON: They're —. But I mean just in political science. MR. ALT: By the way, just to come back to Carl's question, I mean, I agree with exactly what Becky said. And what I would add to it is it seems to me that experiments are sort of part of the bridge between, you know, the sort of, the more micro models on which the ultimate theories of legislative behavior are built. And I think an appropriate parallel -- it -- they substitute for data we can't collect. One of the reasons that people kept citing John Londregan's book on Chile around the table is that this Chilean

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constitution, for reasons that are lost to me, makes you write down, you know, the votes on committee decisions. And so there's this mass of data that we almost never get when trying to analyze the positions of legislators because we don't know how they behave in committees.

So we have theories about how committees behave, and then we have aggregate votes taken in the chamber, and we hope and pray that our models of committee decisions are right. And in John's case, he was in exactly the opposite position.

He had this mountain of committee decisions and actually no recording except the ultimate winning outcomes when the thing got to the chamber. Because in the chamber they don't write it down, but for some reason in the committee they do. And so this was a once-in-a-lifetime opportunity to write a book actually using observational data in

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exactly the way that $I$ would typically think we would shore up our beliefs and our models by using experiments.

MR. STRAF: I would pose it a little differently. Experiments require a model that is widely accepted or widely known. And I'm wondering from this discussion whether a difference is that in political science the models, the underlying models for the experiment, may not be as widely accepted.

Let me put this in a simple
framework. If you have an intervention, you're either going to control for it or not. If you're not going to control for it, it's an observational experiment. If you are going to control for it, the question next is do you know the effects of the secondary or confounding variables? And that's what requires a model.

I thought Don Campbell had it right. I thought his original thing with

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quasi experiments is you control the intervention but you don't know the effects of the confounding variables, and that's what I thought he called a quasi experiment. To get to the experiment, you have to know those things.

That's why the randomized clinical trial is called the gold standard, because you introduce randomization so that you know the effects. Or you control the experiment in a laboratory with each and every secondary variable so that you know the effects -- they're immaterial, they're constant. The assignment to intervention in both of those cases becomes independent.

But the crux, at least for me, is that you need to understand what the effects are of all these secondary and confounding variables. And that's how I heard Peyton's comment about context in that sense. I think you're in a world where the secondary variables are so subtle, so complex --

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you're dealing with people in a highly interactive environment -- and how could you even begin to reproduce that, let alone model that?

So whether you have your overall theory or not, you need to be able to specify a model there to have something experimental. And I'm questioning whether it's more difficult for social sciences, and especially for political sciences as compared to economics.

MR. ACHEN: It's really hard work. I think that's the central thing that it's hard to teach students. It's really, really hard. There are instances in which randomization is just out of the question.

MR. STRAF: Yes.
MR. ACHEN: Key problems like are black people discriminated against for capital punishment, you can't randomize that. And we just do a multiple regression and say it'll come out in the wash.

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MR. STRAF: Without specifying
what the model really is, without elaborating the assumptions.

MR. ACHEN: Doing the data
analysis. True.
MR. ALDRICH: I think this is also
why Becky pointed out the, sort of, social psych type experimentation is advantaged because it's individuals' attitudes or individual decision making setting and so you can cut out-- you don't have to worry about the interactiveness. You can do random placement assignment.

MS. MORTON: Yes, and, you know, this -- that's where they're getting into all this very, very context-rich -- you know, the lab at the mall, you know, grab them in, you know, sit them in the room, and measuring these media effects and all that. I think the -- there's a potential there to connect more between, you know, these social psychology experiments, but they're all

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decision theoretic. There's no, you know -so they -- at best you could say they describe voters, if you think voters are purely decision theoretic. But, you know, they don't have any kind of strategic situations or look at any kind of group behavior.

And a lot of politics is really --
I think the reason why game theory is so popular in political science is because so much of politics is strategic, and it is the only theory we have around of strategic behavior, as far as I know. We have lots of theories of group behavior, but it actually models the strategies and the strategic-ness of it.

And I think that's why game theory is actually more useful in political science than it is in economics, because in economics there are many more situations that are decision theoretic than there are in political science.

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So I think there's a potential to tap in to, but the social psychologists are doing the lab with the game theoretic experiments that -- but I don't see experiments as ever being a substitute for real-world data. But, you know, I see them as looking at smaller things, like what Richard was saying. Though we can do things in the lab that _can't sometimes do. So -MR. SCIOLI: Let me introduce Phil Rubin, who joined us just a few minutes ago. Phil's director of the Behavioral and Cognitive Sciences Division, which is our cognate division, in at one time, social economic sciences, social economic behavioral -. Phil is on leave as deputy director of the Haskins Institute? Professor of psychology and --

MR. RUBIN: Actually, Department of Surgery now.

SPEAKER: How's that for
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interdisciplinary?
MR. BRADBURN: Frank, before we do this, could I make an observation about the relationship between experiments and observation? Because one of the things -it's quite true, there are lots of things in all the social sciences that one can't do any experiments on, true experiments. But then, one always can point to astronomy as the quintessential observational science.

But the thing is, if you think about why -- or one reason why astronomy makes great strides is that they use knowledge that has come from experiments, and that has been verified in very strong experiments and also very strong theory. So in some sense, you get everything. Even though they on the whole themselves do not do experiments, they draw on physics particularly -- and more and more as astronomy has been interested in cosmology, they're coming together -- I

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mean, they're drawing more heavily on particularly experimental physics.

So that there is a kind of
interplay between the two that they draw strength from each other, and I think that's something that one has to -- you can oppose them, in a way, and a lot of the - - there's been a tremendous amount of discussion, you know, about whether experiments are the gold standard and the best observations can't come up to.

There are -- I started out life as an experimentalist in social psychology, so I sort of moved over to the observational side because of all the difficulties that I found with carrying out experiments and interpreting experiments because of all these contextual effects.
Now, the technology, as Jim mentioned, has made it possible to do experiments that are in some sense more realistic in a way and less laboratory-

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bound. But even so, I don't want to dampen the enthusiasm in a way for experiments in areas they haven't gone into before, but just caution that it's not a panacea and that there are lots of troubles.

And even natural -- I don't want to say natural experiments -- the field experiments, where you're trying to implement a policy experimentally, or even clinical trials and so forth, one of the troubles when you get out of a laboratory is that while you may have control over the treatment, you don't have control over your subjects. And they do lots of other things outside the treatment. And they may get treated in other ways that you don't know about and they may do all sorts of other things, the worst of which is to drop out. And there may be not -- the drop-out from real-life experiments may not be random, and it may be in fact correlated with your treatment or your control group or whatever.

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So there are a lot of things about interpreting realistic experiments, which we think of as a wonderful thing to do, and in many ways it is. But they have their own set of difficulties. None of them are going to be perfect, but I think -- what I would stress is that we need to think not only about theory and empiricism, but also different types and how they play with each other.

MR. SCIOLI: One of the things
that we do, for your information -- just let me give you this statistic, and those of you who have been on the Science Advisory Panel would know, certainly Cheryl's panelists know, that I'll bet we don't see two proposals a year in which experimental design is the methodology in political science. So we don't have to worry about them taking over just now with external validity that's being the undermining feature of the theory.

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MR. FREEMAN: As regards the study of whole systems or these large macro systems that Jim and I -- ask Carl and Peyton how they view computational experimentation. That was something Carl mentioned in his comments.

You know, in Minnesota, playing with dynamic stochastic economies is sort of where it's at. I mean, you don't estimate, you calibrate. And it's the whole -- at least up until recently, this was a whole cottage industry and a whole generation of graduate students were -- I think Lucas advocates that, too, in part because of this observational equivalence problem.

We had Axelrod (?), who I thought did one of the most important works of our discipline, and it hasn't really caught on in political science. And that's a realm of experimentation also.

MR. SIMON: Well, I'm not -- I think it's catching on. I actually tried to

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write about it a little bit in my handout for this meeting. I put it together a little bit with the complex systems approach that I'm enthusiastic about, the whole notion that, you know, when the theory -when you -- often, to be successful, theory needs to have strong assumptions.

When you start to remove those assumptions and include things like heterogeneity, organization, not perfect rationality, or many actors, then you're out of the realm where calculus and paper and pencil will give you the answer. And to get insights you need to turn to computation, I think.

We teach it at Michigan. And as I mentioned, Scott Page teaches a course on computational political science at their Santa Fe institute.
Of course, there are plenty of problems. When you prove a theorem with pencil and paper, you've done something very

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general. You know what -- given some assumptions, you know what follows. When you do a computational run, maybe just taking a few snapshots. So a theory of computation needs to be developed.

But I'd really -- and this is a case where $I$ think political scientists in the realm of -- things have been said around the table, I think -- this is a realm where political scientists have an advantage because of the premature convergence of economics on pure, simple theory and general equilibrium and perfect rationality. If economists are willing -- I mean, political scientists are willing to develop the theory with a new point of view, that could be exciting. But there are dangers. MR. YOUNG: Can $I$ jump in with a remark or two about this? I'm a codirector of a center at Brookings that has some aspects of it devoted to computational modeling. This grew out of some work by

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Joshua Epstein and Rob Axtel called "Sugarscape." I won't go into the details of that. But at any rate, this has evolved now into a bigger platform that's similar to things that go on at Santa Fe and, I'm sure, Michigan and some other places.

The broad idea is that in some computer platform you represent maybe several thousand, or even it can be more these days, individuals interacting in some very complex landscape. And they're making some kind of decision. All of that can be programmed at will onto the sort of general setup. And then you watch the system evolve dynamically, depending on how you specify the interaction structure. Now, what do you learn from this? Well, of course, it's not like proving a theorem. You can't say that. But it might tell you what theorems are provable. And often actually these dynamical systems are so complicated that if you even ask a good

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mathematician what do you think is true of these systems, they'll tell you -- they'll conjecture incorrectly. Your intuition is often very, very wrong about how these systems behave.

So that I think that purely sort of, in terms of pure knowledge, it's extremely helpful to simply watch these processes to see what is possible and to -these surprises jump out at you.

Now, I personally believe that
Santa Fe Institute, you know, takes some of this emergence a bit far. I mean _ would darken the room here and sort of imagine we were in a shiva and wore headdresses, then we could all get into the Santa Fe spirit. I mean, it's almost mystical.

So don't take it that far. But you can learn what relationships are relevant, what theorems might be provable. But I think there's a second thing you learn. A whole lot of people who haven't

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bought into this point of view -- that is, the dynamical point of view -- you take a standard-issue equilibrium economist and you describe a problem. You say, well, yes, suppose that people actually sort of adapt. You know, they learn through some kind of repeated exposure with a variety of individuals and it depends who they talk to and where they live and what their party affiliation is. And so you describe it. And they say, oh, yes, yes, I got that. But then you show them, computationally or projected onto a screen, well, here's how it would actually look. And I'm telling you, these guys say, oh, my God. In other words, they hadn't really understood. They had -- you know, they heard the words and they sort of put it together and it all sounded logical and reasonable. But when you saw the dynamics and the extraordinary complexity of these things, it really is quite an experience,
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and I think suggests new avenues of research, new kinds of questions that you can ask.

MR. SIMON: Let me give a -- my favorite example of the last statement that Peyton mentioned. I worked with a fisheries ecologist, Jim Wilson of University of Maine, on a complex systems version for the lobster fisheries. And you can set a -- I mean, the standard assumption is, in ecology as in economics, is that everything is uniformly distributed -- the fish are uniformly distributed in the water, they're all the same size, the fishermen are uniformly distributed in the water. And when you take that assumption away, you've introduced complexities that you really do need to use a computer to understand.

But the lobster fishermen in Maine have a stricter conservation law than the fishermen in nearby states and in Canada; namely, you can only catch lobsters of a

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certain size -- 1 to 2 pounds. That's universal, but in Maine, if you caught one that was either pregnant or the wrong size, you had to notch the tail so that no one else could -- that lobster had made it. No one else could catch it. And they did -they had to release it right away.

Well, the New Hampshire fishermen didn't have this rule. And of course lobsters migrate, and they were just, you know, waiting at the border for notched lobsters to come on, salivating. And the Maine fishermen said, well, you know, here's a common problem. Why the hell should we have this self-imposed discipline when our neighbors are taking advantage of it?

So Jim Wilson took much of the work that we had talked about, but he was able to put it on a computer to do a simulation that really captured the essence of what was happening. So much so, he could take it to the town meetings among the Maine

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fishermen and convince them that it was realistic, so they could see what was happening, and then ask them to play with it and, particularly, see what would happen if they changed their behavior. And he used this method to convince them to not change their behavior. Eventually they were strong enough to change the behavior of the neighboring states, so it's a victory for the good guys and the lobsters.

But, you know, an indication how seeing something in a simulation developed can really add a lot of insight. Whether it's theory or not is not quite clear, but it's not so far.

MS. ZINNES: Let me make a comment on that because my colleague mathematician Bob Lancaster (?) and I had a very similar experience. We had been playing with a model, differential equations for modeling the friend of my friend, you know, this little adage -- the friend of my friend is

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my friend, but the enemy of my friend is my enemy, et cetera. And we set this up as a series of differential equations and were interested in seeing what would happen over time, particularly since people like Heider (?) had argued that, you know, you move towards balance, right, and in the graph theoretic context that he developed his models.

And what we discovered in putting these into a computational model, putting this into a simulation setting, was that even if -- whether you started with three nations or five nations or whatever, you're less polarized; i.e., you always got a balanced system in good old graph theory terms.

And this was so interesting -- it didn't matter how you started out; that is, if you started off by initializing with respect to which countries are friends and which ones are enemies and so on and then

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you -- the equations kind of tell you how
that moves forward. And the interesting
this is that it always polarizes in the
sense that either you get two opposing
parties or you get everybody together as one
group. You never get a tripolar system, et
cetera.
Now, this was very, very
interesting to one of Bob's students in
mathematics, said how can that be, and he
went and proved, actually, a theorem that
showed -- it's very specialized, okay, our
simulations are much, much more general.
But he was able to prove under certain
conditions with a three- nation system and
certain restrictions why that comes about.
So the synergism between the use of
computational modeling and proving theorems
is just very important.
But I wanted to just make one
other comment about simulations. The thing
that has disturbed me about the simulations
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that go on in political science is there tends to be a lack of understanding of what the output is. That is, people call that stuff data. And I don't see it as data. It seems to me, when you set up your simulation you have programmed in, essentially, your assumptions and your theory.

And what you're doing with that simulation is you're finding out, given those assumptions, what kinds of things happen as a consequence. You're not generating data. Now, you might want to call it data, but you'd better call it theoretical data or something to distinguish it, because it's not -- I don't know if you'd -- the term "observational." It's not real-world kind of data.

And there has gotten to be kind of a misunderstanding here that simulation is like an experiment, that you are really generating observational data. That's not true. You really are generating deductions

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from your theoretical structure. It's a great way to find out things about the analytics, but $I$ don't think it tells you an awful lot about how people behave. That's another step.

MR. ACHEN: I've seen people run regressions on it, actually. MS. ZINNES: I know __ are further deductions -- this goes with this under that set of circumstances. But I -MR. SIMON: Which is fine, but -MS. ZINNES: Yes, which is fine, absolutely fine.

MR. SIMON: I'm mean, in the Sugarscape model there was some question about how does inheritance affect the way people act and that why they're stifling -what is it -- the former vice presidential candidate from Indiana --

SPEAKER: Quayle.
MR. SIMON: The Quayle effect, where in fact inheritance makes the system

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go downhill rather dramatically.
Anyway, but -- you know, it's an experiment run within -- by changing some parameters you can ask how will this affect things in a situation where you couldn't in the -- in epidemiology, some of these computer experiments are crucial because you couldn't do the experiments in the real -it would be unethical to do some of the experiments. And they give insights that epidemiologists there cherish.

MR.GRANATO: For the record, "Sugarscape" is in the book, Growing Artificial Societies, for those of you who haven't read it. And it's by Joshua Epstein and Robert Axtel. And it's fascinating stuff.

What we're going to do now is we're going to collapse discussion point 2 and discussion point 4 to later on today. What we're going to do after a break is have Cheryl take the lead on the

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interdisciplinary initiatives here and what she's seeing in her program.

So let's come back at about 3:00.
(Recess)
MR.GRANATO: We're ready to start discussion point 3. Cheryl. MS. EAVEY: I guess that's me. I'm the interdisciplinary person, I'm no longer a political scientist -- which I think is probably true, having run MMS for the last 8 years. It certainly gives one a different perspective on things. And I assume I'm talking because there's a potential for the linkages that you're trying to gain a handle on to be enhanced by thinking beyond political science. And we do that kind of naturally with economics and the field of political economy, but the question is are there advantages to going beyond that.

And I guess in general I think there are advantages, as simple as bringing

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in different kinds of expertise. So if you're a political scientist you may want to pair with a statistician to create a statistical model, or a mathematician to create a mathematical model.

Going beyond your discipline lowers your comfort level in some sense, and that forces you to challenge the assumptions that you're making, and I think there are advantages there.

So the notion of pairing with other individuals and merging multiple approaches and multiple techniques is one that generally NSF has been encouraging and one that I guess I find appealing, and one that perhaps would be interesting to see how you collectively feel about it with respect to the issues that we're discussing today.

I'm not going to talk about the academic examples and the institute examples that Jim and Frank listed on the agenda, because there are people here from those

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institutions who know them much more intimately than $I$ do and can speak to them. What I thought I would do is just give some examples, both of projects and mechanisms, that have come across my desk in some sense ways of facilitating these interdisciplinary collaborations.

The first is a training example, and that's not even really a collaboration per se. As some of you may or may not know, the MMS program has something called mid-career opportunity awards. And what we do with mid-career is we essentially buy off someone's time.

So we take a linguist and we put them in a math department -- which we've done -- so they can create mathematical models of linguistic phenomena. We'll take a political scientist and put them in a statistics department, or a statistician and put them in a sociology department. And it's a way of gaining skills that they

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didn't have before and potentially establishing collaborations with members of those departments.

The most common way, perhaps, that we facilitate interdisciplinary work is through collaboration, supporting collaborative work. And we do that at a small scale and at a large scale, and we do it at various points throughout the foundation.

Both Frank's program, my program, and other programs within the divisions can support small collaborations; i.e., two or three individuals from different disciplines working together.

And these can be very fruitful. One of the collaborations that comes to my mind is Kim Romney and Bill Batcholder (?). Romney is an anthropologist, Bill is a psychologist. Together they created something called cultural consensus theory which you might be interested in -- which is BETA REPORTING
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> a measurement technique for culture, formal technique. They've also done empirical testing of it. Their work blends computational, statistical, and mathematical aspects. So it's highly rigorous and a very fruitful collaboration. We've funded psychologists and statisticians working together to create statistical models of developmental processes. So there are lots of collaborations writ small that programs can support within program budgets. There are other types of activities that we can support to further these interdisciplinary processes. And I'll go back to the Manski example I talked about earlier. We can obviously support workshops like this workshop, although you're not very interdisciplinary and I think your comfort level is probably too high. know, where you're much more

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interdisciplinary and your comfort level is much lower and you'll get very different kinds of discussions. Those tend to be one-shot deals. Those may not be the most fruitful avenues.

But what we're exploring a little bit, and my program is not the only one doing this, is seeing if we can emulate, writ small, what MacArthur has done very successfully in terms of creating these networks of researchers. Indeed, it's the MacArthur Foundation that $I$ think is taking experimentalists like Jean Ensinger (?) and putting her in the field with a laptop computer.

What I'm doing with Chuck Manski is we're creating a network of individuals interested in social interactions from across disciplines, from different perspectives -- theoretical, empirical -- to engage in conversations over time. Because, as Chuck has claimed, theory is way ahead of

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the empirical work and the two groups don't
talk to each other.
So that's another mechanism,
another way that NSF can further these
interdisciplinary activities.
We also, although usually not
through our regular programs like Political
Science or MMS, can support much larger
collaborations. And these can really be
fascinating activities with lots of synergy.
One good example, I think, for
political science and for other fields would
be the biocomplexity competition, which has
been running for the last 2 or 3 years.
These are large-scale projects where we're
looking at modeling, a lot of agent-based
type modeling or other types of modeling,
human natural interactions, and we're making
awards to ecologists working with
economists, working with anthropologists,
working with mathematicians, all on the
modeling of various coupled human natural
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systems. And those --
MR. BRADBURN: A political
scientist is the head of one of them.
MS. EAVEY: I know, but I was
getting to that as part of my next example. That's true, a political scientist is the head of one of them.

And those sorts of collaborations we can fund at a higher, longer level than you would get with regular NSF programs, so you can talk about maybe $\$ 250,000-\$ 400,000$ a year for a period of 5 years, something like that. Biocomplexity is an ongoing competition. If you have an interest in the natural environment, human natural environment, it may be a very good avenue to pursue.

Very occasionally we have funds that allow us to produce or to support very large-scale interdisciplinary collaborations over long periods of time, usually with other centers. And out of those types of

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activities, I think, comes some very exciting work. The best example I have that includes a political scientist is CSIPEC -Center for the Studies of Institutions, Population, and Environmental Change -- at Indiana University.

And I don't know how broadly the political science profession knows what Lynn Ostrom (?) does in her spare time, when she's not being sort of a pure political scientist, but Lynn is one of the co-directors of CSIPEC, along with Emilio Moran (?), who's an anthropologist. They have an award, 8-year center award, that brings together ecologists, biologists, anthropologists, obviously political scientists, economists, formal modelers, all looking at deforestation and afforestation in the Americas.

And the CSIPEC approach is truly unique, because here really is a pairing of the modeling with the empirical. They are

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blending multiple approaches from different disciplines, from ecology, from political science, collective action kind of pool of resources -- Lynn's work in that area -with going out into the field and collecting data on soil samples, household data, census survey type household data; taking that data, merging it with GIS, remote sensing, data at lots of different levels on different scales, different theoretical approaches, to try to lend these to bring insight into the study of afforestation and deforestation.

And it is a very, very interesting approach and one that does blend, again, theory with the empirical. And it's also interesting from kind of a philosophy of science perspective, because if you go to CSIPEC you can talk to any of the graduate students there and they can tell you a little bit about GIS and a little bit about remote sensing and a little bit about every

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aspect of the project even if they're an economist or a political scientist. Because they all believe that they all have to know a little bit about everything. So it's also a wonderful training ground.

So there's lots of different
avenues at NSF for interdisciplinary work to be supported and sometimes at very substantial levels. And this blending of different kinds of expertise may be one way to forge a tighter link between theory and empirical work.

And that's all I have to say. MS. MORTON: What was the political science example that these guys alluded to?

MS. EAVEY: Oh, that was CSIPEC. MS. MORTON: Oh, there wasn't some other one?

MR. SIMON: I thought you said
Lynn Ostrom biocomplexity grant that --
MS. EAVEY: Oh. Well, in addition

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to the funding for the center, they also won a biocomplexity award. Oh, that's actually a good point, because now, with everything else that they're doing, they've laid on agent-based modeling. And they've brought in Jerry Busmeyer (?), who's a psychologist, to take the lead on the modeling aspect. And this is going to be part of their overall framework for the center. MS. MORTON: I had another question. When you talk about these guys getting together, like the anthropologist and the --

MS. EAVEY: And the psychologist?
MS. MORTON: Yes. They got
together first and then applied to you, right? I mean, do you -- is there a way that you, like, draw those guy and put them in touch with each other? MS. EAVEY: Well, that's a very interesting question. Yes and no. A lot of times people will come to us with

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already-formed collaborations. So, for example, the program has supported Bernie Grafman (?) working with Marley (?) and Regenbether (?), two psychologists. And that collaboration came in to us as is. The program also supports another psychologist and statistician working together. We actually created that collaboration. We had a psychologist come in by himself and basically told him it looks interesting, find a statistician and come back. And he did. And it's been a very fruitful collaboration. With the biocomplexity competition, one of the unique feature of that competition has been what we call incubation awards. And incubation awards are in some sense trying to get at what you're talking about. That is, we've reserved -- I think this year it's a million dollars, which has been set aside to fund small proposals that are incubators -- are a

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series of workshops, kind of like a planning grant. Because we recognize that many of these collaborations that we would like to support with larger awards need time to gel. And so the incubation award is to give these folks time to, in some sense, get together and figure out what they're doing and learn each other's language.

Now, it's interesting with CSIPEC. With CSIPEC the folks there knew each other but had never really worked together. And Lynn and Emilio say it took about 2 years, or a year and a half, for them to have a common language in terms of what they were doing.
MR. RUBIN: Yes, let me give you
an example. Carl and I just spent the
weekend at a workshop at the American
Academy of Arts and Sciences in Cambridge,
and it was the result of an incubation
award. And there were -- it was geared
towards eventually developing perhaps a

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proposal, a large-scale proposal for the biocomplexity of the environment.

At that meeting were geneticists, anthropologists, psychologists, people in computational modeling, on and on and on. It was a pretty wide group. And there was a total of 40 people. It's going to be followed up by a more focused group, perhaps, of about five to six people who on their own intend to develop then a full-scale proposal for the biocomplexity competition.

MR. SIMON: I was at one the previous week, too, and that was one about modeling human- animal interactions, animal conservation. And again, it was a pretty interesting mixed group, a lot of people who work in the field, especially Africa, working on animal problems -- tuberculosis in buffalo or just deer getting in the way in suburbs. But it was, again, economists -- no political scientists -- a lot of

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biologists, one math modeler, and -- you know, a lot of energy in these meetings.

MS. EAVEY: There are, yes. It can be very exciting stuff.

MR. YOUNG: How do you construct the panels that review the proposals for things like this?

MS. EAVEY: Oh, very carefully. You know, it's always a challenge. What we try to do, what you try to do generally when you're looking -- when you've got a group of proposals that are interdisciplinary in nature. You're obviously bringing people in from different disciplines, right, who have disciplinary perspectives and whatever biases go along with those. You try to have individuals, however, who have breadth and appreciation for work that goes beyond their discipline or perhaps beyond their particular area of expertise.

And if you identify good people with breadth and if you try to carefully

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look at the proposals at hand to the extent that you can and make sure that all areas are covered -- sometimes that means having outside reviews from disciplinary experts in addition to a panel -- you can get what I think are very, very reasonable methods for evaluating these proposals. It's not a problem; it just takes care.

MR. KEECH: How is this related to IGERT? Is that graduate training oriented, __ and research? MS. EAVEY: IGERT is graduate -that's correct. And that's, you know, perhaps one way that MMS and Political Science will fail you guys, is that we're not well equipped to -- our programs are not well equipped to fund education. We've done teeny bits -- the MMS mid-career, both Political Science and Economics supported Dina's workshop master's activities for a short time. But generally speaking, we're a research directorate so our ability to

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support education tends to be somewhat limited.

IGERT is out of the Education department. It is graduate education and training, and is potentially a good mechanism for some of the things that have been discussed today.

MR. BRADBURN: Not the Education department, the Education directorate. MS. EAVEY: I'm sorry. I've only been here 8 years, I should know this.

MS. MORTON: What about post-docs?
Is that --
MS. EAVEY: Post-docs can be
supported on part of a regular award.
MS. MORTON: Okay.
MR. BRADBURN: Let me just say that as part of the -- if we're successful in getting extra funds in this priority area, one of the things we'd like to do is to institute some IGERT-type programs within the social sciences. Right now one of the

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difficulties -- I think some of you have applied, or at least the ones I've talked to -- is that the _- by and large is defined as something in two directorates of NSF. So that's not entirely true. There's one at Harvard on poverty that's just social sciences. But mostly the IGERT, sort of, ruling is the way you establish multidisciplinarity is that it's as disciplines are defined in NSF by the directorates. So it's been hard for social scientists to be -- I mean, like economists and psychologists working together, that's in some sense a broad span.

MS. EAVEY: Yes, but we could do political scientists and mathematicians and statisticians working together. MR. BRADBURN: That's true. MR. SIMON: We just put in an IGERT for, sort of, using computational point of view to study political and economic institutions. I guess what you're

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saying is because it's too social science oriented, it's chances are weaker.

MR. BRADBURN: Well, if it's -- if
the computational part attracts either -- it would be in SEIS (?) or the math and statistics group, then that would be fine.

MS. EAVEY: There is another priority area on the horizon which could be of interest, and it didn't fare well in the last budget, but that's the math initiative. And if the math initiative is ever more fully funded, there will be an interdisciplinary component to -- I'm sorry, priority area, not initiative -- there will be an interdisciplinary component to that priority area. And the general idea we have now is for, let's say, SBE to pair with statisticians or mathematicians and to hold a competition for mathematical research in social behavioral science areas.

So that is a competition which could greatly benefit our disciplines and

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perhaps be relevant for what you're discussing here, assuming that we can actually get it funded.

MR. RUBIN: Three other crossing kind of programs, actually four, are we have an infrastructure competition and we've given a series of awards over the past few years that provide for larger-scale funding and can be both -- we like to see them crossing the disciplines within SBE, but some of them often are not as broad as we like. But they tend to pioneer work in different things like digital libraries or new sources of data, and Norman can talk more about those if he hasn't already. We have the MRI, major research instrumentation. I just saw the awards, and I know that there weren't any competitors even in political science. There were awards made mostly in GRS -- that's geography regional sciences -- human cognition; there was one in sociology that

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was not made, but there was one competitor. So the community needs to be aware of whether or not there are major instrumentation needs.

And if it hasn't been mentioned, the ITR competition -- that's information technology; and finally, the new advance program, which is the replacement for their power (?) program -- are some of the other opportunities. There are many, many different things. I don't want to --

MS. EAVEY: Oh, that's fine. You need to be aware, though, because they come and go. So for example, we had infrastructure for 2 years; we're not planning a competition for fiscal year 2002. So you need to pay attention, because these things do come and go, and you need to catch it while it's available.

MR. SCIOLI: Hopefully with the priority initiative or priority activity these kinds of activities will be much more

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stable in terms of the funding opportunities and the consistency or the persistency of the program. The ITR, which Philip mentioned, and which you should take a peek at on your Web site, this group in particular would find it fascinating, interesting in terms of the opportunities for information and technology broadly defined.

And what we do, in response to I believe it was Peyton's question about how do we constitute the panels, within programs we constitute the carefully, we hope, but with regard to these initiatives, I mean we get tremendous urging from Norman and from Philip and Bill to make sure that we're at the table when these proposals are evaluated not us, but our disciplines.

So if we have submissions that are multidisciplinary and involved statistics, political science, sociology, we try to get as many representatives as possible to

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advise the foundation on these activities. So when -- you know, it's the small- numbers problem or the no-numbers problem, as Philip mentioned with MRI, that it becomes a problem, but with ITR, I attended a meeting 2 weeks ago, largely where engineers were told about engineering infrastructure and the technology as it affects engineering infrastructure. And when I was invited by Priscilla Nelson to talk, and I said to folks, hey, if you know sociologists, psychologists, methodologists, political scientists, please involve them in these projects. We really encourage that.

And, you know, the engineers where just, what, you mean we can bring other people? Of course, it considerably affects the chances that something like that will be evaluated favorably, because it has a
synergistic effect. We see proposals, we try to get more people on the panels, the people on the panels are encouraged to look

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at these issues broadly writ.
And so that's the
multidisciplinary research activities. And Cheryl's correctly highlighted the ones where this workshop appropriately relates to the Ostrom work and some of the other. But they're few and far between, wouldn't you agree, Cheryl?

MS. EAVEY: Absolutely. MR.GRANATO: Does anybody have anything else? MR. SCIOLI: How about something, if we would -- Cheryl referred to Carnegie Mellon, Cal Tech, Brookings, and maybe you can say something about Santa Fe as well. But can you share with us the -- for the record. Certainly we all know about it, but we have visitors here who might be informed about what's going on. MR. KEECH: Well, let me say something about Carnegie Mellon. Richard has already indicated that at Cal Tech some

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of these things are just not problems. And I'm pleased to say that that is the case at Carnegie Mellon as well. I know my own department, Social and Decision Sciences, best.

Actually, I'm aware of Cal Tech, having spent 6 months there about 10 years ago, and Cal Tech was my model for what Carnegie Mellon ought to be as an interdisciplinary place.

My department is actually more diverse, I think, than Cal Tech was, Cal Tech being pretty purely economics and political science. We have sociologists, psychologists, historian, industrial engineer, philosopher all in a pretty coherent program, but that is considerably more diversity.

There's just no sense of hostility to modeling or formal theory. In a sense this ironic because we are a citadel of bounded rationality and of critiques of

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rational choice modeling. But we critique them from an informed and sympathetic point of view rather than from know-nothing hostility against anything formal, which is something I've seen a lot of in political science.

So up until recently we hadn't been all that theoretical, actually. We hired John Pali (?) from Cal Tech and we have another -- well, actually, we're sort of a Cal Tech -- pretty good for you guys. Three Cal Tech people in recent years in two units at Carnegie Mellon. But we hire them because they are compatible with us. But another thing that's happened at Cal Tech, I think, is that it's become a little broader and more behavioral with Colin Camber (?) among perhaps others. So I don't know how you would create this atmosphere. I came from a place where I would love to have created it, and its absence was one of the reasons I wanted

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to go to a place like Carnegie Mellon. But I guess one thing to -- I'm trying to think what could be imitated, and I may need to think about that a little bit longer. But there's that word again, the culture of the place is very interdisciplinary and disciplinary boundaries are low, if they exist at all. They're not a political science department. We've made substantial contributions to political science, first in the old SUPA, School of Urban and Public Affairs, which became the Heinz School. Richard was there, along with Peter Orterschuk and Mel Hennick.

And there was another phase of contribution to political economy coming out of GSIA, the business school, under the leadership of Alan Meltzer and with Keith Poole and Howard Rosenthal and Tom Rohmer, et cetera, Alberto Alazina.

So now political science is mainly the job of my department. And we're small,

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but we are analytical and we are doing the kind of undergraduate training that -- to a not as big an audience as I would like, but of the kind that $I$ read in some of the memos and heard in some of the comments made this morning.

And I must say that the audience is a little different as well. I think one of the things that makes political science undergraduate training less theoretical as something that's not totally under our control, it's the expectations of people who come to college. And I don't know where they get it, but they expect economics to be analytical and they expect us not to be.

In the Carnegie Mellon they don't suffer from this expectation, or they don't come expecting political science much at all, but students are not thrown by an equation or a model and, you know, there are drama students and all kinds of students there, but it's just a very -- from the

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point of view of what's shared in this room a very fortunate and -. MR. McKELVEY: The unique thing about Cal Tech is the interdisciplinary nature, where it brings together economists and political scientists primarily. We also have some historians, an anthropologist, and sort of a behavioral psychologist, Colin Camber, who does sort of psychology, really, but economics research.

I guess one of the things about Cal Tech is that it's first to be small. And because of the fact that we support both the economics and political science departments within this one division -actually it's half of the division if you __ in social sciences -- we don't have a lot of fat. And since we can't afford to build up an entire political science department or an entire economics department, and so we're sort of forced towards the center. And consequently we

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have a program which is very centered around common elements between economics and political science, as we have selected them, namely the primarily quantitative aspects of their connection.

So there's a lot of -- well, the graduate program is focused around the quantitative aspects and the -- we don't have a political science degree, we have a degree -- at the PhD level, we just have a social science degree.

So someone comes into our program and both the economists and the political sciences take the same courses through the first year and then they start to specialize.

Even, I guess -- but I don't see a lot of the problems that we've been talking about here. That's not to say that -- I don't know, I guess I exaggerate a little bit, but even in a department our size there is mostly an applied-theory tension always

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when you decide you're going to hire someone new, you know, which direction you're going to go. But there's certainly, I think -- we tend to respect the empirical people, they respect us, and there's a lot of interaction between us. We go to common seminars and so on.

As far as Cal Tech providing the model for other places, I think -- I mean, Cal Tech and Carnegie Mellon start off with a different view of how the university is organized than a lot of other universities do. And, you know, I think it's -- you know, it works really well in a place like Cal Tech. I'm not sure to what extent you could take this model and import it to other universities. Part of the way we go there is through just the, sort of, historical way in which Cal Tech is organized. So I don't know the degree to which you can export this. But I think as far as the

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training, the students that we produce, I think they probably end up a little sort of heavy on the theoretical end of the spectrum. And one of the problems when they go out to get jobs is that they -- I think that they're frequently seen as not having, you know, enough empirical background. So we've recently actually gone from a 4-year program to a 5-year program at our PhD level to try and help to alleviate this difficulty.

At the undergraduate level I think we have sort of a similar experience to Carnegie Mellon. The students at Cal Tech are -- you know, they don't come there for social sciences, they come for the natural sciences and they are very quantitatively tooled up by the time -- you know, when they get there. The median score on the analytic SATs is 800. So we don't have anything to worry about with them being prepared for the analytic part of the courses that we teach.

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Consequently the undergraduate courses that we teach, the introductory political science course is taught out of Peter Orterschuk's book, you know, so it's not what you would get at a standard introductory level political science course. It is sort of focused towards a lot of the theoretical questions that people here are interested in.

I don't know how effective that is in terms of producing the students that eventually will go on into this field because I think a lot of the students have already decided what they want to go into and they just take the social science because it's a requirement.

But I don't know. I think maybe I'll stop here.

MS. MORTON: One thing I wanted -about interdisciplinary stuff that -- it seems to me that even when you're a normal university which has normal departments, and

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you know, it's incredibly hard for junior
people to try to be interdisciplinary.
Because they just -- you know, they don't
end up getting tenure if they try to do
this. I mean, you have to publish in your
discipline's journals or books in your
discipline. So the only people who can
afford to do these sort of things have to be
the more senior people.
So it's not clear to me that this
is a way to help build up junior people with
these skills, because the people that can
actually -- you know, by the time you are
able to take advantage of some of these
initiatives, you're maybe past the point
where we want to reach you.
I mean, I -- and so I'm not
convinced that this is the way to go unless
we can figure out this way to help -- I mean
the junior people in departments, like at
Iowa, if they go and spend a whole lot of
time and try to publish in statistics
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journals, it's going to be a problem for them. I mean, Iowa actually may be more friendly to this than some other places, but most departments are going to be suspicious of things you do with other disciplines. And it's also a big investment in time.

I'm really very friendly toward interdisciplinary work, but I don't see that this -- the problem is this institutional structure that we have to live in, and I don't know how -- I think NSF is doing everything they can, but they can't go and make the deans happier with this. And I don't know what to do about that. MR. YoUNG: Can $I$ cut in and just make a comment about that? I certainly agree that the incentives for graduate students are like that, but actually undergraduates I think is a different story. And if one can inject in the curricula things that are frankly interdisciplinary, I think you'll turn on smart undergraduates.

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They don't have to worry about -- you know, they're not on the track that you're talking about. They're just exploring their lives, and often I think feel very constrained by the standard things that we teach in economics or political science or whatever the heck it is.

So I find at Hopkins -- I was going to talk about in a minute -- we've offered some interdisciplinary courses based on, say, computational modeling or the social sciences, and they're breaking down the doors to get into these courses. MR. BRADY: I think, too, that things have changed with economics and political science in the last 20 years. When I was doing my PhD work at MIT, I remember, I wandered between economics and political science and it was like two absolutely different worlds. They couldn't understand why -- each side could not understand why I was taking courses in the

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other place.
But now I see, at Berkeley especially, at least two really important points of contact. One is the behavioral economics stuff, which is just a great point of contact for us in political science; and the other one is this increasing interest on the part of economists in macro issues regarding transitions. And that's a tremendous point of contact with political scientists, because they have a sense they need to know more about that. And if you can get the right kind of political scientist, like a Jim Robinson who we have at Berkeley, that can just be a tremendous way to have some relationship.

What we're trying to think about now is actually establishing a joint program with economics that would be called Politics and Models -- and maybe economics in there as well -- that would try to put all those things together into something that students

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could do. I think products of such a program like that would be very employable. Maybe others worry that they wouldn't be, but I would think that would be a tremendous kind of thing to get going. And it's not quite the Cal Tech model, but it's one way to do it.

MS. MORTON: But that wouldn't qualify. That's not interdisciplinary enough. Right? MR. BRADY: What I'm talking about? MS. MORTON: NO, I'm talking to Cheryl. Politics and economics, they're
not --
MS. EAVEY: It's certainly
interdisciplinary. It has a long tradition.
If you want to know what CSIPEC has done, if
I can remember correctly, CSIPEC -- did I
interrupt you, Henry?
MR. BRADY: No, no, no.
MS. EAVEY: CSIPEC had something
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like five post-docs that they filled one a year. And with those -- in addition to those post-docs, the institution made a commitment to create -- most post-docs are funded by NSF, but the institution made a commitment to create five tenure-track lines that would reside in the departments, that the committee that would choose which department would receive the line would be a multidisciplinary committee with CSIPEC members and essentially departments were competing for these lines.

And the assumption that Lynn and Emilio made, which has been borne -- which has been proven over time to be true, is that they could bring people in as post-docs. Many of their post-docs ended up getting tenure-track positions -- and that these people would be so well trained that they could do CSIPEC-type work, which is this highly multidisciplinary work, and still be able to publish in the journals in

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their disciplines.
Now, that may be asking a lot of people. But they've had folks who have been able to do that.

MR. BRADY: But I also worry, Cheryl, that's going to end up being very applied, because folks like that, I think, by and large are going to interact on the applied issues. And I know -- it may seem like economics and political science are very close, but certainly when it comes to theoretical issues we haven't necessarily been that close. And some attempts to encourage that would be great, I think. And it's sad of that's thought to be outside the purview of interdisciplinary work, because they're so close to begin with.

MS. EAVEY: Oh, I wasn't saying
that. I wasn't saying that. I just mentioned their closeness because we were thinking in terms of interdisciplinary work of political scientists with -- and there's

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    a long tradition of political scientists --
    MS. MORTON: Actually, that's what
    I used to hear in Iowa and other places I go
    to, and they'd say, well, we encourage
    interdisciplinary work but if you work with
    an economist, that's not really
    interdisciplinary. Now it may have been
    they were talking to me specifically, but
    the idea was that political
    science-economics collaborations are just
    not interdisciplinary anymore. And it's
    really frustrating. I find this very
    frustrating.
    I hear this often, that whenever
    there's interdisciplinary you really have to
    go work with somebody, you know, who's a
    biologist or something or it doesn't count.
    And I -- you know, I think, Richard, that
    it's great.
    MR. SCIOLI: Well, for a while at
    NSF, as a matter of record, there was a
        tendency toward multidisciplinary and there
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were even activities that were directed toward bringing individuals from more than one directorate together. So a sociologist, a political scientist, and the psychologist might be, by our standards, an interesting interdisciplinary collaboration, but they would be disqualified from participating in some initiatives at the time because the thought was we want a biologist and an engineer and a behavioral scientist.

MS. EAVEY: That still actually is
true for some of our across-directorate activities.

MR. SCIOLI: And that is a much more difficult hurdle.

MR. BUTZ: This hurts other
directorates just as it hurts us. This keeps chemists and astronomers or physicists or mathematicians from working together and people across different areas - - computer science and engineering -- it doesn't keep them from working together, it keeps them

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from getting in mind to work together.
MR. SCIOLI: Were you about to comment on the Brookings, Peyton?

MR. YOUNG: If you'd like -- a few words about a center that is actually joint between Johns Hopkins and Brookings called the Center on Social and Economic Dynamics. We set it up about 4 or 5 years ago -- 4 years ago. Carol Graham (?) is co-director with me. It involves about, oh, I don't know, about eight or nine people at this point, which is a mixture of political scientists and foreign policy types -specifically within political science, several economists, and Rob Axtel, a Carnegie Mellon product, who's a little bit of everything but basically calls himself a computer scientist.

As some of you may know, Epstein
and Axtel developed this idea of Sugarscape, which they then elaborated into a book called Growing Artificial Societies, an MIT

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book. It lays out this methodology of dynamical modeling of interactions in which there are many, many agents involved, often with great diversity of characteristics, locations, interaction structures, preferences, all that kind of thing, and shows how you can use this methodology to explore a variety of questions.

You're probably asking yourselves, well, what in the hell is Brookings doing in a business like that?

SPEAKER: What in the hell is Brookings doing in a business like that? MR. YOUNG: I think there are some people on the board at Brookings who think we should stop this immediately. But there are other people who feel that it's part of a portfolio strategy at Brookings which runs the gamut from -- as you know, it covers a variety of areas topically -- defense, foreign policy, economics, international economics, Congress, and so forth and so on.

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It's already a rather interdisciplinary place, I mean just speaking by -- and comparing it to Cal Tech, comparing it -it's at least as interdisciplinary already from the get-go. And it's a relatively small place. So there is, I think, basically a culture there which is quite receptive to broad approaches and so forth.

Does this have a bearing, this kind of work in the center, on public policy? Well, you know, in an indirect sense some of it does. There's a project that Steinbrenner (?), Axtel, and Epstein are involved with now to try to just get a different sense of how civil disorder, or just how spontaneous events of civil violence can arise from situations that previously were just situations of dispersed dissatisfaction. In other words, there's a quite normal state of the world in which some people are simply unhappy. And then that can suddenly morph, it seems, into a

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situation where there's a lot of killing going on. And the question is to try to understand both using data and models how those processes occur.

That's a very speculative business, obviously. For one thing, it's difficult to get data. However, it turns out that there are some data sets for Central America, El Salvador in particular and Guatemala, in which there are fairly detailed account of killings by village, by actual day, over a several-year period. And so it is possible to sort of mix these data-collection methods, which are of course dispersed in the sense of geographically or spatially dispersed data, to study those event histories and then try to use a computation approach in which you ask, well, what kinds of factors might be entering into the decision making of individuals and can we at least qualitatively replicate what we see going on in the field.

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So that's an example of a research project which is very much in its infancy, I would say, but it's quite interesting. It involves some of the different -- it's very interdisciplinary, basically. It does have ultimately some insight to public policy, I think. I mean even Brookings understands that. It's a longer-term public policy impact.

So that's the kind of work that goes on at the center. We also teach courses at Johns Hopkins. Those courses are very, very popular. I -- Michigan is one of the other places that specializes in this kind of thing, but if you can offer a course at your university in computational models in the social sciences, I guarantee you you're going to have a good sign-up.

Now, undergraduates just love this kind of thing. Why? Well, for one thing, they're even more sensitive than we are about the limitations of our disciplines.

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They keep hearing about rational actor models in economics and suddenly they scream and they say this just doesn't turn me on. And then it turns out there's some course offered by some crazy nut named Rob Axtel, which doesn't assume -- well, it assumes bounded rationality, but then studies a whole lot of questions that they were not exposed to in an economics course, and that really opens up their horizons.
So I think these are - there's a
lot of opportunity to design new kinds of courses that are very much cross-cutting. Other examples actually are just Brookings-style work brought to the university. Actually this is really interesting. Cliff Gadde (?) has been -- is actually an economist by training but works in foreign policy and in particular in Russian transition to a market economy. He's one of the great experts on what's going on on the ground in Russia over the

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last 10 or 20 years. And he's able to talk about this both from an applied standpoint and a theoretical standpoint.

So he knows what a model is and what a dynamic and a game and a equilibrium. But he also knows what constraints and incentives a, say, manager on a factory floor in the middle of Novo Sibirsk or something faces right now, which is not something that a lot of people do now, not that combination of things.

So there's a course at Hopkins on that. Again, it's just -- he has to turn people away, because as academics we don't tend to offer that kind of thing. So these are the kinds of opportunities that I guess are out there waiting to be picked off. It's not that difficult to do it, really, and it's actually not that expensive either.

There was one other thing
mentioned, and I'm happy to -- I don't want to go on at too much length. But Cheryl

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mentioned MacArthur networks, that I know a fair amount about. I was going to bring this up as a possible model, somewhat modified, as to how some of the interdisciplinary work that we're talking about might proceed. But that may not be the right -- this is probably not the right point in the agenda to do that.

MR. SCIOLI: If you can hold that, there certainly will be opportunity to share that with us and we'd very much like to hear about it.

Carl, can you say a word about --
MR. SIMON: Yes, thank you very much. I'd like to talk about a little bit what's happening at Michigan.

Michigan has had a history of thin walls between departments -- not like Carnegie Mellon or Cal Tech, for sure, but we have a president and provost who are certainly encouraging interdisciplinary work .

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One of the things related to this group is that the public policy school, where I have an appointment, is just starting a PhD program in which the student has to be either in economics or political science but take a lot of courses in both areas.

The center I'm most excited by is the one I'm directing called the Center for the Study of Complex Systems. And I have some handouts on it tomorrow, so I won't say that much about it. I'll try and keep it under 2 hours. Just kidding.

Quickly, a complex system I've sort of defined before. It's, you know, where you look at standard social science/biology models and add the things that are missing, like diversity, dynamics, feedback, network, organization, bounded rationality, and see where you can go from there. It almost always requires computer simulation to understand when you add these

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complexities.
We have -- the center's just finishing its second full year as a center, maybe third -- second, I think. And what do we do? Well, we've got weekly seminars with outside speakers, we have a Nobel symposium, which we talk about the prizes.

Once a year we meet with the people from Santa Fe and have a week-long workshop on common themes. We also support other workshops; for example, in 2 weeks there's going to be a workshop on pattern formation, a very interdisciplinary one that we're helping organize.

We try to encourage
interdisciplinary research on complex system approach. So for example, we gave -- there was an NIH -- proposal for an NIH training grant on -- in which students would learn the whole gamut of epidemiology, not just some narrow lab practice but also how to build a model and how to use a model --

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again, somewhat related to what we're talking about. And we funded a couple of the graduate students to see if we could talk NIH into funding this.

We're starting something called complex systems and X conferences, where X will be different topics. Our first one, I think, will be traffic flow.

We have a computer lab where most of the university interacts with us, so we do -- most of the university will do complex systems approach, so we have Rick Riolla (?), who -- a magnificent research associate, teaches courses and develops the software for complex systems.

We're developing relationships with local industry. It turns out Ford has a crew of about 26,27 people doing this kind of work. General Motors, we just learned, has three to 10 people. And we just got them to meet each other to meet for the first time, through our network. So

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what we do is have meetings at each other's places, that we organize.

We have a certificate program in which a graduate student can take five courses and, with some flexibility, get a certificate in graduate complex systems.

One of the exciting things is, as part of our setup, we were given some positions, and our first one was Scott Page. Basically, the deal was that we could hire -- we have to convince a department to hire the person, but the provost would pay a quarter to half that person's salary forever. And our second hire is Mark Newman (?), who's a Santa Fe post-doc who does network theory -- very interesting to social science -- but he's a physicist. So this is a very exciting hire.

You'll see the list. One of the other things exciting things we do is try and encourage interdisciplinary grant proposals. In some ways we were set up to

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do that, and our money to get us going was thought of as seed money. So for example, we did put in the biocomplexity RFP for something in which we would show that how networks -- how context structures and who encountered whom affected outcomes. We did one with ITR about thinking that, really, computer scientists and social scientists care about the same things, like protocol, organization, decentralization -let's get them together with post-docs and students to sort of formalize this. We had the IGERT that I mentioned, we had an NIH training grant that I mentioned. None of these have worked yet, and the provost who started our funding is going to the University of Illinois -- lucky you. She was great. And so there's a little concern about where we're -- how strong we'll be over the next few years. Certainly there will be big -- some cutbacks, but we'll be there and, hopefully,

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fostering the kinds of things we're talking about here.

The other place, let me just mention Santa Fe Institute, since that was on the list. I try to go there somewhat regularly. They care about many of the same issues, maybe a little broader. We of course have physicists, biologists, and engineers associated with us. But Santa Fe has Nobel laureates in those areas, and they sort of set the tone, for better or worse, on complexity.

As Peyton mentioned, or hinted to, some of the Nobel laureates can go pretty far out on the limb and talk about what's really cutting-edge research -- some of it works and some of it doesn't. But it's an exciting place to be.

They have post-docs there. They
have no regular faculty and no educational component. Part of our dream in our own Complex Systems Center is that we might be

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part of their educational component. But certainly $I$ go to two or three conferences a year there. They're always very
interdisciplinary, and to me, I've never come back without being very excited about the project that $I$ just heard about.

I don't know what more I can say about Santa Fe , but, you know, it's just getting -- its definition is interdisciplinary, but in a notion of going beyond -- modeling is important, by the way, for both Santa Fe Institute and certainly for the Complex Systems Center, modeling is at the core.

I've also been to CSIPEC. Lynn and I have some papers coming out of the CSIPEC, and boy, does that work well. MR.GRANATO: Okay, what we're going to do now is go to discussion point 4. The purpose of the remainder of our time today is going to be setting the table for tomorrow morning. It's 4:00, so why don't

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we take another 10-minute break, and then we'll -- I mean, would anybody object to us going to just 5:30? We'll come back to discussion point 4 and we'll finish up.
(Recess)
MR. SCIOLI: Let me just set the kind of parameters for where we're headed. First, I hope you agree that it's been useful hearing war stories. Because we find it very useful. They seem like they're peace stories as opposed to war stories. But I invited Jim Alt to say a word about an evolving activity at that stodgy place that's kind of interesting and unique. But Jim and I certainly don't want to preclude anyone else from telling a success story. Don't feel that we're singling out the Cal Techs and the Carnegie Mellons, because you might all have gone through these battles. I guess Becky said, you know, well, the "normal" department. We kind of look at many of you as being in normal departments,

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but that's good. It's good to have a normal king.

In any event, Jim, would you mind telling us about your lapse of sanity when you agreed to create this activity?

MR. ALT: Most of you know something about us, you've been to visit, so I'll just take this chance to extemporize, because I didn't know until about 10 minutes ago that $I$ was going to be doing this.

A little bit about what we do -when I say "we," I'm talking about the Center for Basic Research in the Social Sciences at Harvard -- CBRSS. Pronounce it "sea breeze" and understand that it is meant to be a breath of fresh air in a place, as Frank said, that can sometimes be, well, a trifle stuffy.

> Basic research means basic
research. It means not applied research. It means our focus is on innovations in theory and methods. Conceptually we

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organize ourselves into kind of broad-gauged
initiatives of which I think there are
probably about four -- the human security
initiative I'll say a couple of words about
in a minute; a general interest in the
microfoundations of social science;
empirical methods; and positive political
economy are probably the easiest way to get
the length and breadth of what we try to do.
Within those initiatives we have research
activities, collaborative activities,
residence programs -- all the usual stuff
and some unusual stuff.
Some of the most important things
we do are provide post-doctoral
opportunities and visiting scholar
opportunities. It wasn't until my third
reading through the gray book, which is the
Harvard procedures for academic appointments
manual, that I discovered that the
difference between a post-doc and visiting
scholar is that post-docs work on someone
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else's research and visiting scholars work on their own. So you actually have to tell Mother Harvard what you're doing when you come there to be appointed.

I think actually, having discovered that distinction, it's really important. Because I now use the word "post-docs" in the sense we've been using it in this meeting actually to mean what Harvard means by "post-docs" -- the idea that you would go for a year to work on someone else's project and learn from that experience, rather than having, for example, a year at the center at Stanford to, you know, write your next book or something like that.

And I think it's important that we try to do that. We do graduate student support, undergraduate research opportunities, things like that. We can talk about them later.

A lot of conferences and

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workshops. Those who are close to us know that we've now done three twice-a-year experimental methods conferences in which we bring in people from psychology, behavioral economics, various social sciences to give talks which are sort of a blend of substance and method.

Tommy Palfrey was actually our very first speaker at the first conference. And I think in November we're going to have the next one, and it will include people like Tom Gilovich (?), a psychologist from Cornell, George Lowenstein from Carnegie Mellon.

So these are pretty broad-gauged things. They talk about current research to expose, you know, students to that, technical innovations -- we had a session on Internet-based experiments, by which I don't mean setting up a Web site and having people push buttons, but actually using the Internet to run the experiment at a remote

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site -- actually having students in a lab in South Carolina. But, you know, once you have that as a node in a network of experimental centers, those experiments could have been going on anywhere.

And it was kind of interesting to see the technology come along. We've had Al Roth and Dan Gilbert, Max Baselman (?) and others debating the ethics of paying subjects and things like that, so it's just a -- not a broad-gauged view.

We're following that up with a teaching experiment this summer. Becky Morton has kindly agreed to give up four or five days of her life to teach two-a-day sessions to graduate students who know nothing about experiments. And the Business School was kind enough to give us access to Al Roth's lab for a couple of sessions so the students could actually see an experiment being run and maybe even be subjects themselves -- are you going to try

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to do that? So, you know --

MS. MORTON: And learn how to program some.

MR. ALT: Yes. A little hands-on experience. And if this works well, I'm going to bring the experience back here, you know, to talk about trying to build something like this into the foundations of a methodology group, so that the political methodology group will have to rename itself the statistical methodology group and the new political methodology group will actually include statistics, experiments, and computational modeling and all the other things that we do.

Having just hired Lars Erik Sieberman (?) in the department at Harvard, we offered him financial support to teach a pioneer course in computational modeling this year. And that was very successful, by the way. I agree, boy, people beat the door down for those things. Wow. So that's now

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in the curriculum.
And I don't know, we do stuff like that. We have this series called Encounters With Authors, in which we get people who've just about finished a book to come in for a week and we bring in graduate students and junior faculty from around the country to read the manuscript in advance and then critique it while there's still a chance of having an impact on the authors. Person and Tabolini (?) did their book a couple of years ago, and we had John Huber and Chuck Shipman (?) bring their new comparative study of delegation in this summer. These I think are very good formats for just generally broadening horizons of scholarly communication.

We also foster research. The first project we tried to kick-start began as an investigation into neural network methods broadened out into something called military conflict as a problem of public

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health, and is now human security. It started one day when one of us heard a spokesman say, We were surprised by the magnitude of the refugee problem in Kosovo. And it struck me that no one should be surprised by that anymore, because it's sort of folk wisdom that military strategy now targets civilian infrastructure and the consequence of the conflict is always likely to by, in circumstance like that, a massive refugee problem, and that perhaps the problem was a lack of infrastructure for forecasting the actual probably human costs of a conflict.

And now you can see how we generated an interdisciplinary project that involved statisticians to build better forecasting models, international relations scholars who supposedly know something about the substance of the causes of war, and public health scholars who have the ability to turn those forecasts, costs, and

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consequences into measurements of human suffering and emiseration. And the project is now in its third year and moving along. We just got some support from the NSF -- thank you, Frank -- for a second project completely independent, hung on the digital library project in the Virtual Data Center, under NSF's DLI initiative, to design a feasible citation standard for data sets. This is something we think is long overdue.

I think the best way to understand the intuition for this project is everyone thinks online access solved the problem of getting access to data and replicating studies, but in fact it just made it 10 times as bad as it ever was because Web sites come and go with a half-life measurable in weeks. Data sets change all the time. And there's no way to discover, if you try to replicate something by grabbing someone's data off the Web, if

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you've actually got the data set they used. And we proposed to tackle this as a theoretical sort of cataloging problem, to design a feasible standard for identifying data sets uniquely so that those who want to replicate others' research can at least know at the point that they begin that they actually using the actual set that generated the results that they're trying to follow up.

And we have other projects in mind, but I've talked long enough, so -that's us, that's what we do. Www. cbrss.harvard.edu. We try to keep everything we do somewhere online, so just think of sea breeze, think of that breath of fresh air. Come breathe it occasionally. Okay, Frank, is that what you wanted?

MR. SIMON: Is there a mailing list or something that we could keep track over time?

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MR. ALT: We don't actually have formal mailing lists. If you are interested in one of our activities, the Web site should any day now tell you how to get in touch with the organizers and stay in touch. But it's a pretty transparent Web site.

The other thing I should say is that, boy, having been introduced in the line of war stories, I have many. Ask to see my rooms at dinner tonight. I never knew it could take this long to set something up and get it going.

MR. YOUNG: Just broadly, where does your funding come from?

MR. ALT: Wherever $I$ can get it. We were given a checkbook, we were given a kind of long-run matching scheme by which we get grants and we earn endowment credits, and the endowment credits eventually turn into endowment income. Though under the Harvard formula, that takes awhile.
It is really true, I said this

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earlier, but I never understood so clearly before now how an institution amasses a $\$ 26$ billion endowment. They do it by -- they end up doing anything, and using other people's money whenever possible.

MR. SCIOLI: So have you guys bridged the divide between formal and empirical?

MR. ALT: Well, the divide doesn't bother us. You know, in a way that's a nice segue to the topic that we're supposed to turn to, because it seems to me the best reason for having this meeting is that, you know, we sort of spent the morning saying the divide's not a problem and it's a problem of science not a problem of political science, blah, blah, blah, blah, blah. But right now in political science it is a problem because the conflict that you sort of sense, the divide between formal modelers and empirical modelers is keeping them from presenting a stronger and more

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united common front to the perestroika twins and, you know, the divide that does exist in a lot of departments.

And that's a problem. I mean, we do not want to be two contending factions separated by a common interest, to paraphrase Churchill. And I think there is -- if there is a problem in the field at the moment, it is that -- meetings like this, and we're all pretty much in agreement. I can run a center like CBRSS and nobody argues with anybody. We're just pretty happy about, you know, broad priorities and, you know, and you take turns, you take other turns, and it -- you know, it's not that hard to keep the peace.

But in the discipline at large and in departments at large, I'm not sure that the people -- it is certainly clear in my department that the many people who do not do formal work or empirical modeling, we're all just one object at the distant end of

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the department. But it's not clear that among ourselves we act as though we were all the time. And I think that's a problem. And, you know, that's a good way to start thinking about some of these activities for the future.

MS. MORTON: Yes, going back to this discipline as a whole -- and you kind of asked us about, like, what happens when get back to our departments, is -- this happened at Iowa a lot. Faculty would tell graduate students -- and of course they would never tell -- I could never figure out which faculty members were saying this -that the students should either take the methods sequence or the formal modeling sequence or neither, but not do both because that would be just too much and they wouldn't get enough substantive courses. And there really -- there was this pressure against doing both of these things, you're not getting enough substantive stuff.
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And I don't know -- I mean, there
is this large community that's not represented at this table, and very many people are like one or two people in our department, with the rest of the people being -- going around saying don't take courses, you know, that do that.

MR. SCIOLI: Well, there will always be the unwashed. MS. MORTON: Yes, but they're the majority in a lot of places. MR. SCIOLI: Well, that's why we have Jesuits. Right, Henry? MR. BRADY: Absolutely. MR. SCIOLI: There have to be best practices, though, that you can suggest you've learned from that would give us incentive at NSF to jump-start, if you will, or to move along slightly or to even push along. Because at the beginning of the day we talked about not simply political science -- this not being simply a problem for

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political science, but this being a problem for science writ large. And Jim and I talk almost every afternoon about this as a problem for science, and challenge each other to try to think of examples where this kind of a divide does not exist, and why it doesn't exist -- or if it doesn't exist, why it doesn't exist.

So what are practices that you can
think of? Is it collaborative research teams, where perhaps it's too much to ask a graduate student to take formal theory and empirical research -- and Dick mentioned parenthetically adding a year to the program at Cal Tech. But is it bringing three different hats to the table -- the substantive person, the formal person, and the empirical person? Now, I can think of projects that we've supported, and I know that strange combinations around this table have taken place. MS. ZINNES: I think it depends on

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whether you're talking about research or training. I mean, if you want to stimulate research enterprises that combine these two streams, I think Peyton's idea of holding a competition is excellent. And it should be substantively based -- start with a couple of questions, and then have a kind of a -- I don't know if it would be a competition in terms of writing grants, exactly, but maybe several --

I mean, we've talked at Illinois about doing something that we call a senior master class, where we would actually take somebody's not formally stated but potentially formally possibly stated argument in some new piece of research that they're working on. I mean, some -- you know, John Vasquez (?) did some interesting work on territory and conflict and so on. Take something like that that's really meaty, bring somebody in like that, and have a bunch of graduate students who have been

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working with those questions but also who have been trained in both the formal and statistical areas take a stab at the question.

How would you take the question of, you know, the importance of contiguity as a factor in conflict -- you know, how would you set that up as a problem and set up a model and possibly test it? And then bring somebody in like Vasquez to suggest whether or not you're way off track or not.

But I think that sort of thing where -- I don't -- I think we need to be really problem based. I really think we need to be substance based. We need to have the questions first and then bring together the people who are interested in the questions.

That's why I think one substance person, one methods person, one modeling person just won't work very well. First of all, the substance person typically can't

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speak to the other two people; and secondly, I don't know why methods people are divorced from having substantive problems. Henry, you were saying this morning that you were reduced to having to teach methods for the first 10 years of your -- and why should that be the case? We went into political science not to be methods people, we went into political science because we liked problems in political science. And I think those things should be there all the time.

And I think if you go to the student level, and that's a whole different issue, how you train the students, but I think you have to sort of separate those.

MR. YOUNG: Well, except -- there was a time when I taught statistics to first-year graduate students. Actually, they were in public policy not in political science, but $I$ would guess that a similar strategy would work in political science.

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And I don't know how I got onto this, but at any rate, I put together a series of what amounted to cases, really hard cases.

One of them, just to illustrate, was does eating eggs -- or too many eggs raise your risk of having a heart attack. It was much in the news at the time. Eggs were thought to be bad, eggs had cholesterol, cholesterol is bad -- you know, the whole thing. And we spent about 3 weeks on just that question. And $I$ used it as a vehicle to teach statistics.

And it's a very, very tricky
problem as it turns out, with all kinds of -- there's the Framingham study, there are many famous data sets that can be brought to bear on this. There's no lack of data. The question is what's the appropriate method and inference to use to draw a final conclusion.

Anyway, I raise that -- I point -how you construct a nifty course that is in

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a sense problem based, but you can use it to
teach methods. But it's a different way of
teaching.
MR. STRAF: Could I ask if
political science uses formal methods of
research synthesis, like meta analysis or
something like that? Is it known or --
MR. ACHEN: There have been some
examples. The problem, I think, with some
of the skepticism about it is that you're
often averaging over 15 studies, 12 of which
shouldn't be taken seriously to begin with.
And the other three may be the ones that
come to the opposite conclusion.
MR. STRAF: But there's at least
bodies of studies that one could say are
similar in their design or --
MR. ACHEN: Usually, no, they're
not that similar. We haven't done very much
of this. It was tried a little bit by a few
people.
MS. ZINNES: In what area?
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MR. ACHEN: I'm trying to remember now. Henry, do you remember? There have been a couple of meta analysis things, and I can't remember now.

MR. BRADY: I just can't think of
any. Maybe there have been, but we're remarkably free of that kind of careful thinking about what we've amassed. Which is a problem. I mean, it's really interesting. When I started doing research on welfare, which I do as sort of my hobby these days, it was amazing to me to find out that people actually cared about the result.

I found myself saying, gee, you know, it really matters to do this right in a way that when I did political science and would worry about getting it right, it was clear to me that nobody ever really cared very much and that the important thing was just to get a publication. I just don't think that we take ourselves seriously enough or the discipline doesn't or

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something doesn't, because we're not tough-minded about it.

MR. SIMON: For me that was
exactly the lure of doing epidemiology. I mean --

MS. ZINNES: Because it matters.
MR. SIMON: It mattered. People cared how contagious HIV was or --

MR. BRADY: And it's a very disciplining kind of thing when you say it really matters to get it right. And I can't B-S my way through it.

MS. MORTON: One think I think that prevents this kind of meta analysis is a lot of what we do -- well, there are a huge number of people using the same data set in different ways, you know, and especially in, say, the voting literature and public opinion. And so we're all taking this same data set, looking at it differently here, differently there. Maybe we add a variable that we get from some --

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But it's not like they're a study here and a study there and a study there that you can do this analysis. What happens is you have a history of studies where somebody looked at the data set and found this, and then somebody looked at this data set and added something and found that. And so it does -- the next step is just to go back and look at that data set and then do something else with it. And there's a real problem with that fact that we're very much driven by these huge data sets that we have, that we kind of get tied to. MR. SCIOLI: The argument that we hear all the time, and you heard it, I'm sure, Becky, is that these large -- the large data sets across sociology, political science, economics, et cetera, are then public goods. And there's an economy to creating the data set and have numerous scholars mining it independent of the fact

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that, you know, if there's a careful job in planning the collection of the data.

MS. MORTON: But I mean, I'm just saying I think that's why we don't have this meta analysis is because we sort of are doing it with mining the same data over and over again. We're not getting -- you know, the meta sort of stuff we're talking about is like a study here and a study there, right? And we're kind of looking at them combined.

You're talking about the kind of thing that recently came out that said that placebos don't work? I mean, wouldn't that be the kind of meta analysis that --

MR. STRAF: I was thinking of it as a formalized research synthesis, a -more or less of an indicator of, first of all, how problem-oriented the field might be, how much, you know, of common designs are used.

MR. BRADY: Actually the one place
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where there's been something like meta analysis has probably been the election forecasting literature. There's a nice article in PS by Larry Bartel and John Zeller (?) which does at least model averaging across a bunch of different models, and that's interesting. And there's actually -- I think in the last 10 years there's been some pretty tough- minded thinking about what are reasonable specifications.

The problem that you're talking about, a data set with, what, since '48 basically, so it's got 25 observations and we got about 30 right-hand side variables you can think of at least, work it out. There's probably a problem there.

MR. ACHEN: At least there was scientific consensus. They all agreed who the president was going to be.

MR. BRADY: Going to be, right.
But what I like is that the Bartel-Zeller

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article after the fact shows how they could have predicted better. I wrote to Larry, I said "very impressive prediction after the fact."

MR. BRADBURN: Once experimentation takes over you have lots of opportunity to do better after the fact.

MR. BRADY: Right.
MR. BRADBURN: Because one of the problems with them is you have lots and lots of discrete experiments, each one of which is a little different or -- ostensibly dealing with the same topic, so combining the datas. It's a different world then.

MR. GRANATO: One of the things, to put a little structure in this, it seems to me that we're going to have to separate long-term effects from something to be done in the immediate near term.

And we're faced with departments that have tenure. In many of these departments tenure is abused. And so what

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can be done that -- I mean, people that do the work you do I think are in the distinct minority in most of -- when you get out of the top ten, you're not going to see the kind of work you do, for the most part, in these departments. And there's going to be a cadre of people that are going to try and prevent this.

So with that type of constraint in mind, what can be done in the short run to create a growing body of people that do this type of work, where the evidence that change is coming will be in the syllabi and the type of courses that are offered? Like in computational methodology, we don't see that in most departments. So in terms of delineating initiatives -- wrong word. In terms of initiating -- in terms of discussing program priorities in a Dear Colleague letter from this, our directorate, what can be done to do that?

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MS. ZINNES: I think you almost have to turn the question around a bit, because it seems to me we could sit here and dream about a whole lot of things that one would love to do. I think the issue is what is it that NSF can do. That is, what are the things that are within your purview that you can actually influence? I mean, you're not going to change departments, you're not going to keep people from being hired that object to this form of research. I mean, you're not going to stop tenure. Those are all reality.

So the question is what is it that a funding agency like National Science Foundation can do. And I think those are sort of straightforward. You fund graduate students in terms of fellowships. You fund conferences in terms of getting people to talk to each other. You may be able to fund some sort of -- although, I gather, not terribly much -- some sort of educational

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mechanism, but maybe through workshops, summer workshops.

MR. GRANATO: Could I stop you right there? If you wanted to fund a graduate student -- I mean, you've already done it at Cal Tech. You've extended a year in the program. I mean, would a good idea be one in which we give not just dissertation fellowship support, but we give an extra 2 years or something to a graduate student to extend their training within the program that they're already in. Is that the kind of thing that might work?

MS. MORTON: Yes. I think that's a --

MS. ZINNES: That would be a step in the right direction.

MR. GRANATO: And it's not going to be too expensive, I don't think, either.

MR. McKELVEY: The problem with that is how do you do that without sending the wrong signal to the market. I mean, one

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of the things that people look at when you come on the market is how long you've been in graduate school.

MS. ZINNES: Yes.
MR. ALDRICH: I was thinking sort of setting it up -- actually I think there was once a conversation with SSRC people that, you know, the normal SSRC thing was to send people out to the field and let them learn their country. Then instead of doing that -- was to have them learn theory and methodology. And so one possibility would be visiting -- a year visiting at Cal Tech, Rochester, whatever, in, say, immediately post-exams or something like that, before they write their dissertation.

It would signal that by, you know, NSF-sponsored field research in theory and methods, then $I$ think it at least accounts for that year in a way that, you know, just saying, oh, you stayed an extra year, took longer, and so you were slower in getting

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out would --

MR. YOUNG: SSRC did a program for several years in economics at Airlie House out here in Virginia. It was a short -- I can't remember. It was about a 2 - or 3 -week course. And they just wheeled in a number of -- it would be the equivalent in economics of inviting the people around this table essentially to each give a couple hours lecture introducing graduate students -- these were typically students that were close to being done -- well, third-year students or up. And it was just a way of getting them exposed to the literature. It wasn't a training course per se, it was simply allowing them to be better informed about some of the alternative approaches.

I think -- well, let's see. I
think that program has actually stopped now -- it would be interesting to find out -- because there was some changeover at SSRC

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in the management, and whoever was responsible, that person left. But I think on the whole it was regarded as quite a success. It was very low-budget. I mean, people were not -- the professors who came in often did so for -- I mean, I'm not sure that there was any honorarium, or if so it was very nominal. But at the same time it created a culture, you know, of -- and it is important to get to these students.

I must say that I'm a little more skeptical about -- well, fellowships in the usual sense. I think that those can be garnished, you know, sort of reoriented. We all know how to do this, right? A student gets a fellowship to do $X$, but then by the time you're done with him, it's X - prime. And, you know, you fool around with it. And it really isn't serving the purpose that NSF might have wanted. It just gets rerouted.

MR. GRANATO: What John said, would that be okay from your -- in terms of
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the market signal, in terms of --
MR. McKELVEY: Yes, I think maybe, you know, post-doc, but specifically 1- or 2-year post- doc. I mean here again you have to make sure you get students who are the best students. You know, I mean, because even now with post-docs, frequently it's not the best students who end up with post- docs. The best students will get the -- they sort of go out and get top jobs. But I mean if you had really attractive post-docs which would be NSF- supported and have some kind of prestige to them, I think that would -- maybe something like that would --

MR. ALT: I think that's a very, very important point. There really is a tendency to see post-doc on a vitae and think, oh, you didn't get a job last year. So looking ahead to tomorrow, talking about writing a letter to colleagues, one of the things you can say to colleagues is we're

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going to do this and we're going to do this for strong students. And in order for this system to have any prayer of working, you're going to have to start writing, you know, job ads that say preference given to people with NSF post-doctoral experience. And then students will want them, people will want to hire them, and projects will be glad to have the people associated with them, and it'll work.

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    MS. MORTON: Well, I think part of
the key is how it's funded, right? I mean,
the Robert Wood Johnson thing doesn't have
any negative -- I mean, it's a very
competitive thing. The people I know who've
gotten it think it's just absolutely
wonderful, and it does look wonderful. And
I think the key is, is that they're making
the same amount of money they would be
making at a regular job, right?
    So if it's a post-doc and it's
paying less than you would get in a regular
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job, then people would be tempted not to take it and then you would get the less-capable students. And so, yes, I think when you're looking at this Robert Wood Johnson thing and how they manage to make that such an -- because it is a very attractive thing. And I know lots of people who are very good who applied and didn't get it. And I -- but you know -- so they seem to be very successful.

MR. SIMON: Let me say something about the Robert Wood Johnson. I've been on the Michigan advisory council for them. One reason they work is that there are just two or three place where -- you know, Yale, Berkeley, and Michigan -- where one can go, and there's a real structure nourished there.

> Each place has a very dedicated leader making sure it works. And it works so strongly that these students not only -the post-docs not only come out with good

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jobs, but they've been diverted from the mainstream and they still come out with great jobs in some ways, right. I mean they're no longer pure political scientists; they're now health economists and health political scientists. And I think that makes it a little tougher in some ways. But we've been talking about post-docs, and I think a good question is who will -- custodiate custodes, you know, who's going to take care -- who's going to be in charge -- docking the post- docs? MR. BRADBURN: Well, that's -- on the Johnson model. There are two different models for post-docs. One is like our graduate fellowships, you just fund post-docs and they go wherever they want to. And the interesting thing about the Johnson one is they have a competition among universities for the programs. So they're funding the programs at the universities, so it means that the institution has to have

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people there who really want to run this program and have the post-docs there. So it's -- and that's very competitive among institutions. So it's -- it does -- and they build in things like advisory groups and so forth to kind of oversee them. But again, they're very rich programs, so to speak. My understanding, I think, is they run the competition for the post-docs -they select their own post- docs. MR. SIMON: Right. Each -- well, they select them but Johnson actually makes the final decision about who goes where. But the students, for example, take an intense set of courses their first semester on health --

MR. BRADBURN: Usually -- there are two -- actually, there are two different Johnson programs. One is to get social science, PhDs in social sciences to be interested in health issues. The other one's the opposite; that is, to get MDs to
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be trained in social science. I've been associated with _on that side. But again, they have the same structure. That is, they have a competition among universities for the programs, and they fund them very well.

And then there's this very funny competition. It's a double competition for the students, because the students apply to the program, and then -- at least the medical ones, which I'm more familiar with -- then they decide which -- I think there are nine programs on the medical one. They decide which of the nine they really want to apply to, but they have to apply to three or four. They go around and are interviewed by all these, and then there's a sort of joint -- it's like internships, you know, sort of a joint ranking. The student ranks the ones they want, and the institution ranks the ones they want, and then the foundation sort of plays a kind of

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matching game in which they try to maximize the overlap between things. So -- I don't know if that's the way they run it in the social sciences --

MR. BRADY: That's the way it works.

MR. ALDRICH: How many students does each school have to take each year?

MR. SIMON: Four.
MR. BRADBURN: Well, in the medical ones it varies.

MR. SIMON: I see. Well, four, and it's got to be an economist, a political scientist, and a sociologist, and a -- you know.

MR. BRADBURN: I must say from a funder's point of view, they're extraordinarily inefficient. I mean, they put a tremendous amount into the program for very few students. It's wonderful for the students. But when I think about the resources that we put up for these four

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students or something, is just mind-boggling how --

MS. MORTON: You mean in terms of staff or --

MR. BRADBURN: Yes. I mean, the faculty that's devoted to this is -- and paid. Johnson's putting, you know, reimbursing the universities for a big chunk of time for these people to really mentor and train these people. And it's a great training, but it's very expensive.

MR. FREEMAN: I don't think there's necessarily a choice between getting a job and getting a post-doc. We hired someone a couple of years ago from Columbia and he secured a large post- doc from a project -- a _ states project, actually, and we gave him an offer and the option whether to exercise it or not so he could go off and work for a year on this other project. And then he came last fall. And I think one of Jim's students went to the Bank

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    of England --

MR. ALT: Absolutely.
MR. FREEMAN: And had a wonderful
Ivy League offer from --
MR. BRADBURN: We actually hired one of these Johnson fellows, but she took the fellow -- so we postponed the beginning of the -- this was a professorship -- till she finished the -- or actually for 2 years. It was a kind of mix. She came for awhile --

MR. FREEMAN: Can I make a
different point, though -- I think one thing
I'm worried about is we did this before --
and I wasn't going to say this till
tomorrow, but -- I hope you talk to -- I have three people in my memo, three young people for whom I have tremendous admiration. And I just think they're doing some of the best work in the country in all respects. One of them's name -- John Londregan's been mentioned, so I'll just

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mention -- I hope you -- you should talk to them too.

I'm a little nervous about sitting
here on the 12th floor saying let's design this competition or this ideal scheme for which these people are going to come out of the -- you know, rise up and make their proposals and win the competition and so on. I think it might be best just to ask some of the people -- identify who we think are really some of the people on the cutting edge who are doing the best work, and then -- you guys need to talk to them and say what do you really need to make sure this work gets done.

MR. ACHEN: It's ___ though. We can be spared.

MR. FREEMAN: The worst thing would be to have a competition and have the people who win it -- then Frank says guess who won these post-docs and these grants, and we say, oh, God, you're not going to get

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a lot out of that investment.
MS. MORTON: Is this off the
record? Don't give anything to -.
MR. FREEMAN: Free to organize. That's not what I said.

MR. SCIOLI: You know, at the -earlier today Jim gave me, oh, a handsome list of 25 names, 15 of whom are new names for me. And Jim and I haven't compared notes; maybe they're all familiar to him. But we'd certainly look at this as a leaping -- jumping off point, maybe leaping off point, today and tomorrow morning.

The post-doc notion is intriguing if in fact it's enticing to the student and if we can make a substantial investment so that it -- you know, someone who's thinking about beginning a career is now willing to do an extra year or 2 years. I'm fascinated about the medical students who are willing to do this, because they already have to start thinking about careers.
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MR. BRADBURN: _- had already put 5 years in his residency and put 2 more years in as a research -- but they realize that their 5 years of training give them practically a trained incapacity to do research.

MS. EAVEY: Well, it means -perhaps we could think about facilitating an infrastructure for the post-docs as opposed to just funding post-docs. And I think there's something up in Math that would be an example, but I'd have to research it. You know, one thing that NSF can do in addition to supporting post-docs is we can facilitate areas of research. Two areas that the MMS program has highlighted over the last few years have been surveys and statistical methodology for surveys, in conjunction with 13 or 14 federal statistical agencies; and environmental statistics in in conjunction with the EPA. Are there research areas that
could be highlighted that would help to bridge this gap?

MR. ACHEN: I think there are packets of this kind. And I wonder whether an integrated attack on specific problems by people at several different age levels isn't -- career levels isn't really the point.

And I'm thinking a little bit here about the MacArthur programs a few years ago in international relations. We had a -they spent some money on buying out the time of people who'd been tenured a few years to bring them into international relations, people who'd had a side interest in IR but, you know, had had to do something else up to tenure time.

They also had post-docs and they also had graduate students. So the -- there was a bay in the -- we called these little areas of ISR "bays." There was a little bay with one of these ISR programs in it funded

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by MacArthur. And one of those graduate students teaches at Harvard, one of them teaches at Princeton, one of them, post-docs, teaches at Chicago, and so. It threw a bunch of people together in a room a lot smaller than this, gave them offices around the sides, and a more or less common set of interests. And they just talked and argued all the time.

I wonder whether not breaking this up into, you know, one program for this and another program for that and another program for something else, but rather thinking about it as an integrated setup where a lot of people are thrown into physical proximity, some of whom might be 10 years out and some of whom might be just graduating -- whether something like that might not be the right model for this, rather than, say, three separate programs -one for fellowships, one for post-docs, and one for mid-career retraining.

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MR. SCIOLI: Can we accept, then, in this group -- and although a majority of you are political scientists -- that in fact our brethren in other social science disciplines really don't have any upper hand on us, at least the political science. You know, I keep pushing the question, can we learn anything from economics -- are they doing this better? Because heaven knows, they tell us they are.

MR. SIMON: Well, they are doing -- I mean, in order to get this done well, one needs -- this is about putting formal theory and empirical theory together.

MR. SCIOLI: Yes.
MR. SIMON: And in order to put it together, you have to do both well. And I would say I think economists do the formal theory better, and maybe the empirical modeling better in some cases. And so -MS. ZINNES: Their data may be better.

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MR. SIMON: Their data's -- it's easier. I think they do it better because it's easier. So, you know, maybe a part of it is improving those pieces before we put them together. But I don't think economists put the two together that much better -- a little bit, but not much.

There's a little bit of a -- there had been a little bit of a informal tradition in the Michigan econ department that a good thesis would have both an empirical and a modeling -- a good theoretical thesis would have an empirical piece. It's probably still there. There should be ways of giving incentives. I mean, any department that -you know, NSF could give out fellowships and to those departments that do a good job in putting out theses that had both components, for example.
MR. YOUNG: I don't know of
anything in economics that's along these

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lines, really, that integrates the two sides.

Santa Fe runs summer schools, which are quite successful. They're a little eclectic. But it's reasonably competitive. I think students like to have that on their vitae. It's not that timeconsuming. I mean, you devote a -- you go out there for 2 months. A crash -- you know, a sort of an intensive course for 8 weeks can accomplish quite a lot, actually.

MS. ZINNES: Intensive course on what, for example?

MR. YOUNG: Well, that would be tailored to the question here that we're talking about, not what Santa \(\mathrm{Fe}--\) Santa Fe does their thing. And actually their thing turns out to be many different things. I was thinking more of taking that general model of a selective summer school that just becomes known to be a place where good students go because, you know -- so you have

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to make it selective.
MR. KEECH: Russell Sage runs a behavioral economics workshop summer camp every other year, I think.

MS. MORTON: I think economics does better, for the following reasons: I think that in the graduate courses, the substantive courses are always taught with formal models in them. And when you take econometrics, you begin with saying, okay, we're going to use this statistical technique to test formal models. I mean, this is given and it's always there. And you don't -- you're not taking courses where it's not a given. And I think that this is a very low-level. It's so implicit in the way economics does things that we don't even -you don't even see it. But it's not there in political science. And I don't know how to get it there, but I think that that's the big difference between economics and

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political science. And you may be unhappy with economic theory, Peyton, but the fact is, is that there is theory taught in every course that you take in economics. That's formal.

MR. YOUNG: Well, but economics teaches us the concept of opportunity costs, and so what I'm worried about is that you guys are going to say that, okay, well, let's beef up the statistical training or something for our students. Now, something's -- I don't seriously believe that you can extend the program by a year. The opportunity cost, then, is that something's going to give; they're not going to take something that they now do take. So then the question is, are you really gaining from this?

My worry is that you're focusing too much on the high-technique, sophisticated training, it's true, that most economic graduate students do get these

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days, but the cost is huge. And I'll tell you what one of the costs is. Most of these students, including my own students, don't know a thing about the real economy -- not one thing. They don't know what the unemployment rate is, they couldn't get themselves out of any policy box you put them into. I sense that political science students at least know how Congress operates more or less, and so forth and so on. That is, you do pay attention to training them in basic institutions.

And so I really worry that you shouldn't go down this road at all. I mean, I think economists have gone completely off the deep end in not training students who know broadly about the subject matter at hand, in the real-world sense. They just literally don't know. The worst offenders are actually the econometricians. This is really unbelievable. MS. MORTON: It's been a long time

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since I was in graduate school. I certainly knew the unemployment rate then. MR. BRADBURN: Let me mention another model which goes in the opposite direction, but it would speak more to the issue that Peyton just raised, is the model that mathematicians have called vertical integration of graduate education. What they do is they reach down to get undergraduates involved, and so that think of the graduate training program as being, as a reaching down into the undergraduate -so you're getting them started earlier, in that sort of sense.

You've looked into it. Do you know exactly how it works? Or you probably know about it, Cheryl.

MS. EAVEY: Actually, I know about it but I don't _. I can tell you tomorrow.

MR. BRADBURN: But I know that this is a program that the NSF __ program (202) BETA REPORTING 1-800-522-2382
does fund in institutions. It's getting the undergraduate students to work essentially with graduate students and faculty much earlier.

MR. STRAF: And post-docs -MR. BRADBURN: And post-docs, yes. MR. ALDRICH: There's one at Duke. And it does -- you're right -- the problem is, they actually have seminars that are -the teaching part of it -- have essentially graduate seminars that are half undergraduates and half graduate students. Our problem is the undergraduates are smarter than the graduate students, and they're specialized. MR. BRADBURN: That's I think true at most elite universities. MR. ALDRICH: I was going to go in a slightly different direction, which is to say that it seems to me that the most important thing that NSF and, hopefully, people like us can do is send a signal

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symbolically of what's valued. I mean, I think that, for example, a successful political methodology section has instructed a lot of people who go through graduate school now as to what good methodology consists of -- for good or ill. And some good -- I mean, a lot of good and some ill. Even if they never attend these things or whatever, it just symbolizes.

And so we might want to think about mechanisms that would send this kind of signal as to what top-end, high-quality research is, and that might mean doing something like -- akin to that approach, but just a program designed around, you know, putting together theory and method.

MR. SCIOLI: Well, I glad that you said that because \(I\) was reluctant to raise it, but \(I\) was wondering is there a sense that we shouldn't send a signal? I'm glad you articulated it specifically, that this group, who have absorbed the argument and

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who -- you know, maybe there's too much consensus around here, but the sense is that there's something that should be done. And whether it's analogous to the methods workshop -- maybe the methods workshop is a thing of the past now. Maybe it's too big and, you know, we ought to think about canceling the methods workshop. No more of those plush meetings in hot climates and dorm rooms of the Atlanta University Hilton or whatever.

MS. MORTON: But I hear the year after it's in Seattle. MR. SCIOLI: Pardon me? MS. MORTON: I hear it's going to Seattle after that. MR. SCIOLI: We're trying to talk Bob Erikson (?) into having it in New York. In any event, Jim and I talked at the break, and we have a surprise. We're going to break. We're going to go away, because we're all -- now. Early dinner

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    instead, at 5:30 or 6:00. Because we have a
    lot -- I think the sense is that you all can
    build on this at dinner and that it's been a
    long day, and some of you have come a long
    way. And that the best way for us to get
    business done efficiently in the morning is
    to have some of this turn into after-meeting
    discussions, et cetera.
    Now, does anyone object to that,
    to break here?

MR. BRADY: Can I recommend that the list that was handed out -- it might be useful for people to look at that tonight and just check off things they see as useful, things they see as useless.

MR. SCIOLI: Tell us what the list is so that --

MR. BRADY: Well, it's a list that I culled from the discussions and from all the papers. And I tried to put next to the proposals who I think made it a proposal. I hope I haven't missed anybody. I'm sure I

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screwed up -- my apologies.
But it is two kinds things:
Substantive —_, which are sort of how do we change the substance of what we're doing; and then sort of process/procedural kinds of things that were proposed. And see what we think.

MR. ALT: It's a terrific service you've -SPEAKER: Thank you. MR. BRADY: - start to tomorrow as to what things will be eliminated, what things do we want to focus on, and go from there.
(Whereupon, at 5:17 p.m., the
PROCEEDINGS were adjourned.)
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