autoMrP: Multilevel Models and Post-Stratification (MrP) Combined with Machine Learning in R

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Abstract

This introduction to the R package **autoMrP** is a (slightly) modified version of Broniecki, Leemann, and Wüest (unpublished), submitted to the Journal of Statistical Software. A paper on using Machine Learning to improve Multilevel Regression with Post-Stratification is available in Broniecki, Leemann, and Wüest (forthcoming).

In the past twenty years we have witnessed a surge in methodological innovations for small-area estimation. In short, scholars often have nationally representative survey data and would like to create sub-national, e.g., state-level, estimates based on these data. Multilevel regression with post-stratification (MrP) has emerged as the gold standard to achieve this goal (Selb and Munzert 2011). Different improvements to the original MrP model have been proposed and the latest developments combine insights from statistical learning and MrP to provide better estimates. This article introduces the R package autoMrP which allows users to fit traditional MrP models as well as leverage a number of prediction algorithms. This allows building optimized models for generating sub-national estimates from national survey data that outperform those generated by simple MrP models.

Keywords: Multilevel modeling, machine learning, mixed effects, MrP, MrsP, R, survey research.

1. Introduction: Multilevel Model with Post-Stratification

A frequent problem that arises in various disciplines is that we have a data set and want to draw inferences for sub-populations. This can be political scientists who have a national survey and want to estimate sub-national, e.g., state-level, support for a policy (Lax and Phillips 2009a) or epidemiologists estimating state-level prevalences (Downes, Gurrin, English, Pirkis, Currier, Spittal, and Carlin 2018). Common to all of these applications is limited national survey data being used to estimate outcomes on a lower level, e.g., the state level.

One 'solution' to this problem is disaggregation, which means taking the average value per lower-level unit as the estimate (see, e.g., Erikson, Wright, Wright, and McIver 1993). This approach performs badly for small units and is not efficient. We can achieve better estimates by modeling the individual-level outcome as a function of individual-level variables and variables on higher levels in a multilevel model and then post-stratify these predictions (Gelman and Little 1997; Warshaw and Rodden 2012; Lax and Phillips 2009b).

Gelman and Little (1997) propose a procedure, multilevel modeling and post-stratification (MrP), that allows researchers to model an individual outcome as a function of individual-

level variables as well as variables at higher levels, e.g., state or district levels. Based on the multilevel model we can create predictions for each ideal type and then weigh each prediction by the frequency of an ideal type within a given unit. Since this early first paper many publications have demonstrated the superiority of MrP over disaggreation (see e.g. Warshaw and Rodden 2012; Lax and Phillips 2009b; Leemann and Wasserfallen 2017; Hanretty, Lauderdale, and Vivyan 2018).

Recently, a number of contributions have shown how standard models from the statistical learning literature can be fruitfully employed to improve MrP (Bisbee 2019; Ornstein 2020; Broniecki *et al.* forthcoming). In this article we present one of these approaches and the **autoMrP** package that allows users to harvest the fruits of combining classic MrP models with statistical learning algorithms to create improved prediction models.

1.1. Multilevel Regression with Post-Stratification (MrP)

MrP relies on national survey data to estimate, e.g., political preferences in sub-national units. MrP is carried out in two steps: first, we fit a multilevel model to the survey data. If we are interested in the support for a specific policy Y, we can fit a multilevel probit model as follows:

$$Pr(y_{i} = 1) = \Phi\left(\beta_{0} + \beta \boldsymbol{X}_{n} + \alpha_{k[i]}^{education} + \alpha_{j[i]}^{gender} + \alpha_{m[i]}^{age} + \alpha_{m[i]}^{unit}\right), \tag{1}$$

$$\alpha_{k}^{education} \sim N(0, \sigma_{education}^{2}), \text{ for } k = 1, ..., K,$$

$$\alpha_{j}^{gender} \sim N(0, \sigma_{gender}^{2}), \text{ for } j = 1, ..., J,$$

$$\alpha_{m}^{age} \sim N(0, \sigma_{age}^{2}), \text{ for } m = 1, ..., M,$$

$$\alpha_{n}^{unit} \sim N(0, \sigma_{unit}^{2}), \text{ for } n = 1, ..., N.$$

The model includes a set of random effects, here shown for K education groups, J gender groups, M age categories, and N sub-national units. In addition, there is a vector of further predictor variables X that vary across the sub-national units. Each combination of education, gender, age category, and unit provides a unique ideal type. We can now think of society as consisting of these different ideal types.

In a second step, we can calculate the predicted support for each ideal type based on the estimates in Equation 1. Each ideal type estimate is denoted as $\hat{\pi}_{kjmn}$. To produce an estimate of, e.g., the state-level support for policy Y in state n, we calculate a weighted average of $\hat{\pi}_{kjmn}$, where the weights are determined by how prevalent the ideal types are in the population of state n. Since the predictions are not linearly additive in the random effects, we need to know the joint distribution of education, gender, and age in each unit for which we want to calculate a prediction. The very last step is to weigh these support estimates according to the prevalence of an ideal type (ideal type is here indexed by g) in unit n:

$$\hat{\pi}_n = \frac{\sum_{g=1}^G \hat{\pi}_{gn} N_{gn}}{N_n.} \tag{2}$$

Using MrP to generate an estimate for π_n has been shown to outperform other alternatives (e.g., Lax and Phillips 2009b; Warshaw and Rodden 2012; Leemann and Wasserfallen 2020). MrP has also been used successfully in the US (e.g., Lax and Phillips 2012), Germany (e.g.,

Selb and Munzert 2011), the UK (e.g., Claassen and Traunmüller 2018; Hanretty et al. 2018), and Switzerland (e.g., Leemann and Wasserfallen 2016) among other countries.

1.2. Improvements to MrP

Since early on authors have suggested various improvements to the standard MrP approach. Ghitza and Gelman (2013) propose to include interactions of random effects to provide the model with much more flexibility, which in turn provides more precise estimates for different ideal types. Selb and Munzert (2011) show that if there are many sub-national units, such as in the case of legislative elections in Germany, spatially correlated random effects can be included to improve the estimates. Many models are under-specified in the response model (see Equation 1) because there is no joint distribution of variables available, which is needed in the post-stratification step. Leemann and Wasserfallen (2017) show how variables for which the joint distribution is unknown can nevertheless be included by creating a synthetic joint distribution.¹

Finally, there has been some discussion in recent years about leveraging insights from the statistical learning literature for small-area estimation.² Several proposals have been made, some published while others remain as working papers (Goplerud, Kuriwaki, Ratkovic, and Tingley 2018; Bisbee 2019; Ornstein 2020; Broniecki et al. forthcoming). At a very basic level, all of these papers are similar in that they recognize that MrP is a prediction task and there is value to a principled selection of features and a more flexible selection of the functional form.

1.3. Statistical Learning and Small-Area Estimation

In a forthcoming paper, we propose an ensemble model approach that helps to provide better estimates (Broniecki et al. forthcoming). We start by recognizing that information enters the model via context-level variables, X, and individual-level variables. The latter are set up as random effects, α , meaning that there is already a form of regularization, albeit a crude one, built into the model. The contextual information X is, however, just modeled as fixed effects and hence all the known problems of feature selection, over-fitting, and choice of functional form apply to context-level variables. This challenge is compounded by the fact that context-level variables have been shown by previous research to do the heavy lifting in MrP (Warshaw and Rodden 2012). We propose **autoMrP** as a remedy.

Our approach combines five candidate classifiers—multilevel regression with best subset selection of context-level predictors, multilevel regression with principle components of context-level predictors (PCA), multilevel regression with L1 regularization (Lasso), gradient tree boosting, and support vector machine—via ensemble Bayesian model averaging (EBMA, Montgomery, Hollenbach, and Ward 2012) into one final mega-classifier. In section 3 we provide more details on this approach.

¹An important contribution, albeit not aiming at improving MrP *per se* but rather using it in combination with item-response theory models to scale ideal points, has been put forward by Caughey and Warshaw (2015). This allows Caughey and Warshaw (2016) to scale US states from 1936 to 2014 and provide new estimates of states' liberalism.

²See Montgomery and Olivella (2018) for, to our knowledge, the first application of machine learning methods to small-area estimation and also other applications of statistical learning in the political science survey literature (Caughey and Hartman 2017).

2. Multilevel Regression and Post-Stratification in R

Thus far analysts using MrP have written their own code since there is no widely used R package available. In particular an R package implementing MrP was created but never fully developed and the package was removed from CRAN in 2012 (see https://cran.r-project.org/src/contrib/Archive/mrp/).³ Primers and replication files have been the main source of how insights on implementation were shared. An early example is the (unpublished) primer by Kastellec, Lax, and Phillips (2019), which was updated in 2019 and gathered 50 citations on Google Scholar (verified on July 29th, 2020). Recently, Leemann and Wasserfallen (2020) published a handbook chapter containing a step-by-step account as well as a practical example that readers can replicate (https://github.com/lleemann/MrP_chapter). Finally, users interested in a Bayesian implementation can also access the primer by Kennedy and Gabry (2020) on MrP in rstanarm (https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/rstanarm/vignettes/mrp.html#mrp-with-rstanarm).

While these primers offer R code chunks there is as yet no package that allows researchers to freely estimate MrP models freely.⁴ The main purpose of **autoMrP** is to allow users to easily apply the *autoMrP* model (Broniecki *et al.* forthcoming) but it also enables the estimation of classic MrP models. This also distinguishes it from another recent package, **BARP** (Bisbee 2020), which focuses on a specific model based on MrP and Bayesian additive trees.⁵

3. Illustration of autoMrP

In the following, we illustrate how to apply **autoMrP** to a typical survey item (item "CBb01" from the 2008 National Annenberg Election Studies). We first install the most recent version of the package (0.91) from GitHub.

devtools::install_github("retowuest/autoMrP")

The 2008 NAES survey item CBb01 states "I'm going to read you some options about federal income taxes. Please tell me which one comes closest to your view on what we should be doing about federal income taxes: (1) Cut taxes; (2) Keep taxes as they are; (3) Raise taxes if necessary; (4) None of these; (998) Don't know; (999) No answer. Category (3) was turned into a 'raise taxes' response, and categories (1) and (2) were combined into a 'do not raise taxes' response. The original survey item contains 50,483 responses favoring or opposing a tax hike. From these data, we include a sample of 1,500 respondents in **autoMrP** to represent the size of a typical national survey. Our sample is drawn at random with the condition that it includes at least five respondents from each state. The object name of the survey item is taxes_survey and the codebook can be obtained via the help files:

library(autoMrP)
?taxes_survey

³Another exception is the package **swissMrP** (Leemann 2018), but its usability is very limited as it was mostly created for teaching purposes and is only applicable to Swiss data.

⁴See **SRP** for a recent new package that allows users to estimate MrP models.

⁵BARP can also post-stratify other models that are implemented in the SuperLearner package (Polley, LeDell, Kennedy, Lendle, and van der Laan 2019).

The dependent variable YES is 1 if an individual supports raising taxes and 0 otherwise. The individual-level variables L1x1, L1x2, and L1x3 represent age, education, and gender-race combinations respectively and they are stored as factors. The factor variables state and L2.unit identify the geographical units, i.e., the U.S. states in our survey. Furthermore, the factor region divides U.S. states into the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West.

In addition to the survey data, we require census data to carry out post-stratification. The object name of the census data that accompanies the taxation item is named taxes_census and the codebook can be obtained via the help files. The census data is structured such that one row represents a combination of the individual-level variables in a given state. For instance, the first row in taxes_census represents white males aged 18–29 without a high school diploma in Alabama. The variable proportion identifies the proportion of this ideal type—white males aged 18–29 without a high school degree—in the population of Alabama and is required to post-stratify estimates.

3.1. Multilevel Regression with Post-Stratification in autoMrP

mated with **autoMrP**. Here, we illustrate how to achieve this using the item on raising taxes. In our MrP model, we make use of all six context-level variables that are included in the survey data (L2.x1, L2.x2, L2.x3, L2.x4, L2.x5, and L2.x6). These are: (i) share of votes for the Republican candidate in the previous presidential election, (ii) percentage of Evangelical

The standard multilevel regression with post-stratification model can be conveniently esti-

for the Republican candidate in the previous presidential election, (ii) percentage of Evangelical Protestant and Mormon respondents, (iii) state percentage of the population living in urban areas, (iv) state unemployment rate, (v) state share of Hispanics, and (vi) state share of whites. Note that this model over-fits the data and we demonstrate in subsection 3.2 that we can outperform it using the machine learning capabilities of **autoMrP**.

```
mrp_out <- auto_MrP(</pre>
  y = "YES",
  L1.x = c("L1x1", "L1x2", "L1x3"),
  L2.x = c("L2.x1", "L2.x2", "L2.x3", "L2.x4", "L2.x5", "L2.x6"),
  L2.unit = "state",
  L2.reg = "region",
  bin.proportion = "proportion",
  survey = taxes_survey,
  census = taxes census,
  ebma.size = 0,
  cores = max_cores,
  best.subset = FALSE,
  lasso = FALSE,
  pca = FALSE,
  gb = FALSE,
  svm = FALSE,
  mrp = TRUE
)
```

In lme4 notation, this function call estimates the following model:

```
YES ~ (1 | L1x1) + (1 | L1x2) + (1 | L1x3) + (1 | region/state) + L2.x1
+ L2.x2 + L2.x3 + L2.x4 + L2.x5 + L2.x6
```

Based on this model, **autoMrP** computes estimates for each ideal type in each state. These estimates are then post-stratified and create the final state-level estimates. We inspect the state-level estimates via the summary() function. Note, that summary() returns 10 rows by default. To view all state estimates, we would call $summary(mrp_out, n = 48)$.

> summary(mrp_out)

mrp estimates:

stat	ce	Median		
AL		0.11	L36	
AR		0.11	L26	
ΑZ		0.21	L67	
CA		0.31	106	
CO		0.20)86	
CT	0.2369			
DE	0.2259			
FL	0.1885			
GA	0.1324			
IA		0.1905		
	with	38	more	rows

To estimate only the standard MrP model, we need to turn off the machine learning classifiers by setting the classifier arguments best.subset, lasso, pca, gb, and svm to FALSE. The argument mrp controls whether the standard MrP model should be estimated and hence must be set to TRUE. Furthermore, the argument ebma.size is the proportion of the sample that will be used for tuning EBMA. Whenever we use only one classifier, ebma.size should be set to 0 to use all available information to fit the classifier.

3.2. Improved Predictions with Machine Learning in autoMrP

In the following, we use **autoMrP** to improve prediction accuracy by estimating state-level opinion using all five classifiers as well as the overall prediction, combining the five classifiers via EBMA. We strongly recommend to make use of the implemented parallel processing capabilities to speed up the estimation. To do so, we first determine how many cores there are available in the system:

```
max_cores <- parallel::detectCores()</pre>
```

In the function call to **autoMrP**, we accept the default settings for the tuning parameters.

```
ml_out <- auto_MrP(
   y = "YES",</pre>
```

```
L1.x = c("L1x1", "L1x2", "L1x3"),
L2.x = c("L2.x1", "L2.x2", "L2.x3", "L2.x4", "L2.x5", "L2.x6"),
L2.unit = "state",
L2.reg = "region",
bin.proportion = "proportion",
survey = taxes_survey,
census = taxes_census,
gb.L2.reg = TRUE,
svm.L2.reg = TRUE,
cores = max_cores)
```

An autoMrP object contains three objects that can be accessed via the \$ operator. First, \$ebma returns second-level estimates of the EBMA ensemble. Second, \$classifiers returns second-level estimates of the individual classifiers. Third, \$weights returns the weighting of the individual classifiers for the EBMA ensemble. To obtain a summary of the EBMA state-level predictions, we use summary() on our autoMrP object.

> summary(ML_out)

EBMA estimates:

stat	ce	Median		
AL		0.13	337	
AR		0.1211		
ΑZ		0.2091		
CA		0.2870		
CO		0.19	904	
CT		0.2308		
DE		0.2239		
FL		0.1825		
GA		0.1533		
IA		0.1737		
	with	38	more	rows

Using summary() on an autoMrP object returns the estimates of the EBMA ensemble. We demonstrate that the EBMA estimates outperform those of any individual classifier across 89 survey items in Broniecki *et al.* (forthcoming). Nonetheless, we may wish to inspect the predictions from individual classifiers which we achieve by calling summary() on the \$classifiers object.

```
> summary(ML_out$classifiers)
# estimates of classifiers: best_subset, lasso, pca, gb, svm
state best_subset lasso pca gb svm
```

AL	0.1153	0.1240	0.1283	0.1472	0.1865
AR	0.1097	0.1072	0.1011	0.1427	0.1867
AZ	0.2128	0.2117	0.2348	0.1845	0.1853
CA	0.3017	0.3063	0.3063	0.2745	0.1850
CO	0.2010	0.2015	0.1734	0.1807	0.1861
CT	0.2379	0.2275	0.2168	0.2719	0.1859
DE	0.2295	0.2325	0.2192	0.2305	0.1856
FL	0.1858	0.1777	0.1875	0.1793	0.1862
GA	0.1342	0.1502	0.1521	0.1618	0.1869
IA	0.1874	0.1794	0.1464	0.1716	0.1869
with 38	more rows				

In addition, we obtain information on the classifier weights by calling summary() on the \$weights object.

> summary(ML_out\$weights)

EBMA classifier weights:

Classifier	Weight		
lasso	0.3139		
pca	0.2034		
best_subset	0.2023		
gb	0.1752		
svm	0.1053		

For additional information on the **autoMrP** summary method, refer to the help files using ?summary.autoMrP.

How does the **autoMrP** machine learning approach fare compared to the standard MrP model? In most real-world applications, researchers do not know the true state (or lower-level unit) estimates. In our example, however, the survey data is a sample from a super-survey with 50,483 respondents. Using disaggregation on the super-survey, we obtain state estimates that should be close to the population truth and treat them as the state-level "truth" (see Buttice and Highton 2013; Bisbee 2019; Broniecki *et al.* forthcoming). We use these values as the ground truth in the following comparison where we illustrate that by using machine learning we obtain more precise estimates than when relying on the standard MrP model.

The **autoMrP** package uses up to five implemented machine learning classifiers: (i) the multilevel model with best subset selection of context-level variables, (ii) the multilevel model with principal components of context-level variables, (iii) the multilevel model with L1 regularization (lasso), (iv) gradient tree boosting, and (v) support vector machine.

In the following, we discuss how **autoMrP** obtains the state estimates. In our example data set, context-level variables are not on the same scale. As a first step, **autoMrP** normalizes context-level variables. Second, it adds the principal components of context-level variables to the survey and census data. Third, it splits the 1,500 observations into two parts. The first part is used for classifier training while the second is used for tuning EBMA.

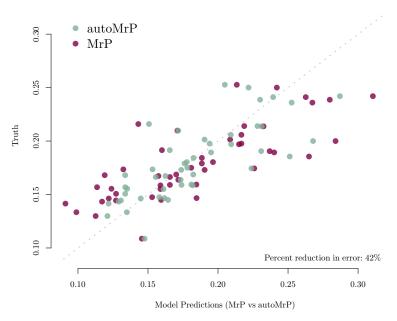


Figure 1: Comparison of autoMrP Predictions with and without Machine Learning

Note: State-level **autoMrP** predictions with machine learning (EBMA) and without (MrP). Both approaches use all context-level information. EBMA reduces mean squared prediction error by 42%.

Subsequently, all five classifiers are tuned using cross-validation based on the first part of the observations. The individuals in our data are nested within states. The folds are constructed in a way so that all individuals from the same state are assigned to the same fold.⁶

In the next step **autoMrP** post-stratifies the state estimates of the winning model specifications of all five classifiers using the census data. Finally, we generate overall state-level predictions by averaging the results of all classifiers to an ensemble, using the Bayesian model averaging implemented in the R package **EBMAforecast** (Montgomery, Hollenbach, and Ward 2016). We tune the EBMA model based on the second part of the observations.

3.3. Uncertainty Estimates in autoMrP

We implement uncertainty estimates via bootstrapping. Bootstrapping is computationally expensive. On a standard Windows machine with an i5-8400U with six cores and six threads, the following example took twelve hours to complete.

```
# Detect the number of cores
max_cores <- parallel::detectCores()
# Run autoMrP with ML & uncertainty
boot out <- auto MrP(</pre>
```

 $^{^6}$ The user may override this behavior so that individuals are assigned to folds at random. However, We show in the appendix to Broniecki *et al.* (forthcoming) on pages 5–7 why our approach is superior and provide empirical evidence.

```
y = "YES",
L1.x = c("L1x1", "L1x2", "L1x3"),
L2.x = c("L2.x1", "L2.x2", "L2.x3", "L2.x4", "L2.x5", "L2.x6"),
L2.unit = "state",
L2.reg = "region",
bin.proportion = "proportion",
survey = taxes_survey,
census = taxes_census,
gb.L2.reg = TRUE,
svm.L2.reg = TRUE,
cores = max_cores,
uncertainty = TRUE)
```

In this example, we set the argument uncertainty = TRUE to carry out bootstrapping. In addition, the user may specify the argument boot.iter to set the number of bootstrap iterations. The argument defaults to 200 iterations. Running autoMrP with uncertainty estimates returns a point estimate for each method, the combined ensemble as well as the standard deviation across all bootstrap iterations.

```
> boot_out$ebma
# A tibble: 48 x 3
   state ebma median ebma sd
   <fct>
               <dbl>
                       <dbl>
 1 AL
               0.158 0.0160
 2 AR
               0.154
                      0.0156
 3 AZ
               0.198
                      0.0321
 4 CA
               0.199
                      0.0353
 5 CO
               0.180
                      0.0270
 6 CT
               0.205
                      0.0436
 7 DE
               0.186
                      0.0219
                      0.0242
 8 FL
               0.169
 9 GA
               0.157
                      0.0187
10 IA
               0.176 0.0200
# ... with 38 more rows
```

4. Implementation of autoMrP

As illustrated by the above example, the auto_MrP() function provided by the autoMrP package relies on four steps to produce small-area estimates: data preparation, training and tuning of individual classifiers, post-stratification of individual classifiers' predictions, and aggregation of individual classifiers' predictions via EBMA. Each step requires the user to make a number of decisions and pass them to the function via its arguments.

4.1. Data Preparation

The survey and census data sets are passed to the auto_MrP() function as data.frames via the arguments survey and census. The survey data.frame must include the individual-level



15%

10%

10%

Figure 2: autoMrP Estimates with Bootstraped Uncertainty

Note: State-level **autoMrP** point estimates and 95% confidence intervals.

20%

Model Predictions (autoMrP)

25%

15%

30%

outcome variable specified by function argument y, the individual-level covariates specified by argument L1.x, the context-level covariates specified by argument L2.x, and the context-level unit specified by argument L2.unit, at which the outcome variable should be aggregated. Optionally, the survey data.frame can also include a variable, specified by L2.reg, that captures the hierarchical grouping of the context-level units (e.g., the geographic regions in which the subnational units are nested), a set of variables, specified by pcs, representing the principal components of the context-level covariates, and a variable, specified by folds, that determines the fold to which each observation in the survey data set is to be allocated (this can be either the EBMA fold or one of the K CV folds).

Setting folds = NULL implies that the user does not wish to provide a variable for the partitioning of the survey data into different folds. In that case, the user must specify the arguments ebma.size, k.folds, and cv.sampling in order for auto_MrP() to perform the partitioning. Argument ebma.size is a number in the (closed) unit interval indicating the proportion of survey respondents to be allocated to the EBMA fold. It defaults to 1/3. Argument k.folds is an integer indicating the number of folds, K, to be used in cross-validation. Its default value is K=5. Argument cv.sampling, finally, specifies whether the K cross-validation folds should be created by sampling context-level units, in which case the user must set cv.sampling = "L2 units", or by sampling respondents, in which case the set used is cv.sampling = "individuals". The default setting is cv.sampling = "L2 units".

Like the survey data.frame, the census data.frame must include the variables specified by L1.x, L2.x, and L2.unit and, optionally, can include the variables specified by L2.reg and pcs. In addition, the census data.frame must include either the bin.proportion, which is a variable containing the population proportion of individuals by ideal type and context-level

unit, or the bin.size, which is a variable indicating the population bin size of ideal types by context-level unit.

Setting pcs = NULL means that there are no user-provided principal components (PCs) of the context-level variables in the survey and census data sets. In this case, auto_MrP() uses the prcomp() function from the stats package to obtain the PCs of the context-level variables in the survey data. The PCs are then added to the survey and census data.frames. See ?stats::prcomp() for more information on the calculation of principal components.

By default, auto_MrP() normalizes all context-level variables to have a mean of zero and a variance of one. Normalization is performed individually for the survey and census data set. Whether the context-level variables should be normalized is controlled by the logical argument L2.x.scale. If the user chooses to set L2.x.scale = FALSE, then the context-level covariates should be normalized prior to calling auto_MrP().

4.2. Training and Tuning of Individual Classifiers

The autoMrP package allows the user to fit either a single classifier or set of classifiers to the survey data. The predictions of the fitted classifier or classifiers are then post-stratified based on the census data and, if there are multiple classifiers, combined via EBMA. The classifiers currently supported by autoMrP are (i) multilevel regression with best subset selection of context-level covariates (Best Subset), (ii) multilevel regression with best subset selection of principal components of context-level covariates (PCA), (iii) multilevel regression with L1 regularization of context-level covariates (Lasso), (iv) gradient boosting (GB), (v) support vector machine (SVM), and (vi) standard multilevel regression (MRP). More classifiers may be added in future versions of the package. The user can choose to rely on any combination of these classifiers. For each individual classifier there is a logical argument that indicates, if set to TRUE, that the classifier should be used for prediction of the outcome or, if set to FALSE, that it should not be used in the prediction task. These arguments are best.subset, pca, lasso, gb, svm, and mrp. The arguments best.subset, pca, lasso, gb, and svm default to TRUE, while the argument mrp defaults to FALSE. The user can also control which contextlevel covariates should be considered by a classifier to predict the outcome. This can be done via the arguments best.subset.L2.x, pca.L2.x, lasso.L2.x, gb.L2.x, svm.L2.x, and mrp.L2.x. If these arguments are set to NULL, which is the default option, the respective classifier relies on all available context-level variables (i.e., all variables specified by L2.x). For GB and SVM, the user can additionally specify the logical arguments gb.L2.unit, gb.L2.reg, svm.L2.unit, and svm.L2.reg. These arguments control whether the classifier should include dummy variables for the context-level units L2.unit and the groupings of context-level units L2.reg, respectively. Our tests showed that both GB and SVM do not benefit from including indicators for L2.unit. We recommend leaving them out if the number of context-level units is high relative to the number of observations in the data (such as in our example, where there are 50 states and 1,500 respondents).

autoMrP draws on a number of existing packages to implement the above classifiers. The multilevel models in Best Subset and PCA are fit using the glmer() function from the lme4 package (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, Walker, Bojesen Christensen, Singmann, Dai, Scheipl, Grothendieck, Green, and Fox 2019). Lasso uses the glmmLasso() function from the glmm-Lasso package (Groll 2017). GB relies on the gbm() function from the gbm package (Ridgeway 2007). And SVM, finally, makes use of the svm() function from the e1071 package (Meyer,

Dimitriadou, Hornik, Wingessel, Leisch, Chang, and Lin 2019). Please refer to the respective package reference manual for more information on these functions.

If included in the prediction task, classifiers Best Subset, PCA, Lasso, GB, and SVM are trained and tuned using K-fold cross-validation. This means that for each fold $k \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$, the classifiers are trained on all folds but the kth, which is used to evaluate the classifiers' prediction performance. To evaluate prediction performance, the user must specify the loss function and the unit for which prediction loss is calculated. The loss function is defined by the argument loss.fun and the user can choose between the mean squared error, by setting loss.fun = "MSE", or the mean absolute error, by setting loss.fun = "MAE". The default setting is loss.fun = "MSE". The unit for calculating prediction loss can be controlled via the argument loss.unit. Setting loss.unit = "individuals" means that performance loss is evaluated at the level of individual survey respondents and unit = "L2 units" means that it is evaluated at the level of context-level units. The default is loss.unit = "individuals".

Classifier tuning requires the user to specify grids of candidate values for the classifiers' tuning parameters. Best Subset and PCA do not have tuning parameters. For Best Subset, auto_MrP() simply fits as many models as there are combinations of context-level variables (i.e., 2^k). For PCA, auto_MrP() proceeds in a similar way but replaces the context-level variables with their principal components and then estimates k + 1 models: the first model empty while the following models successively add the principal components.

The tuning parameter of Lasso is the penalty parameter λ , which controls the shrinkage of the coefficients of context-level variables. Its grid of candidate values is specified by the argument lasso.lambda. The argument lasso.lambda can be either a numeric vector of non-negative values or a list of two numeric vectors of equal size. If lasso.lambda is a list, then the first vector specifies a set of step sizes by which λ is to be increased while the second vector determines the upper thresholds of the intervals to which these step sizes are applied.

GB comes with five tuning parameters: the interaction depth, which defines the maximum depth of each tree grown, the learning rate or step-size reduction, the initial tree number fit by GB, the increase in trees fit, and the maximum fit number. The argument gb.interaction.depth is a vector of integers that are candidate values for the interaction depth. Argument gb.shrinkage is a numeric vector whose values are candidates for the learning rate. Note that a smaller learning rate typically requires a larger number of trees. Argument gb.n.trees.init is an integer-valued scalar specifying the initial number of trees to fit by GB. Argument gb.n.trees.increase is either an integer-valued scalar that specifies the step increase in the number of trees to fit (until the maximum number of trees has been reached) or an integer-valued vector of the same length as gb.shrinkage, with each element defining a step increase for the corresponding learning rate value in gb.shrinkage. Argument gb.n.trees.max defines the maximum number of trees to fit by GB. Like gb.n.trees.increase, it can be either an integer-valued scalar or an integer-valued vector of the same length as gb.shrinkage, with each value corresponding to a learning rate and, if gb.n.trees.increase is a vector, a step increase in the number of trees to fit.

SVM requires the user to choose a kernel. The choice of the kernel is controlled by the argument svm.kernel, which can be set to any of the following values: "linear", "polynomial", "radial", or "sigmoid". Depending on which kernel the user has chosen, SVM has one or two tuning parameters: the SVM kernel parameter γ (for all kernel types except the linear one) and a parameter controlling the cost of constraints violation in SVM. Argument svm.gamma

is a numeric vector whose values are candidates for γ . Argument svm.cost is also a numeric vector and its values are the candidates for the SVM cost parameter.

autoMrP allows the user to define stopping rules for the tuning of Lasso and GB by specifying the arguments lasso.n.iter and gb.n.iter. Each argument can be either NULL or a positive integer. If set to integer Z, then the respective algorithm stops after having run Z iterations without any improvement in prediction performance. GB further requires specification of the minimum number of observations that must be contained by each terminal node of the trees. The user can control the minimum number of observations in the terminal nodes by setting argument gb.n.minobsinnode to any positive integer. Please consult the package reference manual for information on the default values used for the tuning parameters as well as the stopping rules.

We recommend that users of the package explicitly set all tuning parameters even when they accept **autoMrP** defaults because the default values may change in future package versions.

4.3. Post-Stratification of Individual Classifiers

After training and tuning the classifiers included in the prediction task, auto_MrP() selects for each classifier the model with the smallest expected out-of-sample prediction error (as estimated by the cross-validation error). The ideal type-specific predictions of these "winning" models are then post-stratified based on the census data to obtain predictions for subnational units for each classifier.

4.4. Aggregation of Individual Classifiers by EBMA

The final step in auto MrP() is to generate overall predictions for subnational units by averaging the predictions of individual classifiers using EBMA. auto_MrP() performs EBMA relying on the calibrateEnsemble() function from the EBMA forecast package (Montgomery et al. 2016). The weights of classifiers in EBMA are determined based on the classifiers' prediction accuracy and the uniqueness of their predictions (Montgomery et al. 2012). EBMA can be tuned through the argument ebma.tol. Argument ebma.tol is a numeric vector that contains the candidate values for tolerance in the improvement of the log-likelihood before the EM algorithm ends optimization. The default candidate values for the tolerance are 1e-2, 5e-3, 1e-3, 5e-4, 1e-4, 5e-5, 1e-5. Please refer to Montgomery et al. (2016) for advice on the specification of candidate values (autoMrP searches a wider grid of candidate values than recommended by Montgomery et al. 2016). By default, we draw 100 samples from the EBMA fold, which had not been previously used for classifier training. We use a bootstrapping approach where we draw the same number of respondents from each state and end up with 100 samples that are of about the same size as the original EBMA fold. The number of EBMA samples can be controlled via the ebma.n.draws argument. Note that EBMA tuning is time consuming and reducing the number of samples to be drawn or reducing the search grid will substantially speed up the prediction task.

5. Comparison of autoMrP with Alternative Approaches

For users interested in using more advanced MrP models that benefit from techniques of the statistical learning literature, there are three options: the **SRP** package by Ornstein (2020), the **BARP** package by Bisbee (2019), and the **autoMrP** package by Broniecki *et al.* (forthcoming). All three packages are similar in that they rest on improved MrP models but differ in how exactly they improve upon classic MrP. In this section, we provide a comparison of the three packages. The comparison is carried out on a standard benchmark data set (Buttice and Highton 2013) and shows that **autoMrP** outperforms the other two alternatives (**SRP** and **BARP**). In the following, we describe the setup to evaluate prediction performance of the three approaches.

We evaluate the approaches based on real-world public opinion data from five waves of two large U.S. surveys. The data set was compiled by Buttice and Highton (2013) who used it to evaluate the performance of MrP and we follow their assessment approach here (see also Bisbee 2019; Broniecki *et al.* forthcoming). The data set consists of 89 survey items from the National Annenberg Election Studies (2000, 2004, and 2008) and the Cooperative Congressional Election Studies (2006 and 2008).

Each survey item in the data set is binary; coded 1 if the respondent is in favor of the question asked and 0 otherwise. The three individual-level predictors are age group (four categories), education level (four categories), and gender-race combination (six categories). In addition, Buttice and Highton (2013) add two context-level predictors: (i) the state share of votes for the Republican candidate in the previous presidential election and (ii) the percentage of Evangelical Protestant and Mormon respondents. In addition, we added another four context-level variables: (i) the state percentage of the population living in urban areas, (ii) the state unemployment rate, (iii) the state share of Hispanics, and (iv) the state share of whites (Broniecki et al. forthcoming).

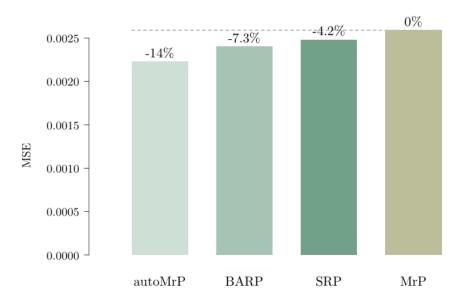
The survey items address issues such as internet absentee voting, gay marriage, taxes versus spending, and a fence at the border with Mexico. Each survey item has at least 25,000 individual responses. Following Buttice and Highton (2013), we treat the state average "yes" response as the population "truth." We then draw a sample of 1,500 respondents from each item to represent the size of a typical national survey. Our samples are random draws where we ensure that we draw at least five respondents from each state.

We use the samples to generate state-level predictions with **autoMrP**, **SRP**, and **BARP** for all 89 items. All packages make use of the same three individudal-level predictors, the six context-level variables as well as binary state and region variables. In addition, we also compare with a standard MrP model that uses all six context-level variables. The prediction accuracy is evaluated as the mean squared prediction error, comparing the state-level predictions of each package and the MrP model to the state-level "truth."

The results show that **autoMrP** provides the largest gain over the baseline (the standard MrP model) among the three approaches implemented in the three packages. There are some potential explanations for this behavior. Comparing the **autoMrP** package to the **BARP** package, we note that **BARP** does not tune parameters and only relies on one classifier (BART). **autoMrP** and **SRP** rely on a set of classifiers and then combine the predictions from these different classifiers with a superlearner.

Comparing autoMrP with SRP, we see that we rely on EBMA while SRP relies on stacking. autoMrP engages more intensely in parameter tuning and does not just use default values

⁷The default behavior of **autoMrP** is not to use binary state variables in the gradient tree boosting and support vector machine classifiers because this tended to somewhat reduce prediction accuracy of those classifiers in our tests. Here, however, we override this behavior to ensure that all packages use all available information.



Note: Average MSE of state-level predictions over 89 survey items. MrP is the standard MrP model with all context-level variables. SRP is the Osnstein (2020) package and BARP is the Bisbee (2020) package. Percentage numbers: Comparison to standard MrP model.

in most classifiers. In addition, **autoMrP** also relies on a different approach for assigning observations to folds (see p.6 in Broniecki *et al.* forthcoming). Finally, unlike **SRP**, we avoid *double-dipping* when tuning individual classifiers and aggregating the individual classifiers' predictions. We provide a first evaluation based on a very common data set and show that with these data under these circumstances **autoMrP** outperforms alternative packages improving upon standard MrP. While some of the highlighted differences indicate superior performance of **autoMrP**, we emphasize that the empirical evaluation is limited to a data set on U.S. public opinion commonly used for assessing MrP models.

6. Summary and Discussion

This article provided an introduction to **autoMrP**, which is a new R package allowing users to estimate classic MrP models as well as autoMrP models that rely on statistical learning methods. We first showed how using newer versions of MrP that rely on statistical learning outperform the classic model. We then moved on to a benchmark test between three packages that offer advanced MrP models and showed that **autoMrP** outperforms the two other approaches in terms of prediction accuracy on an often-used test data set.

Going forward, we want to make it possible to estimate some models via **rstanarm** rather than to rely on *glmer* models. In addition, we want to make it possible for users to include additional classifiers. The autoMrP procedure is in principle open to the inclusion of other classification methods and having this option will provide more flexibility and less dependency on package maintainers.

Computational details

The results in this paper were obtained using R 4.0.2 with the dplyr 1.0.2, foreach 1.5.0, doParallel 1.0.15, doRNG 1.8.2, magittr 1.5, lme4 1.1-23, glmnet 4.0-2, ranger 0.12.1, kknn 1.3.1, xgboost 1.2.0.1, caret 6.0-86, SRP 0.1.1, BARP 0.0.1.0001 and autoMrP 0.91 packages. R itself and all packages except SRP, BARP, and autoMrP used are available from the Comprehensive R Archive Network (CRAN) at https://CRAN.R-project.org/. The SRP package is available on GitHub at https://github.com/joeornstein/SRP, BARP is available on GitHub at https://github.com/jbisbee1/BARP, and autoMrP is available on GitHub at https://github.com/jbisbee1/BARP, and autoMrP is available on GitHub at https://github.com/retowuest/autoMrP.

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