**Introduction**

In this project, we consider possible relationships between patterns of liquor consumption and the 2016 Presidential Election in the state of Iowa. An abundance of data and a plethora of political campaign activity provide many options for analysis. For example, relationships could be noticed among political affiliations or immediately prior to or after major political events such as debates, the Iowa Caucus, or election day. In order to conduct this data examination, we will utilize liquor sale data and county-level population and vote data from the periods surrounding the election season in 2016 and apply different analyses to note what-if any- patterns materialize. The largest challenge will be understanding confounding factors (such as underlying population trends or non-political events) that may also affect liquor consumption.

**Literature Review**

There is a substantial amount of academic literature concerning the economics of alcohol consumption in the United States. Having a good understanding of the intricacies of alcohol markets is necessary for studying impacts that alcohol has on public health. Many economists and researchers have explored this topic specifically within the United States, conducting research on the many factors that can influence alcohol consumption. There are several papers that are particularly relevant to our research project concerning alcohol consumption in Iowa during United States’ presidential election cycle.

There are several published academic papers concerning general alcohol consumption patterns in the United States. Hart’s 2019 paper *Evolving Consumption Patterns in the U.S. Alcohol Market: Disaggregated Spatial Analysis* used alcohol consumption data across a forty-year timespan which included the 2016 presidential election. The paper found evidence that individuals who voted for Donald Trump tended to demand more beer but less of all other liquor products (wine, spirits), and also found that ancestral demographics had an influence on the type and quantity of alcohol consumed. Geographic areas that had more Trump voters were found to have high demand for macro beer (large beer manufacturers) but less demand for craft and imported beer. However, the paper found that alcohol consumption patterns across time are not consistent and greatly vary across geographic areas, time, and demographics. Hart concludes that there is strong evidence that ancestral alcohol consumption, urbanization, and political affiliation influence alcohol type preference but does not make any causality claims.

Moore’s 2005 paper *Longitudinal Patterns and Predictors of Alcohol Consumption in the United States* used a mixed effects model to analyze alcohol consumption data across the United States in relation to age (birth year) and other demographic factors. Using data collected in several periods between 1971 and 1992, the paper found that after early adulthood, older ages are associated with less alcohol use. It also found that several demographic variables were associated with high levels of alcohol use, including being male, white, unmarried, smoking, higher education, and higher income.

Yakolev’s 2013 paper *Alcohol Consumption and Political Ideology: What’s Party Got to Do with It?* estimates the impact of political ideology on demand levels for beer, wine, and spirits using alcohol consumption panel data from 1952-2010 and a citizen ideology index. The paper found that as state populations become more politically liberal, they increase their use of beer and spirits at a per capita level while decreasing their use of wine. The paper posits that this is an expected outcome given other economic literature’s findings that people with socialist ideology are involved with more unhealthy behaviors.

Musse’s 2020 paper *The Effect of Presidential Election Outcomes on Alcohol Drinking* found that support for a losing presidential candidate is associated with an alcohol consumption increase. Using alcohol consumption data from 2004 to 2017 and election data from the 2004, 2008, 2012, and 2016 United States presidential elections, the paper establishes a link between alcohol use and support for losing presidential candidates, but only for the 2016 election. It posits that this is due to the emotional charge, inaccurate predictions and involvement of social media in that particular election. It also associates risky health behaviors (alcohol use) with stress-inducing events. It found that high stress levels within four weeks of the election were associated with increased alcohol use.

These four papers establish some trends to look for in our own data concerning Iowa alcohol consumption during the 2016 presidential election. From Hart’s 2019 paper, we should look for higher rates of macro beer consumption among Iowa counties that voted for Donald Trump in the election. We can also expect areas of Iowa with concentrations of certain ethnicities to influence the type of alcohol consumed in that area. From Moore’s 2005 paper, we should look at the age distribution of Iowa counties and examine the effect that might have on alcohol consumption during the election cycle. Yakolev’s 2013 paper indicates that we might see increased alcohol consumption in Iowa counties that voted Democrat in the election. And finally, Musse’s 2020 paper indicates that we might expect higher levels of alcohol consumption in the weeks close to the election as stress levels are higher, but that the relationship between alcohol consumption and the 2016 presidential election might be very different than historical precedent.

**Description of Dataset**

This data is available through the Iowa Alcoholic Beverages Division (ABD). Iowa established a monopolistic ‘control’ system in 1934 after the repeal of 18th Amendment. Today, the ABD is the sole wholesaler of alcoholic liquor to in the state and is responsible for regulating and licensing private establishments that sell alcohol. Iowa code required the ABD to markup liquor by 50 percent. In order to track funds and taxes required to be collected for the various state funds supported by alcohol sales in Iowa, the ABD is required to keep stringent records as to the volume, values, and types of liquors sold within each county. All liquor in the state is distributed through a singular central warehouse in Ankeny (Polk County).

The dataset was published by the Alcoholic Beverages Division and provided by the Iowa Department of Commerce and is part of an ongoing series of public alcohol consumption datasets provided by the Iowa state government. The dataset contains over 3 million data descriptors of individual alcohol purchases occurring in Iowa between January 1st, 2014 and October 1st, 2017. Each data point lists the date of the purchase, the name of the store selling the purchase, store address, city, county, product brand, item description, bottle volume in milliliters, cost of the alcohol, cost of alcohol including tax, number of bottles sold, total purchase cost, and volume sold in liters and gallons.

**Iowa Alcohol Consumption Data Expectations**

Based on prior studies of alcohol consumption patterns in the United States, we have some general expectations for what the results from the Iowa alcohol data will show. Intuitively, counties with the highest population will also most likely have the highest amount of alcohol consumption and a greater amount of liquor stores. The five biggest cities in Iowa are Des Moines, Cedar Rapids, Davenport, Sioux City, and Iowa City, so we can expect those associated counties to have more alcohol consumption than more rural areas of Iowa. There are also several large universities in Iowa located in Ames, Iowa City, Cedar Rapids, Cedar Falls, and Davenport. The higher concentration of young people in university areas might result in more alcohol consumption in those areas. We anticipate that university sessions will have a large impact on alcohol consumption, with alcohol consumption decreasing by a significant amount during the summer when students are not on campus.

Based on the literature review, there is an indication that areas with a higher population of registered Democrats tend towards more alcohol consumption compared to Republicans. Historically, Iowa has had a higher concentration of registered democrats in the more urban areas of central and eastern Iowa. However, the majority of Iowa is rural with a higher proportion of republican support.

There are several major events that we expect to have an impact on alcohol consumption in Iowa. Alcohol is often used during celebratory events, so we expect increased levels of alcohol sales around major holidays celebrated in Iowa, specifically New Years, Independence Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas. There are also celebratory events that could increase alcohol consumption levels, such as the Iowa State Fair, Old Thresher’s Festival, and university football games. The Iowa State Fair is held in Des Moines and takes place over a span of 11 days in August. It also doubles as a political event, as many presidential candidates use the fair to gather support for their campaigns. Old Thresher’s Festival is held in Mt. Pleasant over several days in September and brings in people from around the state to celebrate the start of harvest. Tailgates for Iowa State and University of Iowa football games also represent major cultural events that are often associated with increased alcohol consumption.

We expect that alcohol sales will spike around major holidays and cultural events and will crash when universities are out of session (May-August). Around major political events, we expect alcohol consumption for certain demographics to increase or decrease based on outcome. Specific political events that we believe may impact alcohol consumption are the Iowa caucus (February 1), the general election debates (September 26, October 9, October 19), and election day (November 8).

**Presidential Politics: The Iowa Caucus**

We considered the relationship between politics and liquor sales specifically because of the role Iowa played in the 2016 presidential election. Iowa is home to the first contest in the presidential election and is usually the ‘kickoff’ of the election season, with candidates devoting substantial facetime and resources to the region in hopes of building momentum for their national campaigns. The caucus is not structured like a traditional primary vote: citizens ‘vote’ at local gatherings by physically dividing into candidate groups. Because the vote is physical, it is not secret. This traditionally invites discussion and debate as voters make the case for their candidate and attempt to enjoin their neighbors to switch their loyalties. Any candidate under 15% support in the initial tallying of ‘votes’ is considered ‘unviable’ and participants must either choose another candidate or rally others to join them to reach the threshold. The supported candidates are then assigned pledged delegates at the state level. More than half of Iowa caucus winners since 1972 have gone on to win their party’s nomination to the presidency. The stigma of being branded ‘unviable’ is not attractive to any presidential hopeful, so it is typically viewed as politically advantageous to generate as much discussion and support in Iowa as possible. Candidates inundate the state in the months before the caucus with a series of townhalls, forums, debates, rallies, and the infamous pork tent at the Iowa State Fair (also complete with a corn-kernel voting system, The Presidential Soapbox, and plenty of turkey-leg photo ops) in hopes of generating sound bites and airtime.

The 2016 Iowa Presidential Caucus was held on February 1, 2020. 186, 932 votes were cast in the Republican caucus. Ted Cruz won the Republican caucus with 27.6% of support and leading runner-up Donald Trump by only one delegate. 12 candidates were viable for contest. The Republican Party sponsored several large events in Iowa leading up to the vote: the Presidential Family Forum was held in Des Moines on November 20, 2015 and hosted a debate on January 28, 2016 (also in Des Moines). In the Democratic caucus, Hillary Clinton defeated Bernie Sanders by the closest margin in caucus history (less than one-quarter of a percentage point). 171, 517 votes were cast in the Democratic caucus. The Democratic party hosted a debate in Des Moines on November 14, 2015, and a second on January 11, 2016 (also in Des Moines).

Because of the large presence of political campaign activity in Iowa, we think that Iowa represents a strong environment for describing any potential relationships between liquor consumption, political events, or political affiliation.

**Data Manipulation**

The liquor dataset from the state of Iowa’s Alcoholic Beverages Division contains over 12.5 million observations. All of the data work completed did not use this raw data and the processes used to clean the data are discussed in this section. To look at county variations in consumption, ensuring that all of the data entries had correctly specified counties was important. Upon further inspection, the original dataset stated that there were more counties in Iowa than existed. This was due to minor differences in spelling of county names. For example, O’Brien county registered as a different county than Obrien county. After these adjustments were made, there were still several observations with null county entries. Luckily, all unique store identifiers had one county name associated with it. This meant that the null county entries could be entered using the same unique store identifier for an entry with county already entered.

One of the first operations we performed on the data was to convert the ‘Date’ column to datetime data type. This is important for all of the groupby functions that will be applied afterwards. The data was aggregated, in the beginning by date and county while sales in dollars and volume in liters were summed for each day. Two csv files were exported, one that contained daily sales and the other volume for each county in Iowa. Practically the same process was taken to create monthly sales and volume except that the aggregation was done at the monthly level. Two csv files were exported with the analogous monthly sales and volume for each Iowan county.

We merged the previously discussed cleaned liquor sale data using county level data on votes cast for each party in the 2016 Presidential election and population. To determine the partisan majority in each county, a column of Booleans was created in the voting data for if votes for Democrats was greater than Republicans. From this the data was further grouped by the majority party in the county to graph and make comparisons between liquor consumption of these counties.

One thing that was noted while looking at the data that caused suspicion was the fact that the dataset recorded no liquor sales on Sundays and very few on Saturdays. The authors conclude that this is likely due to the Iowa Alcoholic Beverages Division failing to collect data on these days. To the best of the knowledge of the authors no state liquor laws prohibit sales of these beverages on weekends. Given this complication and that some smaller counties often reported sales on only a few numbers of days in a week, the smallest temporal timeframe used in our analysis was one week.

**Conclusion**

Our work uses three years of data to study the relationship between liquor sales and either Republican or Democratic political party affiliation. We first utilized data visualization techniques to compare the magnitude of liquor sales between parties for our study period, including a closer look at the 2016 presidential election cycle. We find that Republican and Democratic majority counties hold similar magnitudes of consumption. However, since Democratic majority counties comprise only 38% of the total population in Iowa, this means they hold a larger per-capita liquor consumption than Republican-majority counties. This can be attributed to myriad of different factors (e.g., large colleges are in Democratic countries), but there are a few areas of improvement that must be addressed to accurately answer this question.

First, we must analyze results at finer temporal resolution. This study was analyzed using weekly and monthly observations but using daily data may present new findings otherwise lost through aggregation to more coarse temporal resolution. Second, we must obtain data that was missing from the original dataset. These missing items may paint a misleading picture of the found results. Finally, the original dataset only contains liquor sales from one type of alcohol consumption – commercial sales. There are many other avenues for which consumers purchase alcohol, including sporting events, bars and restaurants, and concerts. Ideally, data from as many of these sources as possible should be obtained so we can draw a more general conclusion about the true relationship between liquor sales and political party affiliation.

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