Fundamentals II: Incumbency

Gov 1347: Election Analysis

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Harvard University

Today's agenda

- Review ensemble models
- (Slowly) moving from prediction with linear models to prediction with probabilistic models
 - -Discuss Blog 03, Extension #1: differences between FiveThirtyEight and The Economist forecasting models -Build out toy preliminary versions of FiveThirtyEight, The Economist and Klarner et al. (2006) models
- (Slowly) moving from predicting voteshare and seatshare to predicting outcomes for individual seats
 - -Case 1: A district with good polling data -Case 2: A district with bad polling data -Aggregating individual seat predictions
- Incumbency advantage and expert predictions -Relationship between incumbent voteshare (seatshare) and different expert predictions
- Preview of next week: Probabilistic models

Ensemble models

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Ensemble models

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- Review: weighted ensembles are combinations of models (any kind) where you pick the weights (in some meaningful way)!
 - a model could be the raw poll
 - a multivariate regression is not an ensemble of models, though you can interpret coefficients as weights
 - sensitivity analyses are important: is your prediction heavily reliant on one model or a particular set of weights?

Extension 2/3: 4 options for a "weighted ensemble" of individual polls (with X weeks left)

1 (2022 polls adjusted by recent expert grades):

$$PV_{2022}^{(inc)} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \times Poll_{2022,i}^{(inc)} / \sum_{i=1} w_i\right) \text{ where}$$
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(same as above but $w_i \approx \text{poll error or sample size}$)

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→ (2022 polls adjusted by recent grades and average historical underperformance)

4 (2022 polls adjusted by two most recent grades):

$$PV_{2022}^{(inc)} = 0.75 \times \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{(2018)} Poll_{2020,i}^{(inc)} / \sum_{i=1} w_{i}^{(2018)} \Big) + \quad 0.25 \times \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{(2014)} Poll_{2016,i}^{(inc)} / \sum_{i=1} w_{i}^{(2014)} \Big) + \quad 0.25 \times \Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{(2014)} Poll_{2016,i}^{(inc)} / \sum_{i=1} w_{i}^{(2014)} Poll_{2016,i}^{(2014)} / \sum_{i=1}$$

Discussion (15 minutes)

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In pairs...

- 1. Between the FiveThirtyEight and The Economist election forecasts, which one seemed better to you? Any better ones out there?
- Share something you found (a) <u>interesting</u> and something you found
 (b) confusing while updating your blogs last week.
- 3. Review Klarner and Buchanan (2006) from discussion this week (in Lab sessions folder).

How does FiveThirtyEight's model take polling and incumbency into account?

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Polling

- -Step 1: Collect, weight and average polls. -weight based on sample size -weight based on recency -pollster rating
- -Step 2: Adjust polls.
- -Step 3: Combine polls with demographic and (in the case of polls-plus) economic data.
- -Step 4: Account for uncertainty and simulate the election thousands of times.
- "Borrowing polls" partisan lean metric + adjustment with district similarity score (we'll see this in a few slides)

Incumbency

- -Factors into "fundamentals"
- -Incumbent's lagged margin of victory
- -Congressional approval ratings (attitudes toward incumbent)
- -Scandals
- -Roll call voting record (in-line voting w/ party)

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Polling

Step 1: Estimate national and district-level trends in support for candidates (1) Congressional generic ballot (2) Weighting! By proximity to election day, changes in national political environment (party generic ballot), pollster quality (record of over/underestimating)

Incumbency

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How does Klarner and
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Two approaches outlined:

- (1) District-level approach: Polls
- (2) Aggregate approach: "National partisan tide" (similar to a fundamentals-only model) -health of the economy, presidential approval, quality of candidates, voting intentions

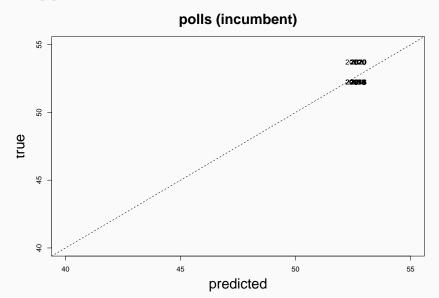
Their approach: combine both (similar to what we did last weekl) -DV: Democrat two-party voteshare -IVs: (a) district partisan composition (i) past House vote: Democrat two-party voteshare from most recent House election (ii) past presidential voteshare - national Democratic two-party voteshare

- (b) candidate attributes (i) Incumbency (ii) quality candidate, closed: candidate facing an incumbent (iii) quality candidate, open: two non-incumbents (iv) past House member, closed (v) past House member, open
- (c) national partisan tides (i) Democratic vote intention: % of respondents who expressed intention to vote for Democratic House candidate (Gallup poll -March 10) (ii) Presidential approval: coded towards Democrats and conditional on party of sitting president (if Dem president, approval rate; if Rep president, disapproval rate) (Gallup poll -March 10) (iii) change in RDI: percent change per capita RDI, February of year before election year February of election year (iv) Midterm penalty: president's party should lose votes

Individual seat prediction: A district with (pretty) good polling data

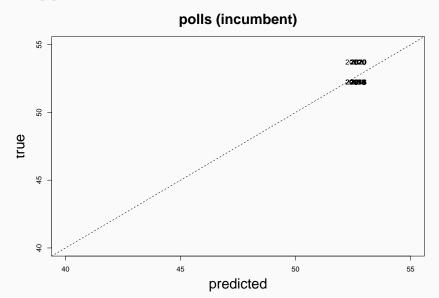
Example: Ohio District 01 (3901)

[1] 0.6135967



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Example: Florida District 18 (something with similar demographics or likely R)

We will "borrow" data from a district that is comparable on relevant variables to OH01. Q: What do you consider relevant variables? What is a reasonable margin for comparison?

General process: (1) Choose a district that is comparable on relevant demographic and electoral characteristics (2) Append polls (3) Consider weighting here: we probably want to attach smaller weights to the borrowed polls or account in some other way for the fact that they are borrowed. (4) Model (5) Predict

Description: df [9 × 4]				<i>a</i> ≈ ×
demogs_OH <chr></chr>	var «chr»	demogs_FL <chr></chr>	var.1 <chr></chr>	
CPVI	R+S	CPVI	R+S	
VAP	551000	VAP	556783	
black_vap	115710	black_vap	70711.441	
white_vap	407740	white_vap	380839.572	
foreignborn_vap	22040	foreignborn_vap	86858.148	
median_income_all	\$64000	median_income_all	\$68744	
bachelors_degree_all	187340	bachelors_degree_all	189306.22	
urban	92.5%	urban	96.37%	
rural	7.5%	rural	3.63%	

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CPVI	R+5	CPVI	R+5	
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black_vap	115710	black_vap	70711.441	
white_vap	407740	white_vap	380839.572	
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Aggregating seat predictions

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As we just saw, predicting individual seats involves a lot of discrete work.

See Yao's code in the Class dropbox for starter code on how to do aggregate our seat-level predictions.

The incumbency advantage

The incumbency advantage: descriptive statistics

How many post-war elections where incumbent candidate won?

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reelect.cand	n
FALSE	4460
TRUE	11174

The incumbency advantage: descriptive statistics

How many post-war elections where the president's party won?

reelect.party	n
FALSE	7948
TRUE	7686

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- In the presidential context, "Pork" \leadsto short-term economic gains (Bartels 2008), credit-claiming (Kriner and Reeves 2012)

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- Campaign finance access

Some incumbency (dis/non-)advantages:

- Polarized electorate → partisanship, not incumbency matters (Donovan et al. 2019)
- Recessions, disasters → blame attribution (Achen and Bartels 2016)
- Incumbency fatigue

(2) Credit and blame: the time-for-change model

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Alan Abramowitz's **time-for-change** model is a classic model of incumbency and, since 1992, has a $\underline{\text{true}}$ out-of-sample PV prediction error of 1.7% (Typically used in the presidential forecasting context, but if we consider the fact that midterm elections are often referenda on the president, it may be relevant).

$$\underbrace{\text{pv2p}}_{\text{incumbent party}} = A + B_1 \underbrace{\text{G2GDP}}_{Q2} \underbrace{\text{GDP growth}}_{\text{GDP growth}} + B_2 \underbrace{\text{NETAPP}}_{\text{Gallup job approval}} + B_3 \underbrace{\text{TERM1INC}}_{\text{sitting pres}}$$

(pollyvote.com model repo)

Preview of next week:

Probabilistic models

• When we fit a linear regression model $Y = \alpha + \beta X$, there are no restrictions on Y. What's wrong with that?

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Solution: probabilistic models

In a linear regression,

$$DemPV_{state} = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k,$$

our probabilistic assumption is that errors in predicted PV follow a bell curve, $DemPV_{state} - \widehat{DemPV_{state}} \sim Normal()$

Solution: probabilistic models

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• In reality, the process of elections is some "draw" of voters from the voter-eligible population (VEP) turning out to vote for a party:

$$Pr\left(DemPV_{district} = 2 \text{ million} \mid VEP_{district} = 5 \text{ million}\right) = f(\alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_1 + \ldots + \beta_k x_n)$$

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A model that allows the DV or error to have a non-normal distribution (specified by a particular choice of function f(·)) is called a generalized linear model → more on this and how to apply them in R next time!

Blog Extensions

- How accurate are expert predictions? pt.1 Visualize actual voteshare (seatshare) in 2018 and compare that to various expert
 predictions for that election cycle. How do they compare?
- 2. How accurate are expert predictions? pt.2 Visualize actual voteshare (seatshare) in 2018 and compare that to various expert predictions for that election cycle. How do they compare? Create 3 maps: (1) a map that visualizes voteshare (seatshare) at the district-level; (2) a map that visualizes expert predictions at the district-level; (3) a map that visualizes the difference between actual voteshare and expert prediction at the district-level.

This is going to require you to use your own discretion in coding up variables.

On (2): these expert predictions are in the form of "lean D/R," "likely D/R," etc. Transform these variables into a continuous numeric variable, i.e. "Likely R" \sim -2, "Lean R" \sim -1, "Tossup" \sim 0, "Lean D" \sim 1, "Likely D" \sim 2, and so on. Visualize the results.

On (3): you will need to figure out how to compare voteshare and expert predictions. One possibility: transform one of the variables to be on the same scale as the other variable. Ex: voteshare of 54% for Democrats – "Safe D," voteshare of 52% for Democrats – "Likely D," etc. or vice versa, "Safe D' district – "54% voteshare" . . .