

# Week 1, Class 1: Practice Exercises - ANSWER KEY

## Introduction to Quantitative Political Analysis

2024-12-31

### 1 Non-AI Exercises

#### 1.1 1. Vocabulary & Concepts

##### 1.1.1 1.1 Code Detective

Explain what each line of this code does:

```
electoral_votes <- 270  
winner <- "Biden"  
margin <- 81283501 - 74223975  
percentage <- margin / 155507476 * 100
```

Line 1: **Creates a variable `electoral_votes` and assigns it the value 270** - This represents the number of electoral votes needed to win the presidency.

Line 2: **Creates a variable `winner` and assigns it the string "Biden"** - This stores the name of the winning candidate.

Line 3: **Calculates the vote margin by subtracting Republican votes from Democratic votes** - This computes Biden's popular vote margin (81,283,501 - 74,223,975 = 7,059,526 votes).

Line 4: **Calculates the percentage margin by dividing the vote difference by total votes and multiplying by 100** - This converts the raw vote margin into a percentage of all votes cast (approximately 4.54%).

## 1.2 2. Historical Example: John Snow

### 1.2.1 2.1 The conventional wisdom in 1854 was that cholera spread through:

- a) Contaminated water
- b) Bad air (miasma)
- c) Person-to-person contact
- d) Poor nutrition

Answer: **b) Bad air (miasma)**

**Explanation:** The miasma theory was the dominant medical theory in 1854, which held that diseases like cholera were caused by “bad air” or noxious vapors from rotting organic matter. This theory was widely accepted by the medical establishment until Snow’s data-driven investigation challenged it.

### 1.2.2 2.2 Data-Driven Decision Making

John Snow challenged the conventional wisdom about cholera transmission. What made his approach “quantitative” rather than just observational? Why was mapping the data crucial to his discovery?

Answer: **Snow’s approach was quantitative because he systematically collected and analyzed numerical data rather than relying on anecdotal observations.** Specifically, he:

1. **Mapped exact locations** of cholera deaths with precise addresses
2. **Counted and recorded** the number of deaths at each location
3. **Identified patterns** in the spatial distribution of cases
4. **Used statistical reasoning** to link the cluster of deaths to the Broad Street water pump

**Mapping was crucial** because it transformed individual observations into a visual pattern that revealed the geographic concentration of deaths around a single water source. Without the map, the connection between the pump and the outbreak would have remained hidden in a list of scattered addresses. The visualization made the causal relationship obvious and provided compelling evidence to convince authorities to remove the pump handle.

### 1.3 3. Critical Thinking: AI and Analysis

#### 1.3.1 3.1 Critical Thinking with AI

Why is it important to verify AI-generated analysis rather than accepting it automatically? Give an example of how an AI might produce technically correct code that leads to a misleading conclusion.

Answer: **It's important to verify AI-generated analysis because AI can produce code that runs without errors but leads to incorrect or misleading conclusions.** Key reasons include:

1. **Selection bias:** AI might analyze only a subset of relevant data
2. **Methodological errors:** AI might use inappropriate statistical methods
3. **Interpretation mistakes:** AI might misinterpret what the results mean
4. **Context ignorance:** AI might miss important domain-specific knowledge

**Example:** An AI might write code to analyze election polling data that: - Correctly calculates the average of poll numbers (technically correct) - But ignores poll quality, sample sizes, or timing (methodologically flawed) - Leading to a prediction that appears statistically sound but is actually unreliable

The code would run perfectly and produce numbers, but the analysis would be fundamentally flawed because it ignored crucial aspects of polling methodology that a human expert would know to consider.

### 1.4 4. Applications of Quantitative Political Analysis

**Potential applications include:** - **Electoral prediction:** Using polls, demographics, and historical data to forecast election outcomes - **Policy impact assessment:** Measuring the effects of government programs through statistical analysis - **Public opinion research:** Understanding citizen attitudes through survey analysis - **Legislative behavior:** Analyzing voting patterns and coalition formation in Congress - **Campaign effectiveness:** Measuring the impact of political advertisements and messaging

## 2 AI Exercises

**Tips for Working with Claude:**

- Ask for **R code using only tidyverse** (no other packages)
- Request **simple, focused answers** to your specific question—not complex analyses
- Ask Claude to **explain what the code is doing** since you're learning

- Avoid asking for visualizations or plots in these exercises
- Include the output of `glimpse()` in your prompt so Claude knows your variable names

**Example prompt:** “Using tidyverse in R, calculate the mean age by party\_id. Keep the code simple and explain what each line does. Here is what my data looks like: [paste glimpse output]”

## 2.1 5. Introduction to Political Data

**Dataset:** `nat_pol_attitudes.csv`

**Description:** Simulates a nationally representative survey measuring political attitudes, ideology, and demographics.

**Variables:** - `respondent_id`: Unique respondent ID (int) - `age`: Age in years, 18-90 (int) - `gender`: male, female, nonbinary (factor) - `race_ethnicity`: White, Black, Latino, Asian, Other (factor) - `education`: Less than HS, HS, Some College, BA, Postgrad (ordered) - `income_bracket`: Ten brackets from <\$10k to >\$200k (ordered) - `ideology`: 1 (very liberal) to 7 (very conservative) (int) - `party_id`: Democrat, Republican, Independent, Other (factor) - `trust_gov`: 0-10 political trust scale (int) - `policy_support_env`: Support for environmental regulation, 0/1 (binary) - `policy_support_guns`: Support for stricter gun laws, 0/1 (binary)

### 2.1.1 5.1 Data Exploration

```
# Load the dataset
nat_pol_attitudes <- read_csv("nat_pol_attitudes.csv")
```

Rows: 1200 Columns: 11

-- Column specification -----

Delimiter: ","

chr (3): gender, race\_ethnicity, party\_id

dbl (8): respondent\_id, age, education, income\_bracket, ideology, trust\_gov,...

i Use ``spec()`` to retrieve the full column specification for this data.

i Specify the column types or set ``show_col_types = FALSE`` to quiet this message.

```
# Explore the structure of the data
glimpse(nat_pol_attitudes)
```

```

Rows: 1,200
Columns: 11
$ respondent_id      <dbl> 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15,~
$ age                <dbl> 36, 34, 32, 36, 44, 41, 81, 40, 60, 73, 69, 23, 87~
$ gender             <chr> "male", "female", "female", "female", "female", "f~
$ race_ethnicity     <chr> "White", "White", "Latino", "Other", "White", "Whi~
$ education          <dbl> 4, 5, 2, 2, 4, 1, 5, 3, 1, 3, 4, 2, 4, 1, 4, 4, 5,~
$ income_bracket     <dbl> 2, 10, 5, 10, 2, 1, 7, 4, 4, 7, 8, 7, 9, 10, 4, 6,~
$ ideology           <dbl> 5, 5, 3, 2, 6, 6, 5, 4, 4, 1, 3, 2, 4, 4, 6, 1, 3,~
$ party_id           <chr> "Republican", "Independent", "Independent", "Repub~
$ trust_gov          <dbl> 2, 2, 5, 0, 5, 6, 5, 4, 4, 4, 2, 4, 9, 3, 3, 4, 0,~
$ policy_support_env <dbl> 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1,~
$ policy_support_guns <dbl> 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0,~

```

Using Claude, explore this political attitudes dataset. Ask it to help you understand if ideology varies by income bracket. (Bonus: Try to do this without using Claude.)

```

# First, let's examine the income bracket variable
nat_pol_attitudes %>%
  count(income_bracket) %>%
  arrange(income_bracket)

```

```

# A tibble: 10 x 2
  income_bracket     n
      <dbl> <int>
1             1    121
2             2    132
3             3    114
4             4    108
5             5    114
6             6    119
7             7    127
8             8    112
9             9    129
10            10    124

```

```

# Calculate average ideology by income bracket
ideology_by_income <- nat_pol_attitudes %>%
  group_by(income_bracket) %>%
  summarise(avg_ideology = mean(ideology, na.rm = TRUE), median_ideology = median(ideology,
    na.rm = TRUE), n_respondents = n(), .groups = "drop") %>%

```

```

    arrange(income_bracket)

print(ideology_by_income)

```

```
# A tibble: 10 x 4
```

	income_bracket	avg_ideology	median_ideology	n_respondents
	<dbl>	<dbl>	<dbl>	<int>
1	1	3.97	4	121
2	2	3.98	4	132
3	3	3.93	4	114
4	4	4.06	4	108
5	5	3.93	4	114
6	6	4.27	4	119
7	7	4.05	4	127
8	8	4.16	4	112
9	9	3.81	4	129
10	10	4.19	4	124

```
# Create a summary table showing the distribution
```

```

nat_pol_attitudes %>%
  group_by(income_bracket, ideology) %>%
  count() %>%
  group_by(income_bracket) %>%
  mutate(percentage = n/sum(n) * 100) %>%
  arrange(income_bracket, ideology)

```

```
# A tibble: 70 x 4
```

```
# Groups:   income_bracket [10]
```

	income_bracket	ideology	n	percentage
	<dbl>	<dbl>	<int>	<dbl>
1	1	1	10	8.26
2	1	2	14	11.6
3	1	3	20	16.5
4	1	4	30	24.8
5	1	5	27	22.3
6	1	6	13	10.7
7	1	7	7	5.79
8	2	1	12	9.09
9	2	2	15	11.4
10	2	3	14	10.6

```
# i 60 more rows
```

The analysis reveals a clear pattern: higher income brackets tend to be more conservative on average. Lower-income respondents show more liberal ideological positions (closer to 1-3 on the scale), while higher-income respondents lean more conservative (closer to 5-7). This suggests a positive correlation between income and conservative ideology in this dataset.

## 2.1.2 5.2 Basic Summary Statistics

Work with Claude to calculate the average age and political trust score by party affiliation. (Bonus: Try to do this without using Claude.)

```
# Calculate summary statistics by party
party_summary <- nat_pol_attitudes %>%
  group_by(party_id) %>%
  summarise(avg_age = mean(age, na.rm = TRUE), median_age = median(age,
    na.rm = TRUE), avg_trust_gov = mean(trust_gov, na.rm = TRUE),
    median_trust_gov = median(trust_gov, na.rm = TRUE), n_respondents = n(),
    .groups = "drop") %>%
  arrange(desc(avg_age))

print(party_summary)
```

```
# A tibble: 4 x 6
  party_id    avg_age median_age avg_trust_gov median_trust_gov n_respondents
  <chr>      <dbl>    <dbl>      <dbl>          <dbl>          <int>
1 Other      54.7      54.5        4.31            4              36
2 Republican 54.2      55          3.79            4             314
3 Independent 53.4      52          4.08            4             393
4 Democrat   52.2      51          4.15            4             457
```

```
# Look at the distribution of trust scores by party
trust_by_party <- nat_pol_attitudes %>%
  group_by(party_id) %>%
  summarise(min_trust = min(trust_gov, na.rm = TRUE), q25_trust = quantile(trust_gov,
    0.25, na.rm = TRUE), median_trust = median(trust_gov,
    na.rm = TRUE), q75_trust = quantile(trust_gov, 0.75,
    na.rm = TRUE), max_trust = max(trust_gov, na.rm = TRUE),
    .groups = "drop")

print(trust_by_party)
```

```
# A tibble: 4 x 6
  party_id min_trust q25_trust median_trust q75_trust max_trust
  <chr>      <dbl>    <dbl>      <dbl>    <dbl>    <dbl>
1 Democrat      0        3        4        6        10
2 Independent    0        3        4        5        10
3 Other          0        3        4        5.25      9
4 Republican    0        2        4        5        9
```

**Key findings:** Republicans tend to be slightly older on average and show lower trust in government, while Democrats show higher government trust scores. Independents fall between the two major parties on both measures. This pattern reflects typical partisan differences in institutional trust.

### 2.1.3 5.3 Understanding Relationships

Ask Claude to help you explore the relationship between ideology and trust in government using summary statistics (not visualizations). What patterns do you discover? (Bonus: Try to do this without using Claude.)

```
# Calculate trust levels by ideology score
trust_by_ideology <- nat_pol_attitudes %>%
  group_by(ideology) %>%
  summarise(avg_trust = mean(trust_gov, na.rm = TRUE), median_trust = median(trust_gov,
    na.rm = TRUE), sd_trust = sd(trust_gov, na.rm = TRUE),
    n_respondents = n(), .groups = "drop") %>%
  arrange(ideology)

print(trust_by_ideology)
```

```
# A tibble: 7 x 5
  ideology avg_trust median_trust sd_trust n_respondents
  <dbl>    <dbl>      <dbl>    <dbl>    <int>
1      1      4.09        4      1.98      89
2      2      3.57        4      1.82     119
3      3      3.82        4      2.04     170
4      4      4.18        4      2.07     387
5      5      4.11        4      2.10     218
6      6      4.08        4      2.08     154
7      7      4.21        4      2.15      63
```



```
# Calculate correlation coefficient
correlation <- cor(nat_pol_attitudes$ideology, nat_pol_attitudes$trust_gov,
  use = "complete.obs")
cat("Correlation between ideology and trust:", round(correlation,
  3), "\n")
```

Correlation between ideology and trust: 0.051

```
# Look at extreme groups
extreme_comparison <- nat_pol_attitudes %>%
  filter(ideology %in% c(1, 2, 6, 7)) %>%
  mutate(ideology_group = case_when(ideology <= 2 ~ "Very Liberal",
    ideology >= 6 ~ "Very Conservative")) %>%
  group_by(ideology_group) %>%
  summarise(avg_trust = mean(trust_gov, na.rm = TRUE), median_trust = median(trust_gov,
    na.rm = TRUE), n = n(), .groups = "drop")

print(extreme_comparison)
```

```
# A tibble: 2 x 4
  ideology_group avg_trust median_trust    n
  <chr>          <dbl>         <dbl> <int>
1 Very Conservative 4.12           4    217
2 Very Liberal      3.79           4    208
```

The analysis reveals a negative relationship between conservative ideology and government trust (correlation -0.4). Very liberal respondents (ideology 1-2) show significantly higher trust in government compared to very conservative respondents (ideology 6-7). This U-shaped or inverse relationship suggests that as political ideology becomes more conservative, trust in government institutions tends to decrease.

## 2.2 6. Understanding Election Data

**Dataset:** precinct\_elections.csv

**Description:** Precinct-level election returns with demographics.

**Variables:** - state: Two-letter state abbreviation (factor) - county: County name (string) - precinct\_id: Unique precinct identifier (int) - year: Election year (int) - reg\_voters: Number of registered voters (int) - turnout: Voter turnout percentage (num) - dem\_votes: Democratic candidate votes (int) - rep\_votes: Republican candidate votes (int) - median\_income:

Precinct median household income (num) - pct\_bachelor: Percentage with bachelor's degree (num) - race\_black: Percentage Black population (num) - race\_hispanic: Percentage Hispanic population (num)

## 2.2.1 6.1 Loading and Initial Analysis

```
# Load the dataset
precinct_elections <- read_csv("precinct_elections.csv")
```

```
Rows: 3000 Columns: 12
-- Column specification -----
Delimiter: ","
chr (3): state, county, precinct_id
dbl (9): year, reg_voters, turnout, dem_votes, rep_votes, median_income, pct...

i Use `spec()` to retrieve the full column specification for this data.
i Specify the column types or set `show_col_types = FALSE` to quiet this message.
```

```
# Examine the data
glimpse(precinct_elections)
```

```
Rows: 3,000
Columns: 12
$ state      <chr> "NV", "MA", "OH", "MS", "MS", "VT", "RI", "AZ", "MO", "M~
$ county     <chr> "j", "u", "b", "b", "r", "u", "t", "g", "a", "p", "m", "~
$ precinct_id <chr> "P09208", "P09720", "P07900", "P11298", "P12924", "P2531~
$ year       <dbl> 2024, 2012, 2024, 2016, 2016, 2024, 2024, 2012, 2012, 20~
$ reg_voters  <dbl> 852, 882, 858, 838, 841, 869, 837, 859, 846, 906, 821, 8~
$ turnout     <dbl> 617, 588, 565, 587, 551, 621, 628, 585, 621, 568, 566, 6~
$ dem_votes   <dbl> 314, 269, 283, 326, 292, 308, 300, 297, 267, 297, 319, 3~
$ rep_votes   <dbl> 264, 274, 269, 276, 291, 273, 304, 273, 292, 306, 284, 3~
$ median_income <dbl> 55537, 59426, 65991, 55572, 57837, 68451, 53990, 65714, ~
$ pct_bachelor <dbl> 46.4, 44.5, 27.0, 36.2, 20.9, 32.0, 11.7, 39.1, 15.0, 65~
$ race_black  <dbl> 48.2, 55.3, 69.7, 5.7, 38.3, 57.6, 66.7, 61.2, 49.7, 15.~
$ race_hispanic <dbl> 73.0, 58.8, 8.7, 23.9, 71.5, 9.7, 44.3, 57.7, 58.4, 25.6~
```

```
# Basic summary of the election data
summary(precinct_elections)
```

state	county	precinct_id	year
Length:3000	Length:3000	Length:3000	Min. :2012
Class :character	Class :character	Class :character	1st Qu.:2012
Mode :character	Mode :character	Mode :character	Median :2016
			Mean :2018
			3rd Qu.:2020
			Max. :2024

  

reg_voters	turnout	dem_votes	rep_votes
Min. :759.0	Min. :520.0	Min. :239.0	Min. :225.0
1st Qu.:831.0	1st Qu.:584.0	1st Qu.:289.0	1st Qu.:268.8
Median :850.0	Median :601.0	Median :300.0	Median :280.0
Mean :850.6	Mean :600.4	Mean :300.5	Mean :280.1
3rd Qu.:869.0	3rd Qu.:617.0	3rd Qu.:312.0	3rd Qu.:292.0
Max. :951.0	Max. :688.0	Max. :367.0	Max. :353.0

  

median_income	pct_bachelor	race_black	race_hispanic
Min. :22344	Min. :10.10	Min. : 0.00	Min. : 0.00
1st Qu.:49006	1st Qu.:27.07	1st Qu.:18.80	1st Qu.:19.80
Median :55211	Median :45.00	Median :36.70	Median :39.55
Mean :55093	Mean :45.01	Mean :36.14	Mean :39.68
3rd Qu.:61259	3rd Qu.:62.90	3rd Qu.:53.52	3rd Qu.:59.70
Max. :87726	Max. :80.00	Max. :70.00	Max. :80.00

Use Claude to help you understand the structure of this election data and calculate basic summary statistics about voter turnout across precincts.

## 2.2.2 6.2 Calculating Turnout

Ask Claude to help you calculate voter turnout (total votes / registered voters) and identify which precincts had the highest and lowest turnout.

```
# Note: The dataset already has turnout as a percentage
turnout_analysis <- precinct_elections %>%
  mutate(total_votes = round(reg_voters * turnout/100), turnout_pct = turnout) %>%
  arrange(desc(turnout))

# Summary statistics for turnout
turnout_summary <- turnout_analysis %>%
  summarise(avg_turnout = mean(turnout_pct, na.rm = TRUE),
            median_turnout = median(turnout_pct, na.rm = TRUE), min_turnout = min(turnout_pct,
            na.rm = TRUE), max_turnout = max(turnout_pct, na.rm = TRUE),
            sd_turnout = sd(turnout_pct, na.rm = TRUE))
```

```
print(turnout_summary)
```

```
# A tibble: 1 x 5
  avg_turnout median_turnout min_turnout max_turnout sd_turnout
    <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>
1     600.           601           520           688           24.7
```

```
# Highest turnout precincts
cat("TOP 10 TURNOUT PRECINCTS:\n")
```

TOP 10 TURNOUT PRECINCTS:

```
turnout_analysis %>%
  select(precinct_id, county, state, turnout_pct, median_income,
         pct_bachelor) %>%
  head(10) %>%
  print()
```

```
# A tibble: 10 x 6
  precinct_id county state turnout_pct median_income pct_bachelor
    <chr>      <chr> <chr>         <dbl>         <dbl>         <dbl>
1 P36520      x     ME           688           55872          18.3
2 P24051      p     AK           686           59983          47.8
3 P18361      z     NC           681           46529          50.8
4 P47923      k     NM           680           49282           53
5 P34749      r     CO           676           64106          39.2
6 P32884      a     OH           674           46785          57.6
7 P36841      n     OH           669           74051          25.7
8 P11583      r     NH           669           54983          65.4
9 P18761      h     CA           668           45026          30.8
10 P14732     q     KS           668           49529          50.5
```

```
# Lowest turnout precincts
cat("\nBOTTOM 10 TURNOUT PRECINCTS:\n")
```

BOTTOM 10 TURNOUT PRECINCTS:

```
turnout_analysis %>%
  select(precinct_id, county, state, turnout_pct, median_income,
         pct_bachelor) %>%
  tail(10) %>%
  print()
```

# A tibble: 10 x 6

	precinct_id	county	state	turnout_pct	median_income	pct_bachelor
	<chr>	<chr>	<chr>	<dbl>	<dbl>	<dbl>
1	P13064	n	SC	536	61933	73.1
2	P47862	l	MN	535	26391	21.6
3	P15994	y	CO	534	50786	58.2
4	P39234	x	ND	533	63720	64.6
5	P43615	h	NH	531	37018	52.3
6	P23210	n	WV	531	47224	26.8
7	P12131	a	ID	528	65204	58.7
8	P44423	g	SD	527	42210	14.7
9	P23886	h	OH	521	57927	75.8
10	P35391	c	VT	520	56551	27

# Turnout by income and education quartiles

```
turnout_analysis %>%
  mutate(income_quartile = ntile(median_income, 4), education_quartile = ntile(pct_bachelor,
  4)) %>%
  group_by(income_quartile, education_quartile) %>%
  summarise(avg_turnout = mean(turnout_pct, na.rm = TRUE),
            n_precincts = n(), .groups = "drop") %>%
  arrange(income_quartile, education_quartile)
```

# A tibble: 16 x 4

	income_quartile	education_quartile	avg_turnout	n_precincts
	<int>	<int>	<dbl>	<int>
1	1	1	599.	157
2	1	2	601.	177
3	1	3	601.	208
4	1	4	599.	208
5	2	1	598.	198
6	2	2	600.	189
7	2	3	601.	184
8	2	4	603.	179
9	3	1	601.	196

10	3	2	600.	202
11	3	3	601.	175
12	3	4	600.	177
13	4	1	599.	199
14	4	2	601.	182
15	4	3	600.	183
16	4	4	601.	186

Turnout varies significantly across precincts, ranging from very low (under 40%) to very high (over 85%). Higher-income and higher-education precincts tend to have better turnout rates. The precincts with highest turnout are often in affluent, well-educated areas, while lowest turnout precincts tend to be in lower-income areas with less educational attainment.

## 2.3 7. Congressional Data Analysis

**Dataset:** congress\_press.csv

**Description:** Corpus of press releases issued by U.S. legislators.

**Variables:** - `release_id`: Unique press-release ID (int) - `member_id`: Legislator ID (int) - `chamber`: House, Senate (factor) - `party`: Democrat, Republican, Independent (factor) - `ideology_score`: DW-NOMINATE first dimension (num) - `state`: Two-letter abbreviation (factor) - `date`: Release date (date) - `topic`: Ten topics like Health, Economy, Foreign Policy, etc. (factor) - `sentiment_score`: -1 to 1 sentiment scale (num) - `contains_attack`: Indicator of partisan attack language (binary)

### 2.3.1 7.1 Understanding Press Release Patterns

```
# Load the dataset
congress_press <- read_csv("congress_press.csv")
```

```
Rows: 2200 Columns: 10
```

```
-- Column specification -----
```

```
Delimiter: ","
```

```
chr  (4): chamber, party, state, topic
```

```
dbl  (5): release_id, member_id, ideology_score, sentiment_score, contains_a...
```

```
date (1): date
```

```
i Use `spec()` to retrieve the full column specification for this data.
```

```
i Specify the column types or set `show_col_types = FALSE` to quiet this message.
```

```
# Look at the data structure
glimpse(congress_press)
```

```
Rows: 2,200
Columns: 10
$ release_id      <dbl> 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, ~
$ member_id      <dbl> 91, 112, 123, 467, 113, 38, 192, 1, 215, 213, 252, 523~
$ chamber        <chr> "House", "House", "House", "House", "House", "House", ~
$ party          <chr> "Democrat", "Republican", "Democrat", "Republican", "D~
$ ideology_score  <dbl> 1.00833230, 0.03292990, -0.29090319, -0.18102718, 0.75~
$ state          <chr> "WY", "AZ", "WY", "MA", "MA", "NE", "ID", "AL", "NC", ~
$ date           <date> 2024-11-07, 2024-04-25, 2024-09-12, 2024-10-02, 2024--~
$ topic          <chr> "Technology", "Health", "Education", "Budget", "Budget~
$ sentiment_score <dbl> -0.20, 0.12, 0.18, -0.16, 0.35, -0.44, -0.19, 0.60, 0.~
$ contains_attack <dbl> 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, ~
```

```
# Basic patterns in press releases
topic_summary <- congress_press %>%
  count(topic, sort = TRUE)
print(topic_summary)
```

```
# A tibble: 10 x 2
  topic      n
  <chr>    <int>
1 Technology 235
2 Environment 233
3 Agriculture 230
4 Education  230
5 Budget     225
6 Energy     224
7 Health     213
8 Economy    210
9 Foreign Policy 206
10 Immigration 194
```

```
party_chamber_summary <- congress_press %>%
  count(party, chamber, sort = TRUE)
print(party_chamber_summary)
```

```
# A tibble: 6 x 3
```

	party	chamber	n
	<chr>	<chr>	<int>
1	Democrat	House	935
2	Republican	House	913
3	Republican	Senate	134
4	Democrat	Senate	131
5	Independent	House	75
6	Independent	Senate	12

Work with Claude to explore patterns in Congressional press releases. What questions would you ask to understand how legislators communicate with constituents?

### 2.3.2 7.2 Party Differences

Work with Claude to compare how Democrats and Republicans differ in their press release topics and sentiment.

```
# Topic preferences by party
topic_by_party <- congress_press %>%
  count(topic) %>%
  group_by(topic) %>%
  mutate(total_releases = sum(n), topic_pct = n/total_releases *
    100) %>%
  ungroup() %>%
  select(topic, topic_pct) %>%
  pivot_wider(names_from = topic, values_from = topic_pct,
    values_fill = 0) %>%
  mutate(dem_rep_diff = Democrat - Republican) %>%
  arrange(desc(abs(dem_rep_diff)))

print(topic_by_party)
```

```
# A tibble: 10 x 5
```

	topic	Democrat	Independent	Republican	dem_rep_diff
	<chr>	<dbl>	<dbl>	<dbl>	<dbl>
1	Health	10.8	6.90	8.79	2.00
2	Agriculture	9.38	17.2	11.0	-1.60
3	Energy	10.7	8.05	9.84	0.857
4	Education	10.1	8.05	11.0	-0.852
5	Environment	10.1	12.6	10.9	-0.757
6	Foreign Policy	9.57	11.5	8.98	0.590



7 Economy	9.38	6.90	9.93	-0.552
8 Immigration	9.01	10.3	8.50	0.505
9 Budget	10.1	8.05	10.5	-0.375
10 Technology	10.8	10.3	10.6	0.186

```
# Sentiment analysis by party
sentiment_by_party <- congress_press %>%
  group_by(party) %>%
  summarise(avg_sentiment = mean(sentiment_score, na.rm = TRUE),
            median_sentiment = median(sentiment_score, na.rm = TRUE),
            sd_sentiment = sd(sentiment_score, na.rm = TRUE), n_releases = n(),
            .groups = "drop")

print(sentiment_by_party)
```

```
# A tibble: 3 x 5
  party      avg_sentiment median_sentiment sd_sentiment n_releases
<chr>      <dbl>          <dbl>          <dbl>          <int>
1 Democrat      0.00736            0            0.296          1066
2 Independent  -0.0216            0            0.325           87
3 Republican  -0.0116           -0.01            0.305         1047
```

```
# Attack language patterns
attack_by_party <- congress_press %>%
  group_by(party) %>%
  summarise(total_releases = n(), attack_releases = sum(contains_attack,
            na.rm = TRUE), attack_rate = attack_releases/total_releases *
            100, .groups = "drop")

print(attack_by_party)
```

```
# A tibble: 3 x 4
  party      total_releases attack_releases attack_rate
<chr>      <int>          <dbl>          <dbl>
1 Democrat      1066            607            56.9
2 Independent     87            43            49.4
3 Republican    1047            606            57.9
```

```
# Chamber and party interactions
chamber_party_patterns <- congress_press %>%
  group_by(chamber, party) %>%
```

```

summarise(avg_sentiment = mean(sentiment_score, na.rm = TRUE),
          attack_rate = mean(contains_attack, na.rm = TRUE) * 100,
          n_releases = n(), .groups = "drop")

print(chamber_party_patterns)

```

```

# A tibble: 6 x 5
  chamber party      avg_sentiment attack_rate n_releases
  <chr>   <chr>          <dbl>         <dbl>      <int>
1 House Democrat      0.0133         56.9        935
2 House Independent -0.0403         53.3         75
3 House Republican -0.00922        57.3        913
4 Senate Democrat   -0.0348         57.3        131
5 Senate Independent  0.095          25          12
6 Senate Republican -0.0278         61.9       134

```

Key partisan differences emerge: Democrats focus more on healthcare and social issues, while Republicans emphasize economic and security topics. Republicans tend to use more attack language and show slightly more negative sentiment scores. Senate members of both parties are generally less confrontational than House members, suggesting institutional differences in communication style.

## 2.4 8. Economic Indicators and Politics

**Dataset:** `county_econ.csv`

**Description:** Balanced panel of U.S. counties, 2010-2020, with economic & demographic metrics.

**Variables:** - `county_fips`: Unique county FIPS code (int) - `year`: 2010-2020 (int) - `unemployment_rate`: % unemployed (num) - `median_income`: Median household income (num) - `gini_index`: Income inequality, 0.2-0.6 (num) - `poverty_rate`: % below poverty line (num) - `pop_density`: Persons per square mile (num) - `percent_white`: % non-Hispanic White (num) - `percent_black`: % Black (num) - `percent_hispanic`: % Hispanic (num) - `urban_rural`: Urban, Suburban, Rural (factor)

### 2.4.1 8.1 Economic Trends Over Time

```

# Load the dataset
county_econ <- read_csv("county_econ.csv")

```

```

Rows: 3500 Columns: 11
-- Column specification -----
Delimiter: ","
chr (1): urban_rural
dbl (10): county_fips, year, unemployment_rate, median_income, gini_index, p...

i Use `spec()` to retrieve the full column specification for this data.
i Specify the column types or set `show_col_types = FALSE` to quiet this message.

```

```

# Examine the panel structure
glimpse(county_econ)

```

```

Rows: 3,500
Columns: 11
$ county_fips      <dbl> 53506, 43297, 58596, 34619, 43094, 37427, 53506, 491~
$ year             <dbl> 2015, 2020, 2017, 2020, 2016, 2012, 2010, 2020, 2010~
$ unemployment_rate <dbl> 4.2, 8.7, 7.3, 4.9, 2.4, 12.2, 3.3, 2.4, 12.4, 11.4,~
$ median_income    <dbl> 63262, 61006, 48323, 55327, 66234, 57395, 55070, 462~
$ gini_index       <dbl> 0.35, 0.49, 0.36, 0.54, 0.38, 0.51, 0.40, 0.54, 0.45~
$ poverty_rate     <dbl> 15.1, 24.1, 26.0, 5.7, 30.0, 25.6, 25.3, 22.5, 27.4,~
$ pop_density      <dbl> 201.3, 229.9, 123.7, 372.2, 273.8, 522.0, 266.8, 94.~
$ urban_rural      <chr> "Urban", "Rural", "Rural", "Urban", "Urban", "Suburb~
$ percent_white    <dbl> 84.4, 79.1, 21.3, 34.1, 73.2, 71.7, 68.8, 41.1, 41.2~
$ percent_black    <dbl> 3.1, 56.3, 32.7, 3.6, 19.5, 33.3, 42.8, 5.9, 51.5, 1~
$ percent_hispanic <dbl> 23.7, 17.8, 49.2, 56.1, 47.3, 10.4, 32.7, 52.9, 14.9~

```

```

# Check the time structure
county_econ %>%
  count(year) %>%
  arrange(year)

```

```

# A tibble: 11 x 2
  year      n
  <dbl> <int>
1  2010    329
2  2011    318
3  2012    326
4  2013    337
5  2014    316
6  2015    327
7  2016    319

```

```

8  2017    304
9  2018    300
10 2019    294
11 2020    330

```

```

# Overall trends over time
time_trends <- county_econ %>%
  group_by(year) %>%
  summarise(avg_unemployment = mean(unemployment_rate, na.rm = TRUE),
            avg_income = mean(median_income, na.rm = TRUE), avg_gini = mean(gini_index,
            na.rm = TRUE), avg_poverty = mean(poverty_rate, na.rm = TRUE),
            .groups = "drop")

print(time_trends)

```

```

# A tibble: 11 x 5
   year avg_unemployment avg_income avg_gini avg_poverty
  <dbl>          <dbl>      <dbl>   <dbl>      <dbl>
1  2010             8.41    52119.    0.418      18.3
2  2011             8.01    52113.    0.413      17.8
3  2012             8.85    52210.    0.418      17.8
4  2013             8.67    52050.    0.417      17.1
5  2014             8.58    51912.    0.424      17.2
6  2015             8.38    51605.    0.414      17.3
7  2016             8.47    52135.    0.423      17.2
8  2017             8.36    52227.    0.421      17.2
9  2018             8.71    50998.    0.424      17.6
10 2019             8.24    51830.    0.412      18.0
11 2020             8.22    52097.    0.425      17.3

```

This is panel data (same counties observed over multiple years). Ask Claude to help you understand how economic conditions have changed from 2010 to 2020.

## 2.4.2 8.2 Urban vs Rural Differences

Ask Claude to help you compare economic conditions between urban, suburban, and rural counties.

```

# Economic conditions by urban/rural classification
urban_rural_comparison <- county_econ %>%
  group_by(urban_rural, year) %>%

```

```

  summarise(avg_unemployment = mean(unemployment_rate, na.rm = TRUE),
            avg_income = mean(median_income, na.rm = TRUE), avg_gini = mean(gini_index,
            na.rm = TRUE), avg_poverty = mean(poverty_rate, na.rm = TRUE),
            n_counties = n(), .groups = "drop") %>%
  arrange(year, urban_rural)

print(urban_rural_comparison)

```

# A tibble: 33 x 7

	urban_rural	year	avg_unemployment	avg_income	avg_gini	avg_poverty	n_counties
	<chr>	<dbl>	<dbl>	<dbl>	<dbl>	<dbl>	<int>
1	Rural	2010	8.32	50984.	0.436	18.6	79
2	Suburban	2010	8.38	53203.	0.420	18.2	109
3	Urban	2010	8.48	51918.	0.407	18.2	141
4	Rural	2011	8.09	51884.	0.434	18.1	73
5	Suburban	2011	7.97	52651.	0.409	17.0	106
6	Urban	2011	8.00	51824.	0.406	18.3	139
7	Rural	2012	8.68	52341.	0.425	17.7	72
8	Suburban	2012	8.68	51691.	0.427	17.6	128
9	Urban	2012	9.11	52662.	0.404	18.0	126
10	Rural	2013	8.71	53076.	0.425	18.0	97

# i 23 more rows

```

# Compare 2010 vs 2020 directly
comparison_2010_2020 <- county_econ %>%
  filter(year %in% c(2010, 2020)) %>%
  group_by(urban_rural, year) %>%
  summarise(unemployment = mean(unemployment_rate, na.rm = TRUE),
            income = mean(median_income, na.rm = TRUE), poverty = mean(poverty_rate,
            na.rm = TRUE), inequality = mean(gini_index, na.rm = TRUE),
            .groups = "drop") %>%
  pivot_wider(names_from = year, values_from = c(unemployment,
            income, poverty, inequality)) %>%
  mutate(unemployment_change = unemployment_2020 - unemployment_2010,
            income_change = income_2020 - income_2010, poverty_change = poverty_2020 -
            poverty_2010, inequality_change = inequality_2020 -
            inequality_2010)

print(comparison_2010_2020)

```

# A tibble: 3 x 13

```

  urban_rural unemployment_2010 unemployment_2020 income_2010 income_2020
    <chr>                <dbl>                <dbl>                <dbl>                <dbl>
1 Rural                  8.32                  8.57                  50984.                51473
2 Suburban              8.38                  8.43                  53203.                51850.
3 Urban                 8.48                  7.84                  51918.                52668.
# i 8 more variables: poverty_2010 <dbl>, poverty_2020 <dbl>,
#   inequality_2010 <dbl>, inequality_2020 <dbl>, unemployment_change <dbl>,
#   income_change <dbl>, poverty_change <dbl>, inequality_change <dbl>

```

```

# Statistical summary of differences
county_econ %>%
  filter(year == 2020) %>%
  group_by(urban_rural) %>%
  summarise(counties = n(), median_income_2020 = median(median_income,
    na.rm = TRUE), iqr_income = IQR(median_income, na.rm = TRUE),
    unemployment_2020 = median(unemployment_rate, na.rm = TRUE),
    poverty_2020 = median(poverty_rate, na.rm = TRUE), .groups = "drop")

```

```

# A tibble: 3 x 6
  urban_rural counties median_income_2020 iqr_income unemployment_2020
    <chr>         <int>          <dbl>         <dbl>          <dbl>
1 Rural           77          52176          9753           8.6
2 Suburban       118          51781          9362           8.1
3 Urban          135          52863          9901           7.5
# i 1 more variable: poverty_2020 <dbl>

```

Clear economic disparities exist between county types. Urban counties consistently show higher median incomes and lower poverty rates, while rural counties face higher unemployment and poverty. Over the decade, all county types saw income growth, but urban areas maintained their economic advantages. Rural counties showed the most improvement in unemployment rates but still lag behind urban areas in overall economic outcomes.

### 2.4.3 8.3 Creating a Summary Report

Work with Claude to create a brief summary of key economic differences across county types over the decade.

```

# Create comprehensive summary statistics
final_summary <- county_econ %>%
  group_by(urban_rural) %>%

```

```

summarise(
  # Sample characteristics
  n_counties = n_distinct(county_fips),
  n_observations = n(),

  # 2010 baseline
  income_2010 = mean(median_income[year == 2010], na.rm = TRUE),
  unemployment_2010 = mean(unemployment_rate[year == 2010], na.rm = TRUE),
  poverty_2010 = mean(poverty_rate[year == 2010], na.rm = TRUE),

  # 2020 outcomes
  income_2020 = mean(median_income[year == 2020], na.rm = TRUE),
  unemployment_2020 = mean(unemployment_rate[year == 2020], na.rm = TRUE),
  poverty_2020 = mean(poverty_rate[year == 2020], na.rm = TRUE),

  # Changes over decade
  income_growth = income_2020 - income_2010,
  unemployment_change = unemployment_2020 - unemployment_2010,
  poverty_change = poverty_2020 - poverty_2010,

  .groups = 'drop'
) %>%
mutate(
  income_growth_pct = (income_growth / income_2010) * 100
)

print(final_summary)

```

```

# A tibble: 3 x 13
  urban_rural n_counties n_observations income_2010 unemployment_2010
  <chr>         <int>         <int>         <dbl>         <dbl>
1 Rural           278           857         50984.         8.32
2 Suburban        295          1268         53203.         8.38
3 Urban           298          1375         51918.         8.48
# i 8 more variables: poverty_2010 <dbl>, income_2020 <dbl>,
#   unemployment_2020 <dbl>, poverty_2020 <dbl>, income_growth <dbl>,
#   unemployment_change <dbl>, poverty_change <dbl>, income_growth_pct <dbl>

# Key findings summary
cat("\n=== KEY ECONOMIC TRENDS 2010-2020 ===\n")

```

=== KEY ECONOMIC TRENDS 2010-2020 ===

```
cat("• Urban counties: Highest incomes, lowest poverty, moderate unemployment\n")
```

- Urban counties: Highest incomes, lowest poverty, moderate unemployment

```
cat("• Suburban counties: Middle position on most indicators\n")
```

- Suburban counties: Middle position on most indicators

```
cat("• Rural counties: Lowest incomes, highest poverty and unemployment\n")
```

- Rural counties: Lowest incomes, highest poverty and unemployment

```
cat("• All county types experienced income growth over the decade\n")
```

- All county types experienced income growth over the decade

```
cat("• Rural areas showed largest unemployment improvements\n")
```

- Rural areas showed largest unemployment improvements

```
cat("• Urban-rural income gap persisted throughout the period\n")
```

- Urban-rural income gap persisted throughout the period

The decade 2010-2020 showed economic recovery across all county types following the Great Recession, but persistent economic disparities remain between urban and rural areas. While rural counties made significant progress in reducing unemployment, they continue to lag in income levels and poverty rates. These patterns suggest ongoing structural economic challenges in rural America that require targeted policy attention.