

Civic Engagement and Trust in Government are Strong Predictors of Voting Behavior*

Logistic Regression Analysis of Voter Behavior

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First sentence. Second sentence. Third sentence. Fourth sentence. Key Trump 2024 voting blocs, including young men without a college education were less likely to vote in the 2022 midterms when he was not on the ballot compared to 2020

1 Introduction

Overview paragraph

This study aims to estimate how race, gender, education, trust in the federal government, civic engagement, and interest in politics impact voting behavior. The first thing that this study will examine is the effects of age, gender, race, education, trust in the federal government, civic knowledge, and civic engagement on the probability that an individual supports Trump. The second thing that this study will examine is the effects of past presidential vote choice, age, highest level of education completed, trust in the federal government, knowledge of which party holds a majority in Congress, and interest in politics on the probability that an individual who voted for Donald Trump or Joe Biden in the 2020 U.S. presidential election would also vote in the 2022 U.S. midterm election. The estimands, which can never be known with complete certainty, include:

- The true effects of age, gender, race, education, trust in the federal government, knowledge of which party has a majority in the U.S. House, and interest in politics on the likelihood that an individual supports Trump.
- The true effects of presidential vote preference, age, education, trust, civic knowledge, and interest in politics on the likelihood that an individual who voted in a presidential election will also vote in the subsequent midterm election (Alexander 2023) .

*Code and data are available at: <https://github.com/taliafabs/US-Midterms-2022.git>.

Results paragraph

Based on the results of applying logistic regression models to predict voter turnout and vote preference, I estimate that

Why it matters paragraph In the 2024 election, Democratic Senate candidates (both incumbent and non-incumbent) were elected in states that President-Elect Trump carried: Michigan, Wisconsin, Nevada, and Arizona. In Nevada and Wisconsin, Senators Jackie Rosen and Tammy Baldwin

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 contains an overview of the survey data set from Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih (2023) that was used, visualizations of different variables, and summary statistics. Section 3 contains the logistic regression models used to predict the probability that an individual who voted for either Trump or Biden in the 2020 presidential election would also vote in the 2022 midterm election and the probability that an individual would support Trump over Biden in 2020. **?@sec-results** contains tables and data visualizations that present results about what characteristics made individuals who voted in the 2020 presidential election more likely to also vote in the 2022 midterm election and what characteristics make individuals more likely to support Trump. Section 5 contains detailed a detailed discussion about the results presented in **?@sec-results**, including demographics where support for Trump is strong, why some 2020 presidential election voters were more likely than others to vote in the 2022 midterm election, and how the 2016, 2020, and 2024 polling misses can be explained by low civic engagement and distrust in government among Trump voters. Appendix A contains an in-depth discussion about and evaluation of CES 2022 survey methodologies.

2 Data

2.1 Overview

The 2022 Comprehensive Election Study (CES) data set from Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih (2023) was used for this project. The Comprehensive Election Study (CES)

The data used for this project is the 2022 Comprehensive Election Study (CES) survey data set from Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih (2023). The data was obtained from Harvard Dataverse on November 27, 2024. The CES is a nationally-representative survey that aims to study voting behavior in the United States. It is conducted every year

The Comprehensive Election Study (CES) was previously known as the Cooperative Congressional Election Study (CCES) (Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih 2023).

from Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih (2023) 60,000 responses

I cleaned the 2022 CES data set to only include respondents who voted for either Donald Trump or Joe Biden in the 2020 U.S. presidential election. I used the *pres20vote* variable,

which is each participant’s response to a post-election survey wave question about who they voted for in 2020, to determine who each respondent voted for. This is not a perfect way to find out who each respondent voted for because it is subject to social desirability bias (Silver 2024). I am confident that most Trump and Biden 2020 voters are correctly labeled because most CES 2022 respondents’ 2020 presidential votes are consistent with their party affiliation or ideological leanings (Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih 2023). However, there is still a chance respondents who actually voted for Trump may have said that they voted for Biden in 2020 because of Trump’s controversial nature or to say that they voted for the winning candidate (Silver 2024). I discuss this in depth in Section 5.5. After sub-setting the data to only include identified Trump and Biden 2020 voters, I used TargetSmart voter file match status to determine which respondents voted in the 2022 midterm election and which respondents did not. Additional data details can be found in [?@sec-additional-data](#).

I used the statistical programming language R (R Core Team 2023) and the `dplyr`, `janitor`, `ggplot2`, and `kable` packages to clean the data, prepare the data, and create tables and data visualizations.

2.2 Measurement

The primary measurement task is to capture how Americans view their representatives, how they hold the different levels of government to account during elections, how they voted, their electoral experiences, and how voting behavior and experiences vary across different regions, demographics, and social contexts (Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih 2023). Surveys are a widely-used instrument for measuring public opinion during election cycles (Alexander 2023). During U.S. presidential and midterm election cycles, pollsters and researchers conduct surveys that measure candidate preferences, public opinion, and how Americans’ diverse geography, demographics, and experiences impact them. Researchers often use these measurements to predict election outcomes, analyze election outcomes, and analyze which factors predict voting behavior and vote preference.

The Cooperative Election Study (CES) survey data set that I used is a collection of 60,000 responses from a nationally-representative sample of American adults. Each entry represents the political preferences, voting intentions, ideological leanings, demographics, issue evaluations, and past voting decisions of one respondent. The CES survey has been conducted every year since 2006 (Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih 2023). In presidential and midterm election years, it consists of a pre-election wave and a post-election wave. The pre-election wave aims to measure the opinions, vote preferences, vote intentions of the American public, and demographics (Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih 2023). The post-election wave aims to measure how different factors, including geography, demographics, issue-evaluations, and the state of the economy influenced Americans’ decisions about who to vote for or whether to vote at all in the recent election (Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih 2023).

The transformation of an individual American adult’s opinion to an entry in the CES 2022 data set follows three steps, as outlined by Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih (2023):

1. **Survey data collection:** selected voters from a nationally representative sample respond to a Common Content survey.
2. **Weighting:** survey responses are weighted to adjust for any imbalances that exist in the sample. Respondents who are less likely to answer a survey are given higher weights.
3. **Reporting:** the weighted survey results are recorded as entries in the data set. The data set then serves as a snapshot of American public opinion in the weeks leading up to and shortly after the midterm election.

2.3 Outcome variables

Firstly, I will use age, gender, race, highest level of education completed, trust in the government, and knowledge of which party controls the U.S. House of Representatives to predict whether an individual supports Donald Trump.

Then, I will use 2020 presidential vote, age, highest level of education completed, trust in the government, knowledge of which party holds a majority in the U.S. House of Representatives, and interest in politics to predict whether someone who did vote for either Donald Trump or Joe Biden in the 2020 presidential election would also vote in the 2022 midterm election, or more generally, in an election where neither Trump nor Biden was on the ballot.

It is possible that variables that predict support for Trump can also be used to predict turnout in the 2022 midterm election. Support for Trump is high among voters who are male, do not have a college education, do not trust the government, and have low civic engagement. These factors make them less likely to respond to a survey, and it is possible that these factors also make them less likely to vote in a midterm election where Trump is not on the ballot.

Table 1: Biden voters are overrepresented in the CES 2022 survey data set.

2020 Vote	Num respondents	%
Donald Trump	17442	41.56
Joe Biden	24526	58.44

The 2020 presidential election had record-setting turnout (Grant 2023). Hartig et al. (2023) found that midterm elections typically have lower turnout than the preceding presidential election and the responses to the 2022 CES survey are consistent with that. Just under 30% of 2022 CES respondents who did vote in the 2020 presidential election did not vote in the 2022 midterm election.

Table 2: 70.64% of respondents who voted in the 2020 presidential election also voted in the 2022 midterm election

Voting Status	Num respondents	%
Did Not Vote in 2022	12323	29.36
Voted in 2022	29645	70.64

Table 3: Biden 2020 Voters Voted in 2022 midterms slightly more than Trump 2020 voters. 73.26% of respondents who voted for Trump in 2020 voted in 2022, compared to 74.67% of respondents who voted for Biden.

presvote2020	voted_status	n	percentage
Donald Trump	Did Not Vote	5310	30.44376
Donald Trump	Voted	12132	69.55624
Joe Biden	Did Not Vote	7013	28.59415
Joe Biden	Voted	17513	71.40586

2.4 Predictor variables

The tables and visualizations below present possible relationships between predictor variables and either support for Trump or voting in the 2022 midterm election.

2.4.1 Race and gender

In the 2024 U.S. presidential election, there were gender and racial gaps in support for Trump, with more women supporting Vice President Harris and more men supporting Trump. Since 2016, a higher percentage of white voters than voters of color has supported Trump, but in the 2024 presidential election, Trump increased his vote share among voters of color, especially Hispanic voters and black men. As shown in Table 3, white male survey respondents were more likely to support Trump, while black female respondents favored Biden in 2020. The gender gap in support for Trump is also shown, with white men more likely to support Trump than white women in the 2022 CES survey (Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih 2023). Support for Trump varies by race and gender, but these are not the only variables that predict vote preference.

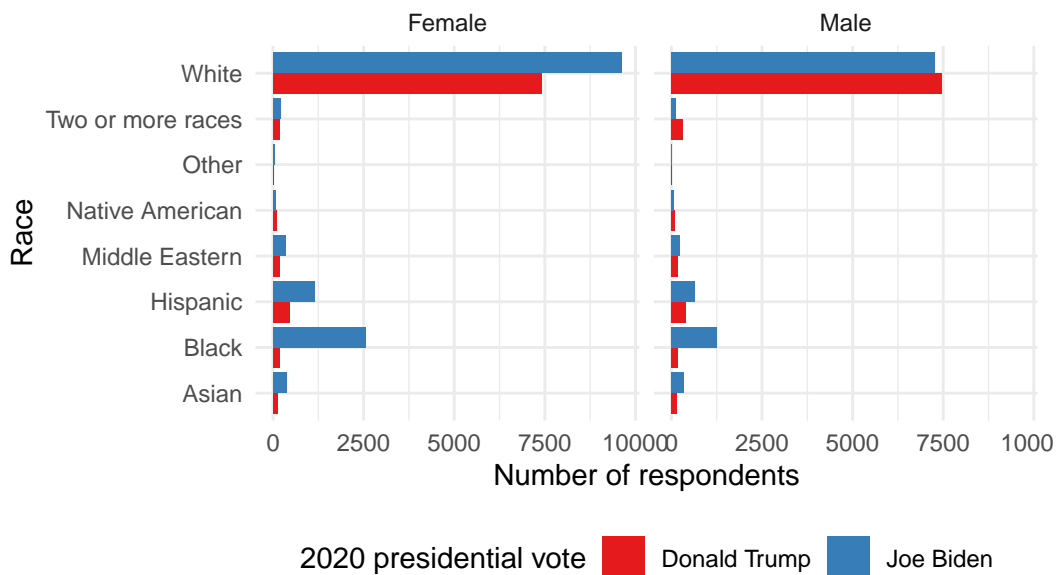


Figure 1: Support for Truo varied among CES respondents, with white men most likely to support Trump

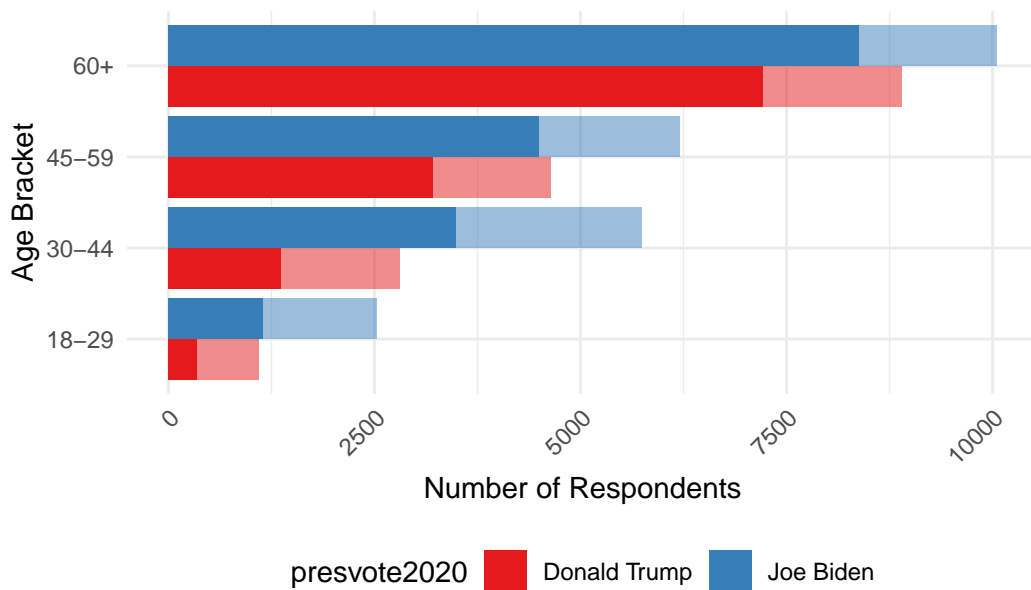


Figure 2: Lower turnout in 2022 midterm election across all age brackets compared to 2020. The solid portion of the red and blue bars shows the number of respondents who voted in the 2020 election that also voted in the 2022 midterm. More than half of 18-29 year old respondents who voted for Trump in 2020 presidential election did not vote in the 2022 midterm election.

2.4.2 Age

2.4.3 Education

Education gap in American politics.

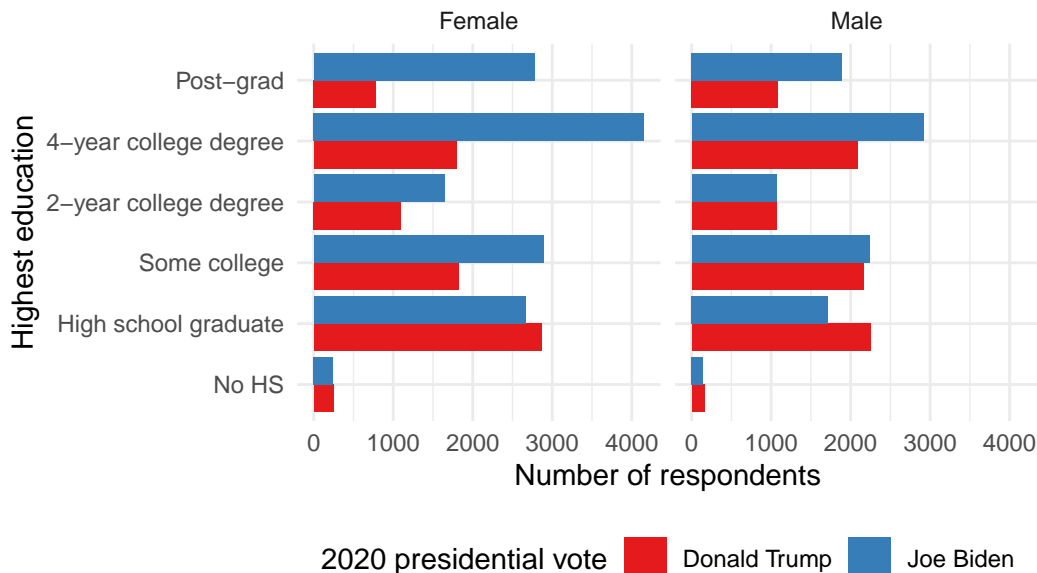


Figure 3: College-educated respondents were less likely to support Trump in 2020.

Race, gender, highest level of education, income, and religion are widely used when predicting political preference. In 2016, 2020, and 2024, pre-election polls and predictive models underestimated support for Trump.

2.4.4 Civic engagement and trust in government

Midterm elections typically have lower turnout than presidential elections. But the drop in turnout between the 2020 presidential election and the 2022 midterm election was not distributed equally across all demographics.

The CES 2022 survey does not contain an explicit question about civic engagement and there is no direct way to determine who is a low-propensity or low-information voter. I have used the following variables to measure civic engagement and trust in government:

- **trustfed**: response to the question about how much they trust the federal government)
- **newsint**: response to survey question about interest in politics
- **CC22_310b**: response to survey question asking which party has a majority in the U.S. House of Representatives.

As shown in Figure 4, survey respondents with less trust in the government favored Trump in 2020.

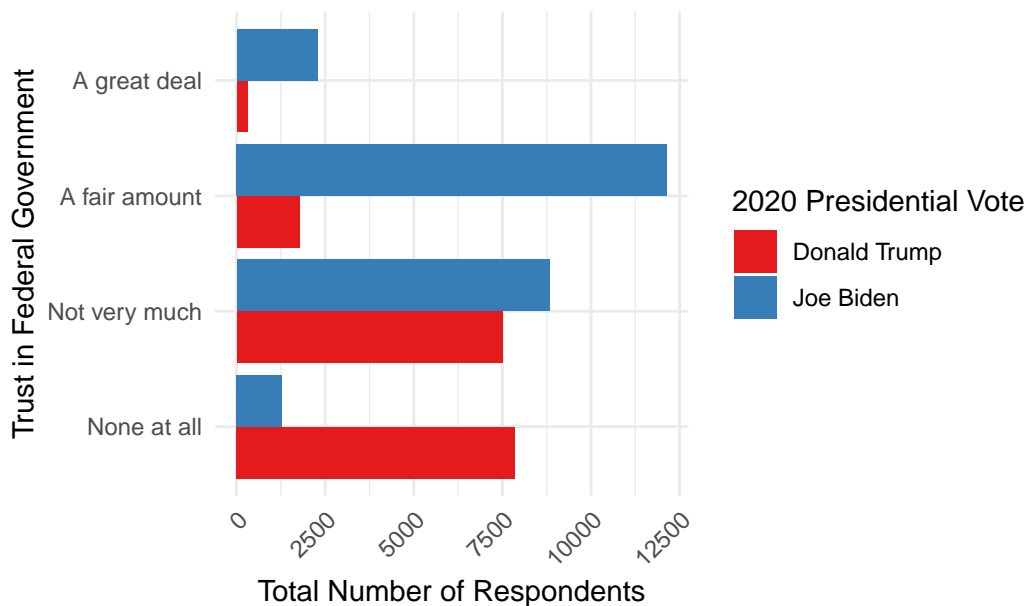


Figure 4: Voters with less trust in the government favored Trump in 2020, while voters with more trust favored Biden in 2020. The bars show the number of respondents with each level of trust in government who voted for Trump and Biden in 2020.

As shown in Figure 5 and Figure 6, respondents who voted in 2020, have at least some interest in politics, and knew which party held a majority in the U.S. House of Representatives turned out to vote at a higher rate in the 2022 midterm election compared to respondents who do not.

3 Model

The goal of my modeling strategy is twofold. I use two logistic regression models: one to model the probability that an individual who voted in the 2020 presidential election would also vote in the 2022 midterm election, and one to model the probability that an individual voter supports Trump.

The model to predict *voted_in_2022* uses the following predictors:

- `presvote2020`
- `age_bracket`

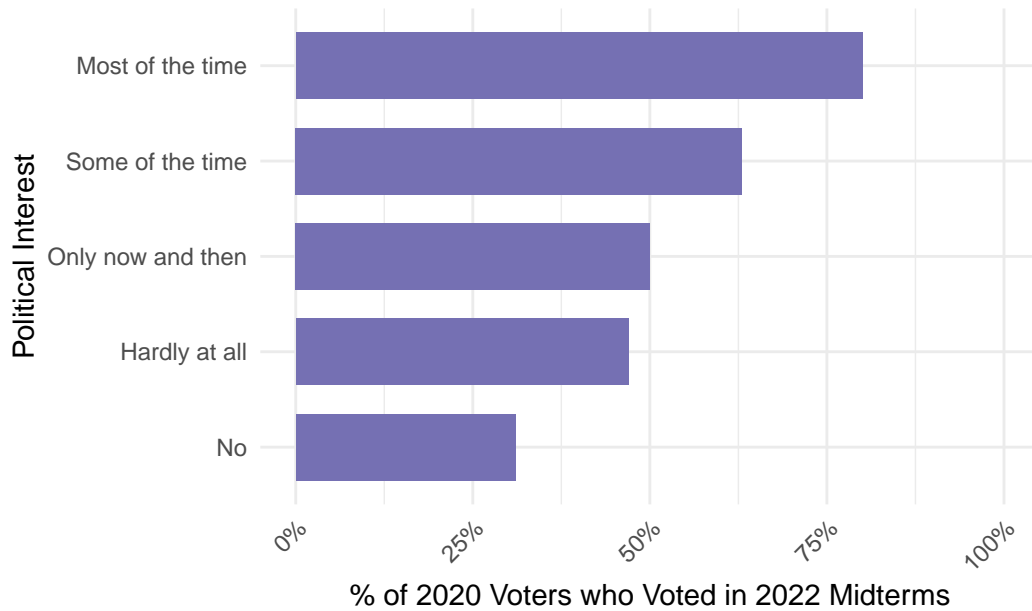


Figure 5: Respondents with low interest in politics who voted in the 2020 presidential election were less likely to vote in the 2022 midterm election.

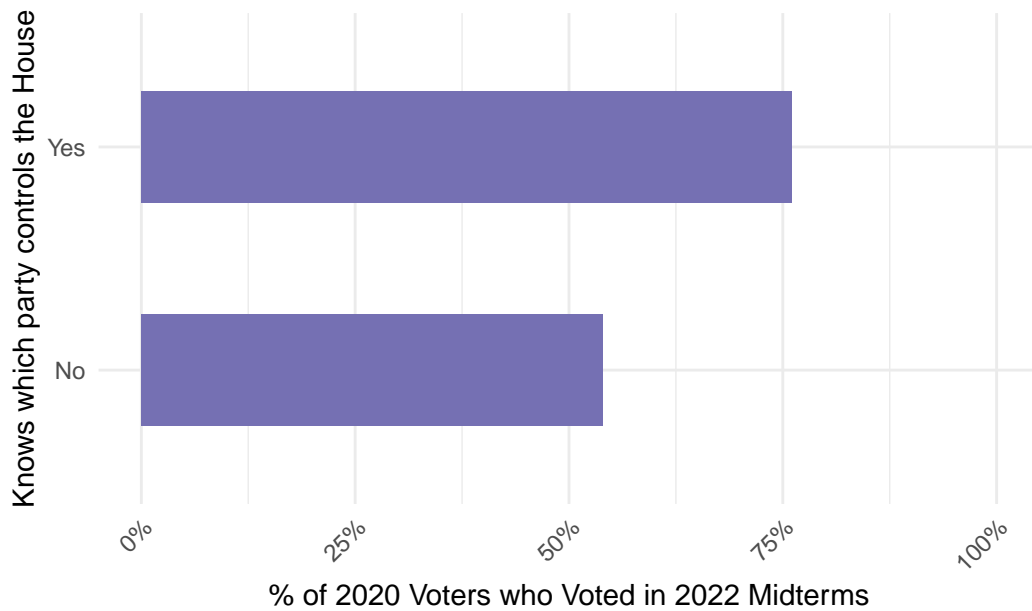


Figure 6: There is a nearly 15-point gap in 2022 turnout amongst respondents who voted for Trump or Biden in 2020 and know which party has a majority in the U.S. House of Representatives versus those who do not.

- `educ`
- `trust`
- `know_us_house`
- `political_interest`

The model to predict *voted_for_trump* uses the following predictors:

- `age_bracket`
- `gender`
- `race`
- `educ`
- `trust`
- `know_us_house`

Here, I provide a brief description of how I used logistic regression to predict voter turnout and vote preference, and how my models are set up. Model details and diagnostics can be found in [Appendix C](#).

3.1 Model set-up

Define y_i as the number of seconds that the plane remained aloft. Then β_i is the wing width and γ_i is the wing length, both measured in millimeters.

Models the probability that someone who voted for either Trump or Biden in 2020 also voted in the 2022 mid-term elections.

Define π_i as the probability that survey respondent i voted in the 2022 midterm election

$$\begin{aligned}
y_i | \pi_i &\sim \text{Bern}(\pi_i) \\
\text{logit}(\pi_i) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{presvote2020}_i + \beta_2 \times \text{educ}_i + \beta_3 \times \text{trust}_i + \beta_4 \times \text{know_us_house}_i \\
&\quad + \beta_5 \times \text{know_us_senate}_i + \beta_6 \times \text{political_interest}_i \\
\beta_0 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_1 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_2 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_3 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_4 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_5 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_6 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5)
\end{aligned}$$

Models the probability that a respondent voted for Trump in 2020:

$$\begin{aligned}
y_i | \pi_i &\sim \text{Bern}(\pi_i) \\
\text{logit}(\pi_i) &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \times \text{age_bracket}_i + \beta_2 \times \text{gender}_i + \beta_3 \times \text{race}_i + \beta_4 \times \text{educ}_i \\
&\quad + \beta_5 \times \text{trust}_i + \beta_6 \times \text{know_us_house} - i \\
\beta_0 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_1 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_2 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_3 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_4 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_5 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5) \\
\beta_6 &\sim \text{Normal}(0, 2.5)
\end{aligned}$$

The models are run in R (R Core Team 2023) using the `rstanarm` package and default priors from `rstanarm` (Goodrich et al. 2022).

3.1.1 Model justification

I used two different logistic regression models to estimate *vote* and *turnout*

We expect a positive relationship between the size of the wings and time spent aloft. In particular...

We can use maths by including latex between dollar signs, for instance θ . Confounders have not been eliminated -

I found that trust in the federal government is related to both support for Trump and likelihood that someone who voted in 2020 also voted in 2022. education same thing.

3.2 Model Weaknesses and Limitations

The models were trained using a random subset of the 2022 CES survey data set. My analysis data set (after data cleaning) contained 41,968 observations. I took a random subset of 5000 observations to train my models. This was a trade-off because

Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih (2023) warn that using a small sub sample of the CES survey data to train a model because measurement error can lead to flawed inferences. The CES is a large survey and as a whole, it provides a sufficient number of observations to analyze small sub-populations (Schaffner, Ansolabehere, and Shih 2023).

Trained using a random subset of the data. Refer to codebook about the risks of that. I randomly sampled 5,000 observations from the 2022 CES survey data set. This was a tradeoff; training a model on more observations would have had a significantly longer runtime. However, randomly subsetting the 2022 CES survey data set is risky because ...

4 Results

The model results are summarized in Appendix [C.1](#).

4.1 Voting blocs that favored Trump

4.1.1 Trump support among young men

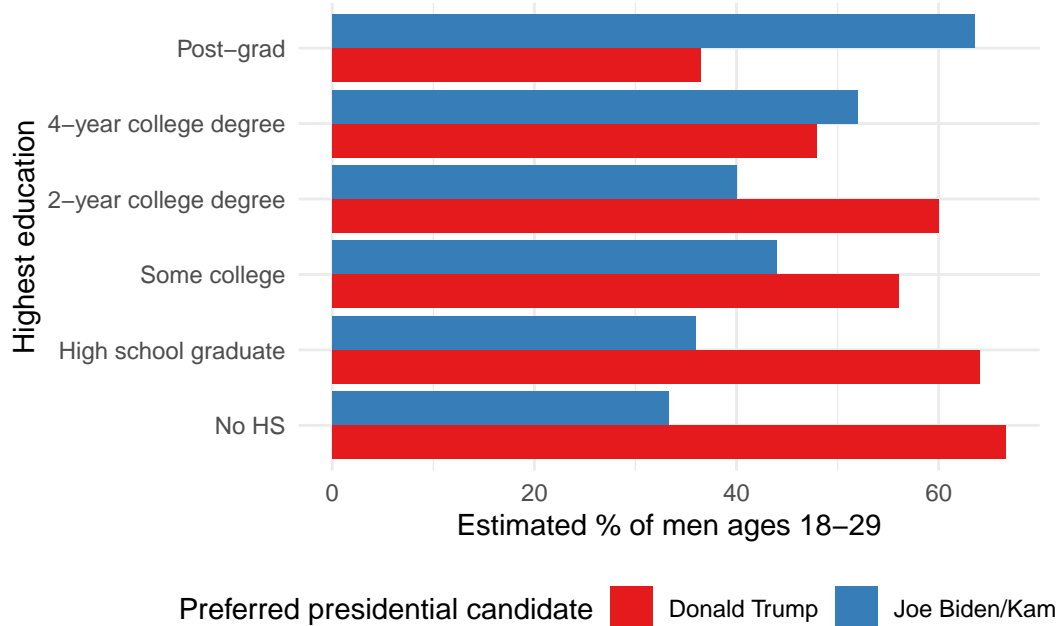


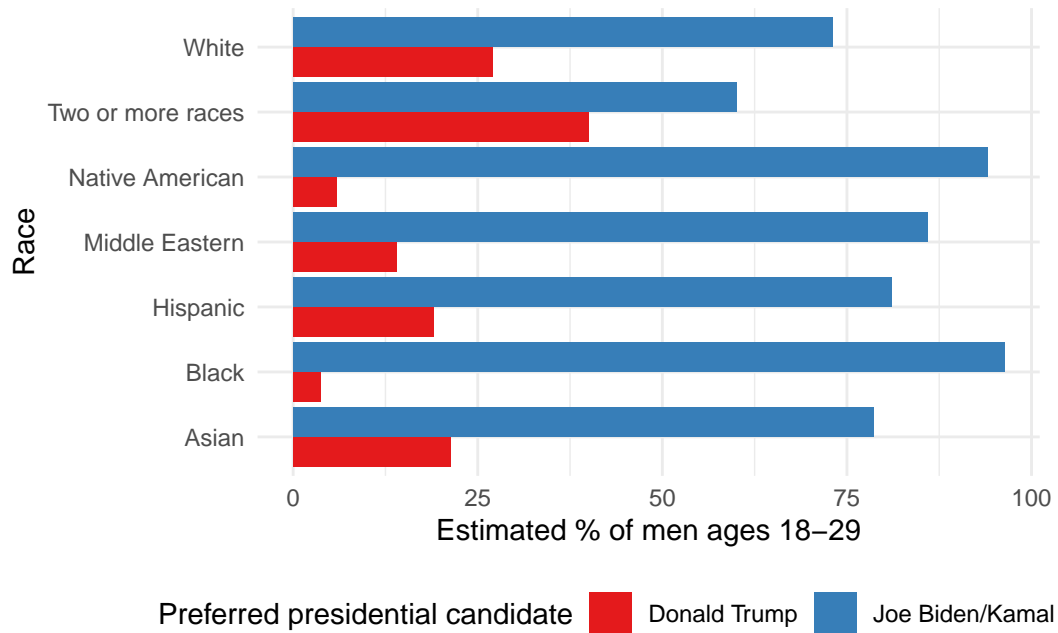
Figure 7: The majority of men ages 18-29 without a college education support Trump. The blue bars show the estimated % of young men with at each level of education that are Biden/Harris/Democratic supporters and the red bars show the % of young men at each level of education that support Trump.

4.2 2022 midterm election turnout

Table 5: Overall, Trump 2020 voters were more likely than Biden 2020 voters to vote in the 2022 midterm election based on model estimates.

Biden 2020 voters	Trump 2020 voters
74.66	75.48

Table 4: The majority of white, hispanic, asian, and multiracial men ages 18-29 support Trump based on model estimates. The red bars



4.2.1 Voters with low interest in politics and low civic engagement are less likely to vote in midterm elections

4.2.2 Low propensity voters that favored Trump in 2020 were less likely to vote in 2022

This result foreshadowed the fact that young men, especially those without a college degree who are infrequent voters, would become a key part of Trump's winning coalition in 2024.

Table 6: Based on model estimates, 2020 presidential election voters with no college education, low trust in government, and low civic engagement/knowledge were likely to support Trump but less likely than the average 2020 voter to also vote in the 2022 midterm election.

Estimated Trump %	Estimated 2022 turnout % among low propensity 2020 voters
69.54	62.56

5 Discussion

5.1 First discussion point

If my paper were 10 pages, then should be at least 2.5 pages. The discussion is a chance to show off what you know and what you learnt from all this.

5.2 Overlapping predictors for Trump support and not voting in an election where he is not on the ballot

Please don't use these as sub-heading labels - change them to be what your point actually is.

5.3 Polling misses and Trump's unique appeal to infrequent, low-propensity voters

Young men who are not college-educated, do not know which party controls the U.S. House of Representatives,

5.4 2024 Polling Misses and Non-Response Bias

5.5 Weaknesses and next steps

Weaknesses and next steps should also be included.

One weakness is correctly identifying 2020 Trump voters and 2022 midterm non-voters in the 2022 CES survey data set.

Appendix

A Surveys, Sampling, and Observational Data

A.1 Deep Dive into CES Methodology

A.1.1 Overview

A.1.2 Sampling method

A.1.3 Weighting

Table 7: Respondents without a college education were given more weight because they are less likely to respond to a survey.

Highest Education Completed	Average weight
No HS	2.3837276
High school graduate	0.8909107
Some college	0.6702328
2-year college degree	0.6637045
4-year college degree	0.7888546
Post-grad	0.7993014

Table 8: Respondents who voted for Trump in 2020 were given more weight.

2020 presidential vote	Average weight
Donald Trump	0.9091925
Joe Biden	0.7284850

Table 9: Respondents had less trust in government were given more weight because they are less likely to respond to a survey.

Trust in government	Average weight
None at all	0.8871197
Not very much	0.8097035
A fair amount	0.7397012
A great deal	0.8132750

A.1.4 Vote validation

A.1.5 Weaknesses and limitations

A.2 Second Point: Idealized Survey Methodology to Study 2024 Down-Ballot Voter Attrition

A.3 Social Desirability Bias and Identifying Non-Voters

B Additional data details

B.1 Data cleaning

B.2 Identifying non-voters in the 2022 midterm election

I identified 2022 non-voters as respondents who

One strength of this approach is that it does not assume that every respondent who was not matched to a TargetSmart or YouGov voting record is a non-voter. It is possible for ...

One trade off of this vote validation approach is its vulnerability to social desirability bias.

C Model details

C.1 Model Results

The model summary is shown in Table 10.

?@tbl-modelsummary makes

C.2 Posterior predictive check

In ?@fig-ppcheckandposteriorvsprior-1 we implement a posterior predictive check. This shows the comparison of the outcome variable *vote_2022*, with simulations from the posterior distribution (Alexander 2023).

In ?@fig-ppcheckandposteriorvsprior-2 we compare the posterior with the prior. This shows...

Examining how the model fits, and is affected by, the data

Table 10: Explaining whether someone who voted in the 2020 presidential election also voted in the 2022 midterm election, based on who they voted for, age, education, trust in government, civic knowledge, and political interest

	Voter Turnout Model
(Intercept)	−0.79 (0.21)
presvote2020Joe Biden	0.24 (0.08)
age_bracket30-44	0.55 (0.10)
age_bracket45-59	1.16 (0.11)
age_bracket60+	1.79 (0.11)
educ4-year college degree	0.36 (0.11)
educHigh school graduate	−0.27 (0.12)
educNo HS	−1.01 (0.17)
educPost-grad	0.42 (0.13)
educSome college	0.10 (0.12)
trustfedA great deal	−0.86 (0.13)
trustfedNone at all	0.35 (0.11)
trustfedNot very much	0.39 (0.08)
truststateA great deal	−0.07 (0.11)
truststateNone at all	0.15 (0.10)
truststateNot very much	−0.07 (0.08)
know_us_houseYes	0.36 (0.07)
know_us_senateYes	0.02 (0.06)
political_interestMost of the time	0.28 (0.15)
political_interestNo	−1.07 (1.12)
political_interestOnly now and then	−0.32 (0.17)
political_interestSome of the time	0.00 (0.16)
Num.Obs.	7500
R ²	0.134
Log.Lik.	−3270.706
WAIC	6606.0
RMSE	0.42

C.3 Credibility Intervals

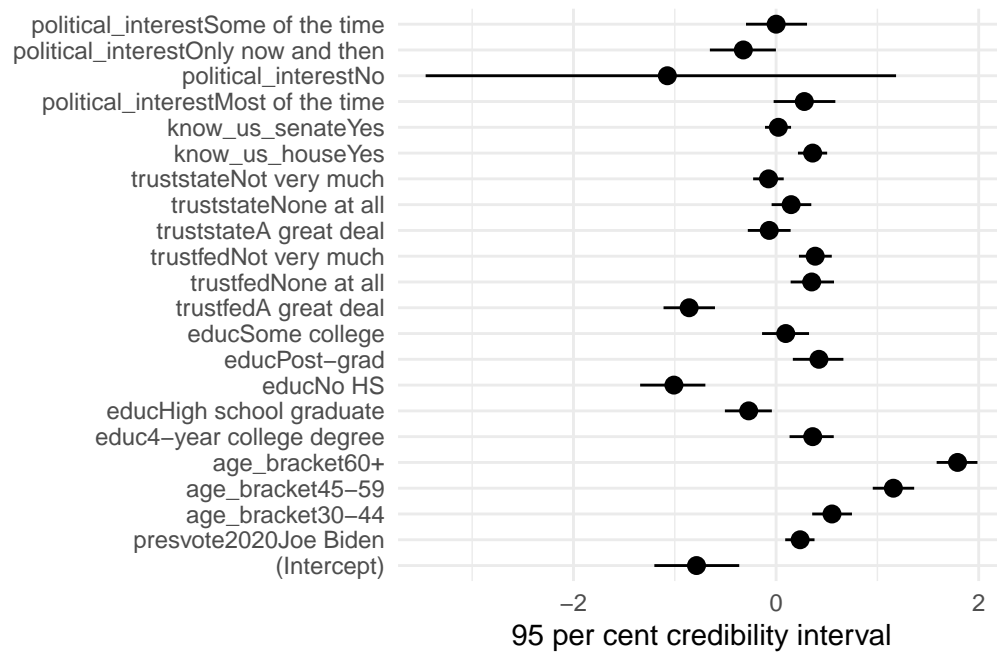


Figure 8: Credible intervals for predictors of voter turnout in the 2022 U.S. midterm elections

C.4 Diagnostics

Figure 9a is a trace plot. It shows... This suggests...

Figure 9b is a Rhat plot. It shows... This suggests...

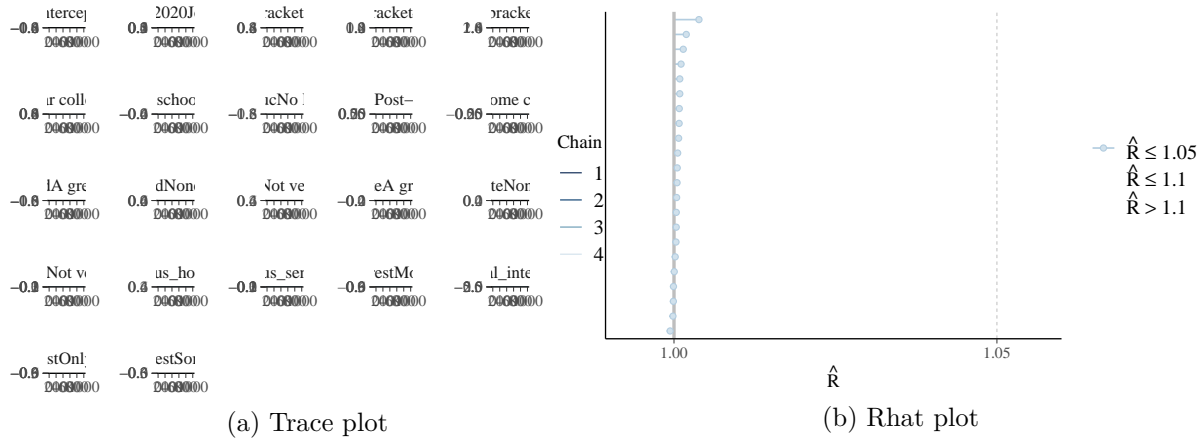


Figure 9: Checking the convergence of the MCMC algorithm

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