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# A multiplicative process for generating a beta-like survival function with application to the UK 2016 EU referendum results

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## Abstract

Human dynamics and sociophysics suggest statistical models that may explain and provide us with better insight into social phenomena. Contextual and selection effects tend to produce extreme values in the tails of rank-ordered distributions of both census data and district-level election outcomes. Models that account for this nonlinearity generally outperform linear models. Fitting nonlinear functions based on rank-ordering census and election data therefore improves the fit of aggregate voting models. This may help improve ecological inference, as well as election forecasting in majoritarian systems.

We propose a generative multiplicative decrease model that gives rise to a rank-order distribution, and facilitates the analysis of the recent UK EU referendum results. We supply empirical evidence that the beta-like survival function, which can be generated directly from our model, is a close fit to the referendum results, and also may have predictive value when covariate data are available.

*Keywords:* referendum results, generative model, multiplicative process, rank-order distribution, beta-like survival function

## 1 Introduction

Social and technological networks are examples of complex social systems [Bar07], giving rise to human dynamics that may be explained by generative stochastic processes. The study of human behaviour has a wider remit than the study of networks, similar to the goals of *sociophysics* [Gal08, SC14], where notions from statistical physics are used to examine social phenomena, comparable to the investigation of economics phenomena in *econophysics*. One of the principal ideas arising from statistical physics is that individuals can be thought of as “social atoms”, each displaying simple behaviour and possessing limited reasoning capacity, however, in aggregate, yielding complex social patterns [BO11]. One example of sociophysics is described in [PS10], where the popularity of movies emerges as collective choice behaviour, while another is described in [CMF13], where universal properties of election results are shown to emerge from empirical data. The discovery of such universal patterns, which are consistent across different countries and over a considerable time period, may help in uncovering social patterns, thus gaining a better understanding human decision making [FC07].

One method which helps in understanding human dynamics is the specification of a *generative model* that defines a stochastic process, resulting in a power law or another distribution demonstrating the possible evolution of a complex system [FLL15]. Early exponents of the generative model method were Simon [Sim55] and, more recently, Barabási’s group [AB02] and other researchers [BSV07]. The objective of such research has a similar vision to that of *social mechanisms* [HS98], which explore the procedures or mechanisms that help us understand known social phenomena.

In this paper, we employ the multiplicative process [Mit04, Zan08] introduced in [FLL17], which is described by the same underlying equations as the generative model proposed in [FLL15] (see Subsection 2.1). This was designed to capture the essential dynamics of survival analysis applications [KK12]. As in [FLL17], we introduce rank-ordering into the model as a natural mechanism in situations where there is no intrinsic ordering of the data, such as constituency-based election results [FLL17] or, as in this paper, regional referendum results (see Subsection 3.1). Rank-ordering [SKKV96] is a technique in which we rank the data objects according to some numerically described feature. We then plot this feature against rank, and finally analyse the resulting distribution. Examples of rank-order distributions are: the distribution of large earthquakes [SKKV96], Zipf’s rank-frequency distribution [MH99], the size distribution of cities [BGVV99], and the distribution of historical extreme events [CTT<sup>+</sup>12].

In many real-world situations, Zipf’s distribution, or more generally a power-law distribution, may only manifest itself for small and intermediate ranks, while for larger ranks a more pronounced cutoff is observed [MAB<sup>+</sup>09]. This has led researchers to combine these two regimes into a single distribution, called *the beta-like function* [NC08, MAB<sup>+</sup>09] (see Subsection 2.2), which appears to exhibit universal behaviour for rank-order distributions and is asymptotically a beta distribution [JKB95]. Whereas, in [NC08], the beta-like function is shown to be indirectly linked to a multinomial multiplicative process, here we introduce the *beta-like survival function* as a direct and intuitive consequence of a multiplicative decrease process, where an *attrition function* controls the rate of decrease of the survival function at each stage of the process. In Section 2.2, we will show that our beta-like survival function can be approximated by the beta-like function. In particular, the attrition function is a mixture of preferential (cf. preferential attachment [AB02]) and uniform attrition mechanisms, where the former is inversely proportional to the rank of the voting district and the latter is uniform over the voting districts.

The main contribution of the paper is to demonstrate the suitability of the beta-like survival function – a rank-ordered distribution generated from a multiplicative process – for modelling the UK 2016 EU regional referendum results (see Subsection 3.2). The EU referendum involved a binary choice, where voters had to choose between remaining in or leaving the EU. Voting behaviour in referenda often exhibits greater volatility than that found in general elections [LeD02]. In a referendum, parties are often internally divided over the issues, so party ideology is less of an issue than in a general election. Moreover, uncertainties can introduce shifts in opinion when doubts are raised on important issues during the course of a campaign. The UK EU referendum, also known as the “Brexit” referendum, will be analysed for many years to come, as it is considered a momentous event in the history of Europe.

The use of aggregate models is important for predicting election results in majoritarian systems. Compared to polls or surveys that include attitudinal predictors, socioeconomic

specifications predict little of the variation in individual-level voting. Yet there is a quandary. At the aggregate level, census-based socioeconomic models account for much of the variation in seat-level outcomes. While scholars of voting downplay socio-demographics, these are enjoying a renaissance among election forecasters, who have augmented polls with census data to refine seat-level predictions [Sil12]. These outperform blanket vote-to-seat conversion rules such as the *cube law* [KS50]. Panel studies deploying aggregate data, which consider the effects of variables such as economic change, “homegrown” candidacy and incumbency on election results, perform extremely well in predicting seat-level changes over time [Fai09]. In this paper, we show how the use of a rank-ordered distribution can improve the accuracy of aggregate-level models (see Subsection 3.3). In particular, we focus on Britain’s referendum on whether to leave the European Union. Held on 23 June 2016, the Leave side won an unexpected 52-48 percent victory.

## 2 A multiplicative process for generating a rank-order distribution

We next present a generative model in the form of a *multiplicative process* [Mit04, Zan08] that can also be viewed as a survival model, similar to the one introduced in [FLL15] in the context of human dynamics; this model was first introduced in [FLL17] but, for completeness, we repeat it in Subsection 2.1 in the context of a referendum, and then introduce the beta-like survival function in Subsection 2.2.

### 2.1 The dynamics of the multiplicative process

In its simplest form, a multiplicative process generates a log-normal distribution [JKB94, LSA01], and has applications in many fields, such as economics, biology and ecology [Mit04]. The solution to the multiplicative process we propose will be utilised in Section 3.1, in the context of a rank-ordered model of the proportion of votes attained for a particular answer in a multiple-choice question referendum.

We assume a countable number of indices where, for a given answer, the  $i$ th index represents the  $i$ th district ranked in descending order of the number of votes for that answer. For any stage  $s$ ,  $s \geq 0$ , we let  $\mu(i, s)$ ,  $0 \leq \mu(i, s) \leq 1$ , be the probability that a potential vote is “lost” in the  $i$ th district at that stage. Usually  $\mu(i, s)$  is known as the *mortality rate function*, but here we prefer to call it the *attrition function*, which is more descriptive in the context of voting. We always require that  $\mu(0, s) = 0$  for all  $s$ .

We now let  $F(i, s)$ ,  $0 \leq F(i, s) \leq 1$ , be a discrete function representing, for a given answer, the expected proportion of the popular vote potentially attainable for that answer in district  $i$  at stage  $s$ . Initially, we set  $F(0, 0) = 1$  for a dummy district 0, and  $F(i, 0) = 0$  for all  $i > 0$ .

The dynamics of the multiplicative process is captured by the following two equations:

$$F(0, s) = 1 \quad \text{for } s \geq 0, \tag{1}$$

and

$$F(i + 1, s + 1) = (1 - \mu(i, s)) F(i, s) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq i \leq s. \tag{2}$$

Equations (1) and (2) define the expected behaviour of a stochastic process [Ros96] describing how, as  $i$  increases, the vote decreases in districts where the given answer is less popular. For any particular vote, the attrition function is the probabilistic mechanism that decides whether the vote will be “lost” or not. The process obeys Gibrat’s law [Eec04], which in its original form states that the proportional rate of growth of a firm is independent of its absolute size. In our context, Gibrat’s law states that the proportional rate of decrease in the popular vote is independent of the actual number of votes cast for the given answer in the district.

As in [FLL15], we approximate the discrete function  $F(i, s)$  by a continuous function  $f(i, s)$ , and  $\mu(i, s)$  is now also a continuous function;  $f(i, s)$  is known as the *survival function*. Initially, we have  $f(0, s) = 1$  for all  $s$ , and  $f(i, 0) = 0$  for all  $i > 0$ .

The dynamics of the model is now captured by the first-order hyperbolic partial differential equation [Lax06],

$$\frac{\partial f(i, s)}{\partial s} + \frac{\partial f(i, s)}{\partial i} + \mu(i, s)f(i, s) = 0, \quad (3)$$

which is the same as that encountered in age-structured models of population dynamics [Cha94].

Eq. (3) is the well-known *transport equation* in fluid dynamics [Lax06], and the *renewal equation* in population dynamics [Cha94]. Following Eq. (1.22) in [Cha94], the solution of Eq. (3), when  $i \leq s$ , is given by

$$f(i, s) = \exp\left(-\int_0^i \mu(i-t, s-t) dt\right). \quad (4)$$

As noted above,  $f(i, s)$  is well-defined as long as  $i \leq s$  holds. In practice,  $s$  is bounded above by the number of voting districts, say  $n$ , and so only  $n$  stages of Eq.(2) are necessary.

## 2.2 The beta-like survival function

The *beta-like function* [NC08, MAB<sup>+</sup>09], see Eq. (7) below, is a discrete version of the beta distribution [JKB95], which has been shown to be a very good fit for a variety of rank-ordered data distributions. Here we propose the similar *beta-like survival function*, which is derived from Eq. (4) using specific attrition function introduced in Eq. (5) below. In [NC08], an argument is given that relates the beta-like function to a multinomial multiplicative process, while here we show that it can be derived as a direct consequence of the multiplicative process introduced in Section 2 with the attrition function in Eq. (5).

We now derive the beta-like survival function from Eq. (4) by introducing the following attrition function, which is a mixture of rank-dependent and rank-independent attrition:

$$\mu(i, s) = \frac{\alpha}{i + \kappa} + \frac{\beta}{s}, \quad (5)$$

where  $\alpha, \beta$  and  $\kappa$  are positive constants, and  $i \leq s$ .

In the context of the generative model introduced in Section 2, the rank-dependent component  $\alpha/(i + \kappa)$  in Eq. (5) models *preferential attrition*, i.e. the potential loss of a vote is dependent on the rank  $i$  of the district, where  $i \leq s$ . On the other hand, the rank-independent

component  $\beta/s$  models *uniform attrition* at stage  $s$ , where we note that  $s$  is bounded above by the number of voting districts  $n$ .

Preferential attrition might occur, for instance, because a district's rank in terms of its Brexit vote share may exert a contextual effect on the voting decisions of its constituent individuals; or may attract voters to move from other districts with similar political characteristics; or may produce an increased supply of local election volunteers. All these could produce positive feedback.

Thus, from Eq. (4), it follows that the survival function is given by

$$\begin{aligned} f(i, s) &= \exp\left(\alpha \ln\left(\frac{\kappa}{i + \kappa}\right) + \beta \ln\left(1 - \frac{i}{s}\right)\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{\kappa}{i + \kappa}\right)^\alpha \left(1 - \frac{i}{s}\right)^\beta. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

We call  $f(i, s)$  the *beta-like survival function*, motivated by the following argument.

Letting  $K = \kappa^\alpha s^{-\beta}$  and assuming that  $\kappa$  is much smaller than  $i$ , Eq. (6) can be approximated by

$$f(i, s) \approx K i^{-\alpha} (s - i)^\beta, \quad (7)$$

which is the beta-like function proposed in [NC08]; we note that we obtain the *Lavalette function* in the special case when  $\alpha = \beta$  [FMY<sup>+</sup>16].

Therefore, the multiplicative process presented in Section 2 provides a direct and intuitive generative model for the beta-like function. In contrast, the multinomial multiplicative process described in [NC08] is indirectly linked to the beta-like function via a stretched exponential [LS98] derived by ranking the components of a multinomial distribution, and only afterwards fitting a beta-like function.

We crystallise Eq. (6) by fixing  $\kappa = 0.5$  and including a scaling constant  $C$  for normalisation purposes, so that

$$f(i, s) = C \left(\frac{0.5}{i + 0.5}\right)^\alpha \left(1 - \frac{i}{s}\right)^\beta. \quad (8)$$

The justification for fixing  $\kappa$  is that its sole purpose in Eq. (5) is to prevent the first term being undefined when  $i = 0$ ; setting  $\kappa = 0.5$  seems sensible since, when  $i$  is large, the precise value of  $\kappa$  is rather unimportant.

It can be seen that the beta-like survival function in Eq. (8) combines two regimes. The second term exhibits a polynomial decay, whereas the first term, which dominates when  $i$  is significantly less than  $s$ , exhibits power-law behaviour. In terms of Eq. (5), the preferential attrition component gives rise to the power-law regime, while the uniform attrition component gives rise to the polynomial decay regime.

We define a linear transformation  $f^*(i, s)$  of  $f(i, s)$  as follows:

$$f^*(i, s) = \tau f(i, s) + \rho = \tau \left(\frac{0.5}{i + 0.5}\right)^\alpha \left(1 - \frac{i}{s}\right)^\beta + \rho, \quad (9)$$

where the scaling constant  $C$  from Eq. (8) is absorbed into the *slope* parameter  $\tau$ , and  $\rho$  is the *shift* parameter.

### 3 Analysis of the UK 2016 EU referendum results

We now make use of the rank-ordering distribution and the beta-like survival function, as introduced in Section 2, to analyse the Remain and Leave votes in the 2016 EU referendum for the 382 Local Authority districts in the UK (we will often refer to these simply as districts); the full set of electoral results is available online at The Electoral Commission web site [Ele16]. We first show how to apply our model in the context of a referendum.

#### 3.1 Application of the model to the analysis of referendum results

We consider a multiple-choice question referendum with several options, where the votes are aggregated over the whole electorate [LeD02]. In particular, the voting takes place across the country in a designated number of Local Authority districts.

We make use of the rank-ordering technique [SKKV96] in the context of a *voter model* [FLL17] as follows. Focusing on one particular answer to the referendum question, we model the proportion of votes  $V_i$  attained for that answer in district  $i$ , where  $i$  represents the *rank* of the district and  $0 \leq V_i \leq 1$ . Thus, ordering the districts in descending order of the proportion of votes, we obtain the *votes vector*  $(V_i) = (V_0, V_1, \dots)^T$ , where:

$$V_0 > V_1 > V_2 > \dots > V_i > \dots . \quad (10)$$

District 0 is a “dummy” district with  $V_0 = 1$ . In the unlikely event that two districts have exactly the same proportion of votes, their order is chosen randomly.

The votes vector is analogous to the empirical survival function  $\hat{S}(\cdot)$  [KK12], where  $V_i$ , which corresponds to  $\hat{S}(i)$ , can be viewed as an estimate of the expected proportion of the popular vote in district  $i$ , given that  $V_{i-1}$  was the proportion in district  $i-1$ ; cf. the *Kaplan-Meier estimator* [KM58, KK12] in the context of survival models. In the context of the voter model, we see that  $\hat{S}(i) \approx f(i, n)$ , where  $n$ , the final stage, is equal to the number of voting districts.

The rank-ordering of the districts, as in Eq. (10), can be simulated by the multiplicative process described in Section 2, where  $i$  corresponds to the  $i$ th highest ranked district. An appropriate attrition function  $\mu(i, s)$  is used, which is usually decreasing in  $i$ . In terms of the voter model, as we consider less popular districts for the given answer, i.e. those of lower “rank” (remembering that a lower rank is represented by a higher district number), more votes are “lost”.

As noted earlier, Britain voted to leave the European Union on 23 June 2016. This result surprised pollsters and commentators. Aggregate analysis subsequently showed that education was the strongest socio-demographic predictor of the vote [GH16]. Multi-level analysis of individual data revealed that this was mainly due to the compositional effect of less-educated people voting Leave, but also because of a contextual effect, whereby those with a degree living in areas with lower average education tended to have their opinions shaped by their community and conversely. In many elections, local campaign effects are likewise important: areas with particular social characteristics tend to be targeted or avoided by parties, and tend to produce a larger or smaller supply of local volunteers. Populist right parties, for example, focus their resources on whiter, less educated districts, which also produce more volunteers. We know from the British Election Study that, when people are

contacted by a party, they are more likely - all other things being equal - to have voted for that party [FGE<sup>+</sup>16]. Thus contextual effects enhance political supply, which contributes to further positive feedback and nonlinear vote distributions over location. Taking account of this clustering within the geographic distribution of both independent and dependent variables helps improve model fit in aggregate election analyses.

We also note that the effect of the community on the individual’s decision making has been studied in terms of a threshold effect in models of opinion spreading [BNH17]. An earlier paper [Chw99] dealing with collective action considers the case where an individual will participate only if the total number of participants is above the individual’s threshold.

In Subsection 3.2, using nonlinear least squares regression, we fit beta-like survival functions  $f(i, s)$  to the referendum results vectors  $(V_i)$  for both the entire UK and Scotland, and in Subsection 3.3 we investigate how the beta-like survival function can be used to associate regional covariates with the referendum data. We use subscripts  $U$  and  $S$  to denote the UK and Scotland, respectively, for example,  $f_U(i, s)$  and  $f_S(i, s)$ . All the computations were carried out using the Matlab software package.

### 3.2 Analysis of the referendum results using the beta-like survival function

The overall result for the entire UK electorate was 48.11% for Remain and 51.89% for Leave. The fitted parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $C$  for the UK regional referendum results as a whole, together with the coefficient of determination  $R^2$  [Mot95] are shown in Table 3.2. As can be seen, the power-law exponent  $\alpha$  for Leave is significantly lower than that for Remain, while the decay exponent  $\beta$  for Leave is somewhat higher than that for Remain. This may indicate that the proportions of votes for Leave were more “stable” across the country than those for Remain. In other words, it is feasible that positive feedback driven by contextual effects on individual vote choice mattered more in Remain than Leave areas. Both  $R^2$  values are very high, indicating very good fits of the beta-like survival function to the data.

Option	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$C$	$R^2$
Leave	0.0357	0.2094	0.7801	0.9913
Remain	0.1286	0.1244	1.0740	0.9930

Table 1: Nonlinear least-squares regression fitting the beta-like survival function  $f_U(i, s)$  to the empirical results vector  $(V_i)_U$  of the regional results for the UK EU referendum.

We now consider the results over the 32 Local Authority districts in Scotland, which, in contrast to the UK as a whole, had a majority of 62% for Remain. The fitted parameters for Scotland are shown in Table 3.2 together with the  $R^2$  values, which again indicate very good fits. As for the overall UK results, the proportions of votes for Leave were more “stable” than those for Remain, despite the different overall result. The fitted curves and data points for the districts, for both the entire UK and Scotland, are shown graphically in Figure 1.

We further compare the regional patterns for the UK and Scotland by introducing linear transformations  $f^*(i, s)$  of the beta-like survival functions, as in Eq. (9), using the fitted parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $C$  given in Tables 3.2 and 3.2. Using least squares approximation, we then fit the transformed function  $f_S^*(i, s)$  for Scotland to the referendum results vector  $(V_i)_U$  for the UK. The resulting *shift* and *slope* parameters,  $\rho$  and  $\tau$ , together with the  $R^2$  values



Option	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$C$	$R^2$
Leave	0.0322	0.1540	0.4984	0.9765
Remain	0.0848	0.0333	0.8274	0.9822

Table 2: Nonlinear least-squares regression fitting the beta-like survival function  $f_S(i, s)$  to the empirical vector  $(V_i)_S$  of the regional results for the Scottish EU referendum.

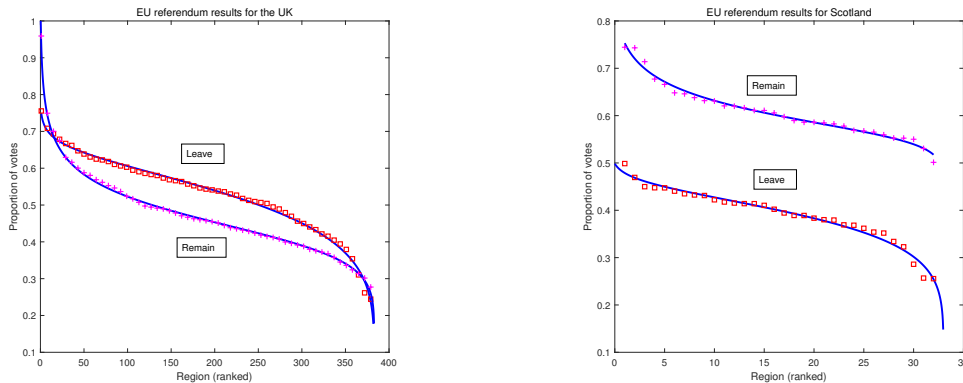


Figure 1: Regression curve and regional data points for the UK (left) and for Scotland (right).

are shown in Table 3.2. Similarly, Table 3.2 shows the result of fitting  $f_U^*(i, s)$  to  $(V_i)_S$ . The linear transformations demonstrate that, although the overall results for the UK as a whole and Scotland were very different, as can be seen in Figure 1, the patterns for the regional proportions for the UK and Scotland are linearly related for both Leave and Remain. The extreme results in Figure 1 suggest that positive feedback is operating, whether through contextual effects (see [GH16]) or selective migration of those with pro-Leave or pro-Remain characteristics toward districts where they are already concentrated.

Data	<i>shift</i>	<i>slope</i>	$R^2$
Leave	-0.1538	0.9428	0.9937
Remain	-0.4935	1.5993	0.9871

Table 3: The *shift* and *slope* parameters,  $\rho$  and  $\tau$ , fitting  $f_S^*(i, s)$  to  $(V_i)_U$ .

### 3.3 Analysis of four covariates with the beta-like survival function

We now outline the methodology of how covariates may be used in association with the referendum results. The dependent variable for this analysis is Leave vote share in a Local Authority district. This is regressed on 2011 census data [ONS13], also given as percentages.

The most common method employed for such an analysis is linear regression, although generalised linear models are recommended when the distribution of the dependent variable may not be normal and may not vary linearly with the independent variables [FWS06].

Data	<i>shift</i>	<i>slope</i>	$R^2$
Leave	0.0876	0.4092	0.9941
Remain	0.3213	0.4853	0.9742

Table 4: The *shift* and *slope* parameters,  $\rho$  and  $\tau$ , fitting  $f_U^*(i, s)$  to  $(V_i)_S$ .

To demonstrate how our rank-order distribution may be used for explanatory purposes, we outline a baseline methodology using a single covariate. Our methodology is as follows, where  $\gamma$  denotes a covariate.

- (i) We first order  $\gamma_i$ , for districts  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , in descending order, where  $\gamma_0 = 1$  for the dummy district 0, in order to obtain the empirical covariate vector  $(\gamma_i)$ .
- (ii) We then use nonlinear least-squares regression to fit a beta-like survival function  $g(i, s)$  to the vector  $(\gamma_i)$  from (i); this gives the fitted parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $C$ , as in Eq. (8).
- (iii) We now use linear regression to fit the transformed beta-like survival function  $g^*(i, s)$ , with the values of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $C$  obtained in (ii), to the votes vector  $(V_i)$  of the Leave results of the referendum. This yields the corresponding *shift* and *slope* parameters,  $\rho$  and  $\tau$ , respectively, as in Eq. (9). Since voters had only two choices, we could equivalently choose to regress on the Remain results.

As a proof of concept, we chose four census covariates, which the literature suggests may be associated with the Leave vote: “White-qualification”, which represents the average qualification level of the white British population in a district (excluding Scotland); “Identify-as-English”, which represents the share of White British people in a district identifying as English rather than British, Irish or Welsh (excluding Scotland and Wales); “Social-grade”, which represents the average occupational level of the White British population in a district (excluding Scotland); and “Carstairs-index”, which represents the Carstairs deprivation index in a district (excluding Scotland) [MB06]. The Carstairs index of multiple deprivation, developed by Paul Norman, is an index of four components from the census. Namely, proportion of residents without cars, male unemployed, low status occupational groups and overcrowded households. Social grades (AB, C1, C2, DE) and qualification levels (none, 1, 2, apprenticeship, 3, 4 and above) were encoded and averaged to obtain an index for each Local Authority district.

As an exploratory step, we show, in Figure 2, a scatter plot of the proportion of votes against the covariate values. These exhibit good correlation for all the covariates apart from the Carstairs-index. The actual Pearson and Spearman correlations and the linear regression parameters, i.e. the *shift* and *slope*, are given in Table 3.3. We note that White-qualification has a negative correlation with the proportion of Leave votes, and that for the Carstairs-index a weighted least squares linear regression [FWS06] was applied to obtain the *shift* and *slope*. We further note that, as expected, the  $R^2$  value for the Carstairs-index is significantly lower than for the others, even though the  $R^2$  values for the other three covariates are not particularly high.

In Table 3.3 we see the fitted parameters to the beta-like survival function for each of the four covariates together with their  $R^2$  values, which indicate a very good fit for all covariates.

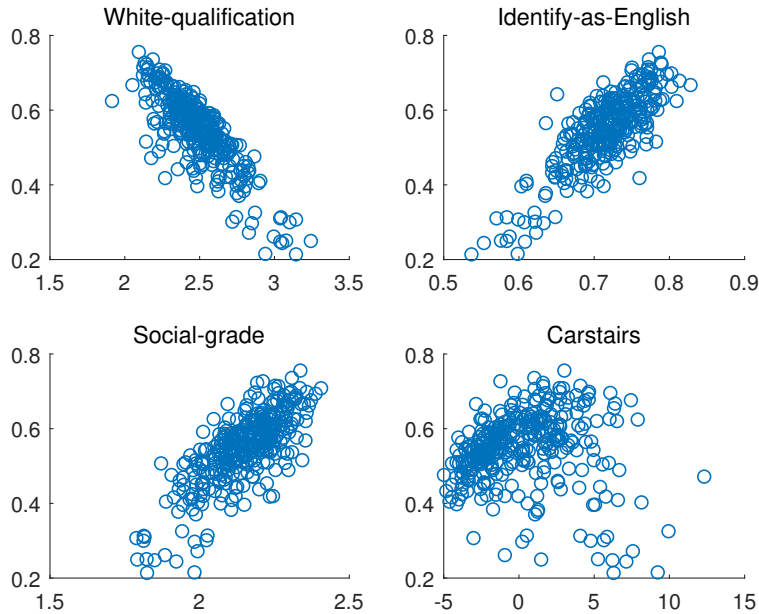


Figure 2: Scatter plots for the four chosen covariates; the y-values represent the proportion of Leave votes for a district and the x-values represent the values of the covariate for the district.

Covariate	Pearson	Spearman	<i>shift</i>	<i>slope</i>	$R^2$
White-qualification	-0.8340	-0.7876	1.5335	-0.3971	0.6955
Identify-as-English	0.8139	0.7375	-0.6730	1.7063	0.6624
Social-grade	0.7602	0.7171	-0.7904	0.6226	0.5779
Carstairs-index	0.0267	0.2664	0.5639	0.0120	0.4161

Table 5: Pearson and Spearman correlation between the proportion of votes and the covariate values per district, and the parameters obtained from their linear regression.

In Table 3.3 we give the fitted parameters for the linear transformation according to Eq. (9), together with their  $R^2$  values, which indicate a very good fit for all covariates, apart from the Carstairs index where  $R^2$  is less than 0.9. We observe from Table 3.3 that the  $R^2$  values are much higher than the ones in Table 3.3, indicating that our methodology using beta-like survival functions may yield better predictive models than traditional ones based on linear regression of the raw covariate data.

Future research could examine how the deployment of beta-like survival functions, of the form we have outlined, might be used to generate nonlinear predictive models that could yield superior election predictions to the linear regression models currently used by election forecasters [Sil12].

Covariate	$\alpha$	$\beta$	$C$	$R^2$
White-qualification	0.0548	0.0370	3.4830	0.9964
Identify-as-English	0.0200	0.0559	0.8414	0.9966
Social-grade	0.0189	0.0441	2.4870	0.9950
Carstairs-index	0.1620	0.6626	19.860	0.9972

Table 6: Nonlinear least-squares regression fitting of a beta-like survival function to the empirical covariate vectors of the four covariates.

Covariate	<i>shift</i>	<i>slope</i>	$R^2$
White-qualification	-0.7267	1.6540	0.9911
Identify-as-English	-0.9493	1.7610	0.9920
Social-grade	-1.2060	2.0300	0.9906
Carstairs-index	0.3913	0.5879	0.8576

Table 7: The *shift* and *slope* parameters from the linear transformation of the beta-like functions of the four covariates to the empirical votes vector.

## 4 Concluding remarks

Most phenomena in the social sciences are not normally distributed across geographical units because individuals and contexts influence each other. Contextual and selection effects lead to positive feedback loops that produce extreme geographic concentrations of both social characteristics and political opinions/behaviour.

We model the UK EU regional referendum results with a multiplicative decrease process, using an attrition function, that gives rise to a rank-order distribution representing the proportion of votes for a particular answer in each district. The discrete model is approximated by a continuous one leading to the solution given in Eq. (4), which is identical to that of the renewal equation in population dynamics [Cha94].

We suggest that nonlinear social models of aggregate voting behaviour can outperform linear models. The beta-like survival function, obtained using an attrition function that is a mixture of preferential and uniform attrition mechanisms, is shown to generate an improved model for the UK EU referendum results. Our results fit in well with the results in [MAB<sup>+</sup>09], where the beta-like function was shown to exhibit universal behaviour for rank-order distributions in several apparently unrelated disciplines.

We have also shown that the beta-like survival function could be instrumental in building a predictive model of the referendum results through a judicious choice of covariates. The methodology we presented in Subsection 3.3 may be used in tandem with traditional regression methods [FWS06] and may, in fact, have some advantages as rank-order distributions are very good at smoothing the data.

More research needs to be done on the methodology for working with rank-order distributions and, in particular, with the beta-like survival function, due to its hypothesised universality. In particular, devising principled regression methods that combine the covariates through multiple regression [FWS06] would be useful. It is also worth considering other

transformations, apart from the linear transformation in Eq. (9), which could potentially improve the predictive power of the model. Aggregate models of voting are important for understanding electoral geography, inferring individual-level relationships in the absence of individual data, and for predicting election results in majoritarian systems. Our nonlinear modelling technique, based on rank-ordering outcome and predictor variables, helps advance scholarship in these areas of political science.

## Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank the reviewer for constructive comments, which helped us to improve the paper.

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