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Party Politics: A Contest Perspective*

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Abstract

Intra-party contests, such as the US primaries, are often used to select a candidate for a subsequent cross-party election. A more accurate selection may improve the quality of the candidate but detract more resources from the subsequent campaign. We model this trade-off as a problem of contest design and show that extreme accuracy levels are optimal: maximum accuracy if the potential candidates are sufficiently heterogeneous, and a highly random selection otherwise. Our result explains varying primary designs on a local as well as global level and sheds light upon the paradox of limited competition within a party.

KEYWORDS: CONTEST DESIGN, DECISIVENESS, COLLECTIVE ACTION, ELECTIONS

JEL CODES: C72, D72

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1 Introduction

Most democratic systems are based upon free competition between political parties. Yet, when we turn to the inner structure of parties, we find a different picture, namely that competition might be restricted within a party. The internal structure and their constitutional specifications, in particular the competition within parties, varies widely not only globally but locally. A simple comparison of political parties across Germany clarifies that there is a local variety of party structures. The German constitution only requires that political parties “uphold democratic principles”. Thus, there is no formal requirement of competition within political parties: The Socialist Democratic Party of Germany voted by membership decision on their leadership in 2019. In contrast, the Christian Democratic Union leader was chosen by an internal party board. The comparison to the United States illustrates the global variation. Similar to Germany the constitution remains silent with respect to the competition within political parties. However, the major parties in the US, the Republican Party and the Democratic Party, both use a primary to select their leader.

In the following, we analyze the reasons and effects of the variation in internal party competition. At first, it may seem paradoxical that *democratic* parties may “limit” the extent of democracy within their party structure. However, as we argue this paradox resolves once strategic benefits are taken into account. Thus, this study attempts to provide a rationale for seemingly “autocratic parties”. We aim to establish a model which captures the intra-perspective of a party and links it to the inter-party perspective, i.e., the general election. In particular, we analyze the trade-off between selection quality of candidates and a primary’s intensity. A more accurate selection may improve the quality of the candidate but detract more resources from the subsequent campaign because of increased contest intensity. Our results clearly indicate that a party only implements a primary if its members are sufficiently heterogeneous, else it is optimal to decide autocratically. In addition, we show that the optimal primary design does not depend on the incumbent’s strength, but on party resources, party members’ independence, as well as politicians’ careerism.

We extend our baseline model in various ways by discussing among other things the effect of number of parties, number of candidates within a party and informational asymmetries. Lastly, we discuss the role of polarization within and between parties. We show that our model and basic mechanism nicely fits the problem of a party board serving two audiences: On one hand, the entire electorate which influences the general election. On the other hand, the party members who influence the primary outcome. By varying the design of the primary, a party board takes the interdependence of these two audiences into account.

Several economic studies have extensively explored the competition between political

parties. Surprisingly, in this strand of literature “parties” often are treated as a unitary actor. Moreover, the existing economic literature assumes that parties necessarily hold a primary. There is general paucity of studies which investigate the intra-perspective of a party and relate it to the inter-perspective of competing parties. What remains unclear is precisely how political parties structure their inner competition, and why such a variety of party politics exists. Although, within the literature on contest theory there is increasing interest in group contest, this research strand remains silent on peculiarities of contest applications. Previous studies most often consider the political arena as one example out of many, without taking into account the underlying differences in contests.

We argue that a party implements an intra-party contest, i.e., a primary, to appoint the most skilled member as leader and/or presidential candidate.¹ Thus, a primary is akin to a promotional contest of any other organisation. However, a primary is distinct from a standard promotional contest with respect to two characteristics: First, the contestants of the primary are usually already members of the party, i.e., no outsider takes part in a party’s primary. Consequently, party’s resources for the general election, in the following also described as inter-party contest, are always at least indirectly affected by the effort choice of its members. Second, the connection between a primary and a general election entails the key trade-off of choosing between high decisiveness leading to a high skilled member becoming party leader but also implying an exhaustive primary and consequently diminished budget for the general election. Therefore, whereas a contest designer of a standard promotional tournament finds the maximum decisiveness within the tournament optimal, a decisive primary might actually decrease the chances of winning the general election.

The remainder of this article is structured as follows: We begin by reviewing the related literature as well as specifying our contribution there in. In Section 3 we then go on to introduce a simple model of an intra- and inter-party contest. Subsequently, we discuss the peculiarities of the intra-party contest before analyzing the inter-party contest in Section 5. Afterwards, we introduce several extensions and discuss the implications of our assumptions. Lastly, we conclude by giving several real world examples our model applies to.

2 Related Literature

First and foremost, we contribute to the literature on contest design and theory. Our model design starts from a simple Tullock contest (see Tullock 1980). We focus on the accuracy parameter of the contest success function, also referred to as decisiveness or

¹In some parties there is a formal difference between party leader and presidential candidate. Nevertheless, usually a party leader also becomes presidential candidate. Thus, in the following we assume that a party leader is also the party’s presidential candidate.

discriminatory parameter, which is extensively discussed among others in Nti (2004), Alcalde & Dahm (2010), Wang (2010), Yildirim (2015), and Ewerhart (2017b).² In contrast to the existing literature, we explore the decision of the contest designer when she faces a trade-off between accuracy and intensity of the contest. Thus, we analyze an optimal accuracy choice problem, where the contest itself serves as a selection mechanism.

On the empirical side, Winfree (2021) relates to our research as he analyzes the accuracy choices of a sports league designer, when selection quality may be harmful or beneficial to the contest designer. Lacomba et al. (2017) experimentally analyze the effect of accuracy (they refer to decisiveness) of heterogeneous endowed contestants in a conflict. They find that higher contest accuracy leads to a more peaceful outcome. Contrary to the present paper, Lacomba et al. (2017) analyze the difference between two extreme levels of accuracy, without asking for the optimal accuracy design. Similarly to our research, Lacomba et al. (2017) emphasize the trade-off of resources versus contest intensity influenced by accuracy concerns. They argue that accuracy is an important tool to circumvent costly conflict.

Secondly, we add to the rapidly growing literature on group contests (see e.g. Choi et al. 2016). The trade-off we analyze occurs as an intra-group contest affects the outcome of the inter-group contest. Thus, a team chooses different intra-team competition designs because in a later stages it faces an opposing team. To the best of our knowledge we are the first ones to analyze the accuracy parameter in a group contest perspective. Most intra-group contests are held because of differences in contestants heterogeneity. Therefore, contestants heterogeneity is fundamental to our model as this is the reason for a contest designer to implement an intra-team contest. For example, Berger & Nieken (2016) illustrate that the contest intensity decreases with heterogeneity of contestants.

Furthermore, we contribute to the literature of political processes, in specific the intra-perspective of political parties. The economic literature is scarce in this regard. To name some exceptions which are most related to our research: Bhattacharya & Rampal (2019) analyze a group contest with differing group size and strength, but refrain from motivating the intra-group contest. Crutzen et al. (2020) analyze the effects of varying prize structures in the intra-group contest and relate their findings to open and closed list representation within parties. Whereas their model captures different designs of intra-party competition, their research does not include any heterogeneity of contestants. Sheremeta (2010) conducts an experiment where he tests a theoretical model of party competition. In particular, he studies the effect of carry-over from primaries to general election as well as the number of candidates. The common ground of these studies is that parties necessarily use a primary, i.e., intra-party contest, to select their candidates. In contrast, our research focuses on the endogenous decision concerning a primary's design.

Within the political science research, Serra (2011) proposes a theoretical framework

²An extensive literature overview is given by Mealem & Nitzan (2016).

and argues that parties implement primaries to reveal candidates' abilities. In addition, Serra (2011) relates the internal structure of parties to the ideology of members. Another aspect regarding internal party structures are party unity and member participation. Kernell (2015) empirically analyzes the effect of differing party rules on members participation. This research suggest that an authoritarian selection of candidates, i.e., using no intra-party contest, increases participation of partisans. In addition, Scarrow (2021) and Tromborg (2021) stress the interdependence of intra-party contest rules and party unity.

3 Model

We consider the political competition between two parties $P \in \{A, B\}$ as a sequential game with three stages. At the first stage, the board of each party designs a primary election. In these intra-party contests, which take place at the second stage, two applicants with heterogeneous qualifications compete against each other to become the party's candidate for the subsequent general election. At the third stage, the general election takes place as an inter-party contest between the two selected candidates.³

Before we specify the three stages of the game more formally and in reversed order, let us briefly describe the basic trade-off the model represents. A candidate's success in the general election depends on both, her qualification (ability, motivation) and her available resources. Each party board maximizes the winning probability of its candidate in the general election by designing its primary election. A design that improves the selection quality may, however, also intensify intra-party competition during the primary such that less resources are left for inter-party competition during the general election.

3.1 Third Stage: The General Election

At the third stage, the general election takes place. It is modeled as an inter-party lottery contest between the two selected candidates. The candidate of party $P \in \{A, B\}$ with qualification $v^P = 1/c^P$ chooses the investment y^P in order to maximize the probability of winning the election

$$\pi^P = \frac{y^P}{y^P + y^Q} \quad (1)$$

subject to the constraint that the investment costs $c^P y^P$ must not exceed the party's remaining budget B^P . We assume that the remaining budget equals the party's initial resources R^P less the applicants' aggregate investments I^P during the intra-party contest, i.e., during the primary election at the second stage: $B^P = R^P - I^P$.

³For simplicity, we restrict the analysis of the baseline model to two parties and two applicants each. We discuss extensions to more parties or applicants in Section 6.1.

3.2 Second Stage: The Primary Election

At the second stage, a primary election takes place in each party. It is modeled as an intra-party Tullock contest between two members of that party. The two competing applicants $i \in \{1, 2\}$ in party $P \in \{A, B\}$ may differ in their qualification (ability, motivation) $v_i^P = 1/c_i^P$, expressed by the inverse of their constant marginal investment cost $c_i^P \in [1, \infty)$. The winning probability of applicant $i \in \{1, 2\}$ in party $P \in \{A, B\}$ is given by the contest success function (CSF)

$$p_i^P = \begin{cases} \frac{(x_i^P)^{r_P}}{\sum_{j=1}^2 (x_j^P)^{r_P}}, & \text{if } X^P := \sum_{j=1}^2 x_j^P > 0, \\ 1/2, & \text{if } X^P = \sum_{j=1}^2 x_j^P = 0, \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where x_i^P denotes the effort of applicant i , X^P denotes aggregate effort and r_P denotes the accuracy level of the contest in party P .⁴

We may interpret the applicants' efforts in a physical sense as money or time they invest during the primaries. These resources are then no longer available for investments into the general election.⁵ In a metaphorical sense, the applicants' aggregate effort may be understood as a measure of intra-party discord/dissent which the electorate dislikes and, hence, reduces the party's prospect during the general election.

We assume that each applicant $i \in \{1, 2\}$ chooses her effort x_i^P in order to maximize her expected payoff from candidacieship in party P

$$Eu_i^P = p_i^P - c_i^P x_i^P \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad EU_i^P = p_i^P v_i^P - x_i^P. \quad (3)$$

This assumption implies a kind of myopic behavior by the applicants as they only value their own success in the primary election but not their party's success probability in the subsequent general election. As we argue below in Section 6, assuming more sophisticated, far-sighted objectives does not fundamentally change the basic trade-off.

3.3 First Stage: The Design of the Primaries

While the design of the general election is usually determined by the constitution in most democracies, such as Germany or the United States, parties can freely choose the way of selecting their candidates. We assume that (the board of) each party designs the primary election in order to maximize success probability in the general election. Notice that the expenses of the party members during the primaries impact both determinants of success

⁴Sometimes, the accuracy level is also referred to as the discriminatory power or decisiveness parameter.

⁵Even though (the investments during) the primaries may lead to positive external effects on a party's success in the subsequent general election by generating publicity/momentum for its candidate and increasing voter turnout, it would be (at least weakly) more efficient to spend these resources directly on the general election campaign (by emphasizing the differences between rather than within parties).

in the general election: the parties' remaining budgets and the expected qualification of the parties' candidates. The two objectives for designing the primaries – selecting the better qualified applicant as the party's candidate and saving as much resources as possible – may, however, be conflicting.

We capture the potential trade-off between selection quality and resource management considering the technology of the intra-party contest, specifically the accuracy level r^P as the respective parameter for party P 's design of the primary election. Low values of r^P imply a noisy, probabilistic CSF and thus result in a highly random selection. Higher values of r^P reduce the noise and improve the selection quality which, however, may come at the cost of higher inputs. With regard to the political arena, we interpret the accuracy level as a measure for the length (time duration) of the primary election campaign or number of respective events: the longer it takes and the more events it involves, the more decisive it becomes but, at the same time, the more resources it may absorb.⁶

3.4 Information Structure and Timeline

How important the selection quality of a primary election actually is, crucially depends to what extent applicants differ in their qualifications. We assume the following information structure: At the beginning of an election period, each applicant $i \in \{1, 2\}$ in party $P \in \{A, B\}$ independently draws her qualification v_i^P . Within each party, the party board and the applicants observe the qualifications of both applicants, but the primary election is the only way to verify these qualifications towards the supporters and legitimate the selected candidate. We normalize $v_1^P = 1$ and denote $v_2^P = w^P \in (0, 1)$.

The timeline of Figure 1 summarizes the events of our model and illustrates the order in which they take place.

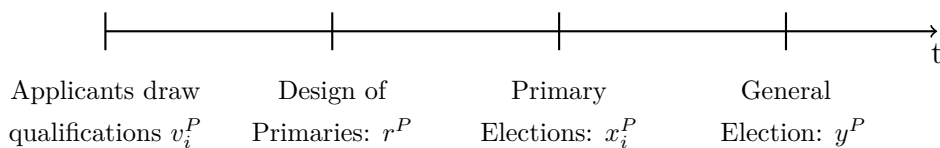


Figure 1: Timeline.

⁶One may argue, for example, that parties in the US design a highly accurate primary, where the quality of each applicant is scrutinized extensively: US primaries are usually held over a longer time period, e.g., the democratic primary in 2020 started on the 3rd of February and ended on the 11th of August. In this time period there were several events such as public broadcasts where applicants competed for voters. Thus, the public accessibility and transparency contributed to our notion of a highly accurate primary design.

4 Analysis

In this section, we analyse the sequential game by backward induction and characterize the basic properties of the subgame perfect equilibrium (SPE).

4.1 Third Stage: General Election

Once the winners of the primary elections are nominated as the parties' candidates, they compete against each other in the general election with their qualifications v^P and remaining budgets $B^P = R^P - I^P$. They choose y^P in order to maximize the success probability π^P as given by equation (1) subject to $y^P c^P \leq B^P$ or, equivalently, $y^P \leq v^P B^P$. Because there is no other use for a party's resources, the budget constraint is binding in equilibrium and the success probability of party $P \in \{A, B\}$ equals

$$\pi^P = \frac{v^P(R^P - I^P)}{v^P(R^P - I^P) + v^Q(R^Q - I^Q)}. \quad (4)$$

4.2 Second Stage: Primary Election

During the primary election of party $P \in \{A, B\}$, each applicant $i \in \{1, 2\}$ chooses the effort x_i that maximizes her expected payoff from candidateship as given by Equation (3).⁷ Depending on the level of accuracy r , three different Nash equilibria may arise (see, e.g. Ewerhart 2017b, Table 1).

First, if $0 \leq r \leq 1 + w^r$ the equilibrium is unique and in pure strategies. It entails the effort levels

$$x_1 = \frac{rw^r}{(1 + w^r)^2} \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = \frac{rw^{r+1}}{(1 + w^r)^2},$$

winning probabilities

$$p_1 = \frac{1}{1 + w^r} \quad \text{and} \quad p_2 = \frac{w^r}{1 + w^r},$$

aggregate effort

$$X = x_1 + x_2 = \frac{rw^r(1 + w)}{(1 + w^r)^2}, \quad (5)$$

and aggregate investment

$$I = c_1 x_1 + c_2 x_2 = \frac{x_1}{v_1} + \frac{x_2}{v_2} = \frac{2rw^r}{(1 + w^r)^2} = \frac{2}{1 + w} X. \quad (6)$$

Second, if $w^r + 1 < r \leq 2$ the equilibrium is unique and in semi-mixed strategies. It

⁷The analysis is the same for both parties. Here and below, we thus omit the superscript P wherever confusion can be excluded.

entails the (expected) effort levels

$$x_1 = \frac{w}{r}(r-1)^{\frac{r-1}{r}} \quad \text{and} \quad E(x_2) = \frac{w^2}{r}(r-1)^{\frac{r-1}{r}},$$

winning probabilities

$$p_1 = 1 - \frac{w}{r}(r-1)^{\frac{r-1}{r}} \quad \text{and} \quad p_2 = \frac{w}{r}(r-1)^{\frac{r-1}{r}},$$

expected aggregate effort

$$E(X) = \frac{w(1+w)}{r}(r-1)^{\frac{r-1}{r}}, \quad (7)$$

and expected aggregate investment

$$E(I) = \frac{2w}{r}(r-1)^{\frac{r-1}{r}} = \frac{2}{1+w}E(X). \quad (8)$$

Notice that in this range, the winning probability of the stronger applicant, p_1 , is an increasing function of r and expected aggregate effort, $E(X)$, is a decreasing function of r .

Finally, for $r > 2$ all equilibria are in mixed-strategies and equivalent to the unique equilibrium of the all-pay auction (APA) with respect to expected efforts, winning probabilities, and payoffs. We call this an APA-equilibrium. It entails the expected effort levels

$$E(x_1) = \frac{w}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad E(x_2) = \frac{w^2}{2},$$

winning probabilities

$$p_1 = 1 - \frac{w}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad p_2 = \frac{w}{2},$$

expected aggregate effort

$$E(X) = \frac{w(1+w)}{2}, \quad (9)$$

and expected aggregate investment

$$E(I) = w = \frac{2}{1+w}E(X). \quad (10)$$

4.3 First Stage: Accuracy Choice

Anticipating the applicants' behavior during the primaries and the candidates' behavior during the general election, the board of each party P chooses the accuracy level for its primary election r^P in order to maximize the own candidate's expected success probability in the general election. Using equation (4), the expected success probability of party A 's

candidate in the general election is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
E(\pi^A) = & p_1^A p_1^B E \left[\frac{(R^A - I^A)}{(R^A - I^A) + (R^B - I^B)} \mid x_1^A \geq x_2^A, x_1^B \geq x_2^B \right] \\
& + p_1^A p_2^B E \left[\frac{(R^A - I^A)}{(R^A - I^A) + w^B(R^B - I^B)} \mid x_1^A \geq x_2^A, x_1^B < x_2^B \right] \\
& + (1 - p_1^A) p_1^B E \left[\frac{w^A(R^A - I^A)}{w^A(R^A - I^A) + (R^B - I^B)} \mid x_1^A < x_2^A, x_1^B \geq x_2^B \right] \\
& + (1 - p_1^A) p_2^B E \left[\frac{w^A(R^A - I^A)}{w^A(R^A - I^A) + w^B(R^B - I^B)} \mid x_1^A < x_2^A, x_1^B < x_2^B \right], \quad (11)
\end{aligned}$$

where $I^P = \frac{2}{1+w^P} X^P$ for $P \in \{A, B\}$ and (conditional) expectations are based on the distributions specifying the (potentially) mixed-strategies in the equilibria of the primaries.

The objective function (11) reflects a complex strategic decision problem. In general, party A 's optimal choice of the accuracy level r^A may not only depend on the exogenous parameters of the model but also on party B 's choice of the accuracy level r^B . We can show, however, that party A 's best response to any choice of r^B will be polarized: it always chooses an accuracy level either above the upper threshold $r^A \geq 2$ or below a lower threshold $r_H < 2$, and so this holds in equilibrium as well.

To see this, notice that X^A and p_1^A do not explicitly depend on r^B . Moreover, $\partial E(\pi^A)/\partial X^A < 0$ and $\partial E(\pi^A)/\partial p_1^A > 0$ for all r^B , as straightforward calculations show. For any given r^B , the maximization of $E(\pi^A)$ by the choice of r^A thus entails two (possibly conflicting) objectives: the minimization of aggregate primary effort X^A and the maximization of the strong applicant's selection probability p_1^A . Ewerhart (2017b, Table 1) observes that for any given w^A both, p_1^A and X^A are continuous functions of r^A . While $\partial p_1^A/\partial r^A > 0$ for all $0 \leq r^A < 2$ and $\partial p_1^A/\partial r^A = 0$ for all $r^A \geq 2$ (Ewerhart 2017b, Table 1), aggregate effort X^A is an inverted U-shaped function of r^A with a unique maximum in the region of pure-strategy equilibria where $r^A \leq 1 + (w^A)^{r^A}$ (Sahm 2022, Proposition 2).

The objective function (11) thus entails a trade-off between selection quality and minimum aggregate effort. The work by Sahm (2022) then implies that party A optimally solves this trade-off choosing either an all-pay auction ($r^A \geq 2$) or an accuracy level r^A below the accuracy level r_H that equates aggregate effort in the pure-strategy equilibrium according to equation (5) and expected aggregate effort of the all-pay auction equilibrium according to equation (9):

$$\frac{r(w^A)^r(1+w^A)}{(1+(w^A)r)^2} = \frac{(1+w^A)w^A}{2} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad H(w^A, r) := (1+(w^A)^r)^2 - 2r(w^A)^{r-1} = 0$$

Symmetric arguments also apply to party B . This yields

Proposition 1 *Each party $P \in \{A, B\}$ chooses a polarized design for its primary election: in equilibrium, the accuracy level r^P satisfies either $r^P < r_H(w^P)$ or $r^P \geq 2$.*

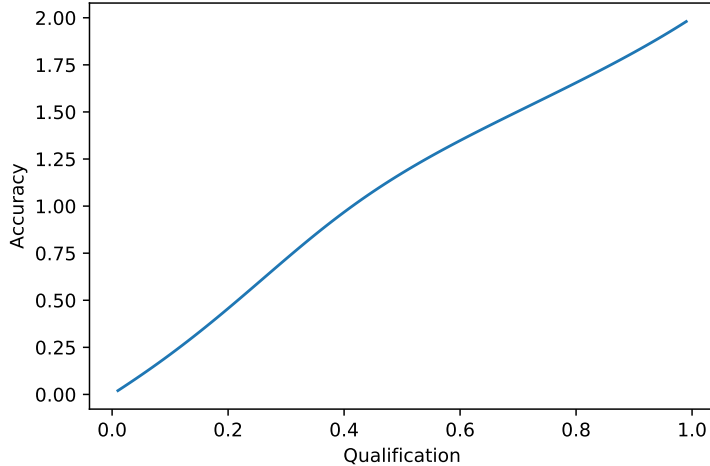


Figure 2: Lower threshold r_H as a function of qualification ratio w^P .

Figure (2) illustrates how the lower threshold r_H depends on the ratio of the applicants' qualifications w^P within the respective party: the graph represents all combinations satisfying $H(w^P, r_H) = 0$. Notice that if it is optimal to choose a low accuracy, r_H is only a rough upper bound for this choice because it yields the same aggregate effort as the all-pay auction but a less precise selection. To compensate for the reduced precision, the optimal accuracy must reduce aggregate effort (not only marginally but) significantly and thus has to be (not only marginally but) significantly smaller than r_H . For instance, if the two candidates of party P have the same qualification ($w^P = 1$), obviously, a purely random primary is optimal, i.e., $r^P = 0 \ll 2 = r_H(1)$. The examples of the following section illustrate that such a complete polarization is rather the rule than an exception.

5 Competing against an Incumbent

To further illustrate the basic trade-off between maximum selection quality and minimum aggregate effort in the primary election and determine the optimal choice of the respective accuracy level, we now restrict the analysis to party A competing against an incumbent from party B . As before, party A uses a primary election to select one of two applicants $i \in \{1, 2\}$ as its candidate in the subsequent general election. Instead, party $B = IN$ forgoes the primary election and directly nominates the incumbent as its candidate for the general election.⁸ The assumption applies, e.g., to the US election system where the

⁸An alternative interpretation would be that the incumbent party only designs a primary election “pro forma”, to officially nominate the only applicant as their candidate.

incumbent president is usually also the party's nominee for the upcoming general election whenever possible.

We assume that both, the incumbent's qualification v^{IN} and resources R^{IN} are commonly known. Accordingly, party A 's objective function (11) reduces to:

$$E(\pi^A) = p_1^A E \left[\frac{(R^A - \frac{2X^A}{1+w^A})}{(R^A - \frac{2X^A}{1+w^A}) + v^{IN} R^{IN}} \mid x_1^A \geq x_2^A \right] + (1 - p_1^A) E \left[\frac{w^A (R^A - \frac{2X^A}{1+w^A})}{w^A (R^A - \frac{2X^A}{1+w^A}) + v^{IN} R^{IN}} \mid x_1^A < x_2^A \right] \quad (12)$$

In the first subsection, we fix $v^{IN} R^{IN} = 1$ and numerically determine party A 's optimal choice of the accuracy level as a function of the qualification ratio w^A of its applicants. In the second subsection, we examine how this optimal choice reacts to variations of the incumbent's qualification and budget on the one hand, and party A 's own budget on the other hand.

5.1 Numerical solution

According to Proposition 1, the optimal accuracy level r^A satisfies either $r^A < r_H(w^A)$ or $r^A \geq 2$. We first determine the optimal *low* accuracy level, i.e., the accuracy level r^A that maximizes (12) subject to $r^A < r_H(w^A)$. We then compare the resulting expected success probability $E(\pi^A)$ with the expected success probability that results from choosing a *high* accuracy level $r^A \geq 2$.

5.1.1 Optimal low accuracy level

Figure 3 illustrates the optimal low accuracy level r^A as a function of the qualification ratio w^A . If this ratio exceeds a threshold level $\tilde{w} \approx 0.32$, the optimal low accuracy is $r^A = 0$. Put differently, if the applicants' qualifications are sufficiently close, a purely random selection of the candidate is optimal as it preserves all the party's resources for the subsequent general election. For more heterogeneous qualifications $w^A < \tilde{w}$, however, the optimal low accuracy is positive, $0 < r^A < r_H(w^A)$. Investing some resources then pays off to achieve a more accurate selection of the strong candidate.

5.1.2 Comparison of optimal low and high accuracy level

The pink line in Figure 4 depicts the expected success probability $E(\pi^A)$ resulting from the optimal low accuracy level $r^A < r_H(w^A)$ as a function of the qualification ratio w^A of party A 's applicants. It is increasing in w^A because the disadvantage from selecting the weaker applicant is the smaller the less the applicants' qualifications differ.

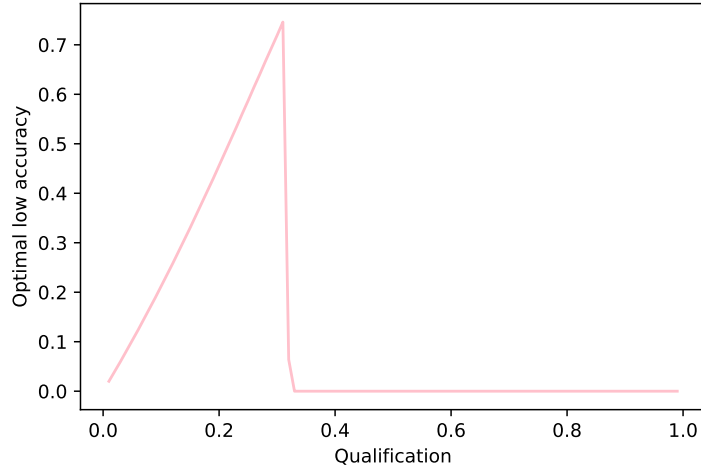


Figure 3: Optimal low accuracy.

Instead, if party A chooses a high accuracy level $r \geq 2$, this implies an APA equilibrium in its primary election. The resulting success probability in the general election is illustrated by the black line in Figure 4. Obviously, it is a decreasing function of the qualification ratio w^A because the primary election absorbs the more resources the closer the contest between party A 's applicants.

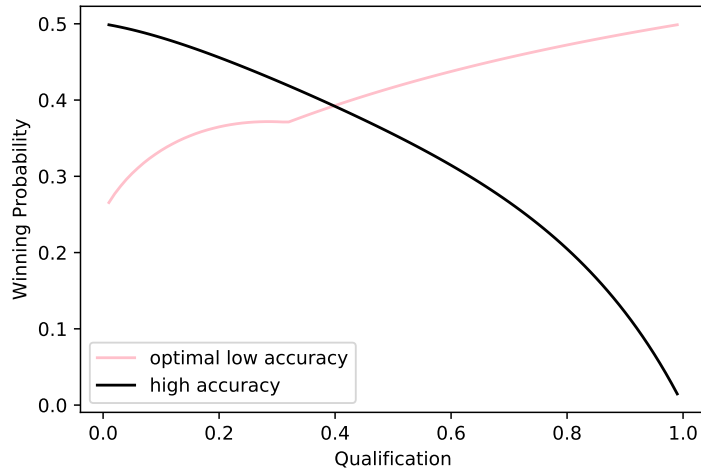


Figure 4: Maximum winning probability.

As Figure 4 shows, the current specification of the model leads to a unique intersection of the pink and the black line at a certain qualification ratio $\hat{w} \approx 0.40$. To the right of this threshold, i.e., for $w^A \geq \hat{w}$, party A maximizes its expected success probability in the general election implementing a primary election with the optimal low accuracy level. Notice, however, that the optimal low accuracy level is $r^A = 0$ in this range since $\hat{w} > \tilde{w}$. By contrast, to the left of the intersection, i.e., for $w^A < \hat{w}$, party A optimally chooses a

high accuracy level $r^A \geq 2$ that implies an APA equilibrium in the primary election. We summarize our observations in

Numerical Result 1 *Competing against an incumbent IN with $v^{IN}R^{IN} = 1$, party A uses a completely polarized primary election: it is optimal to choose*

- (a) *maximum accuracy $r^A \geq 2$ if $w^A < \hat{w}$,*
- (b) *minimum accuracy $r = 0$ if $w^A \geq \hat{w}$.*

These findings are intuitive: For high qualification ratios, saving resources is more important than an accurate selection because the applicants' qualifications are close anyway. Instead, for low qualification ratios, the increased chances of a highly qualified candidate due to more accurate selection offsets the decrease of available resources resulting from an intense primary election.

5.2 Comparative statics

In this section we illustrate how variations of different parameter values effect our results.

5.2.1 Incumbency

We first consider a variation in the strength of the incumbent from party B . Figure 5 illustrates the comparison between party A 's equilibrium winning probabilities facing a weak incumbent, with $v^{IN}R^{IN} = 0.1$, and a strong incumbent, with $v^{IN}R^{IN} = 1$, respectively. Obviously, the expected winning probability, $E(\pi^A)$, increases the weaker the incumbent. However, there is no difference with respect to the optimal primary design of party A . Numerical Result 1 still applies. Regardless of the incumbent's strength, party A faces an equally high threshold level $\hat{w}$ above which it is optimal to refrain from choosing maximum accuracy. Intuitively, party A seeks to maximize its expected impact in the general election regardless of the opponent's strength.

5.2.2 Party resources and independent candidates

By contrast, a change in a party's resources or the independence of its candidates leads to a different optimal primary design, i.e., a change in threshold level $\hat{w}$.

For example, consider a situation in which party A 's initial resources are scarcer. This shifts the emphasis in the trade-off party A faces from high selection quality to low contest intensity: the scarcer the party's budget, the more important becomes a low primary intensity. Figure 6 illustrates the effect of a change in resources regarding the primary design, from high budget, $R^A = 1$, to low budget, $R^A = 0.5$. First, it is straightforward to see that the expected probability of winning, $E(\pi^A)$, decreases with

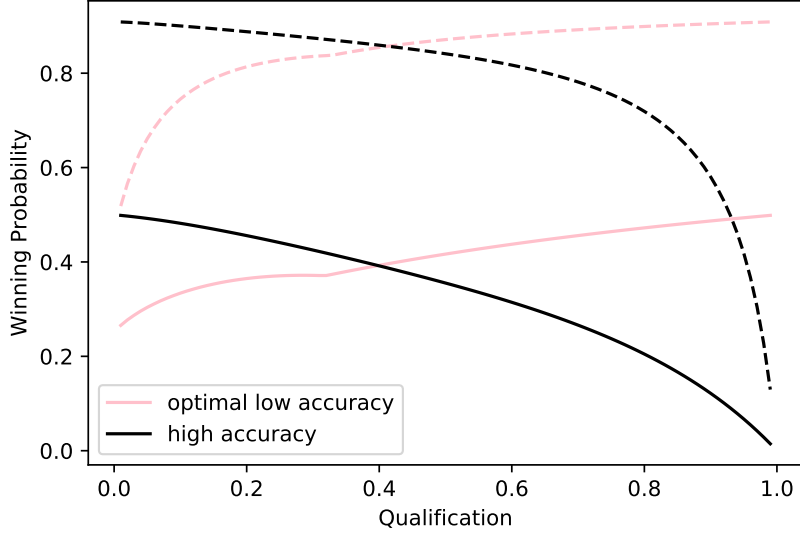


Figure 5: Weak ($v^{IN} R^{IN} = 0.1$, dashed) versus strong ($v^{IN} R^{IN} = 1$, solid) incumbent.

a depletion of resources. Second, also the threshold $\hat{w}$ decreases with the reduction in budget, i.e., $\hat{w}_{R^A=0.5} < \hat{w}_{R^A=1}$. If a party's budget is sufficiently high, a party can afford a high primary intensity to increase selection quality. Vice versa, if the budget is low, a party only implements a decisive primary for very steep qualification differences. Therefore, an increase in the budget leads to an increase in $\hat{w}$.

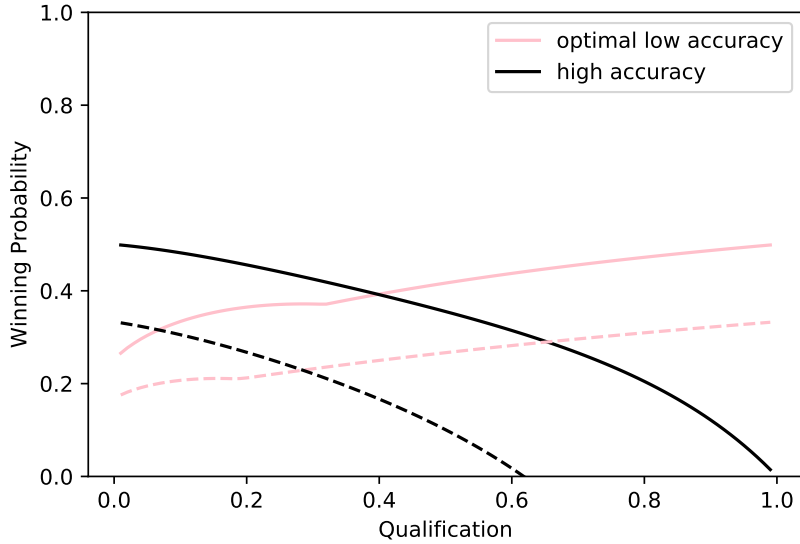


Figure 6: Low budget ($a = 0.5$, dashed) versus high budget ($a = 1$, thick).

A similar argument, which leads to the opposite effect, can be made for primaries where candidates act independent of party resources.⁹ Members' independence of party

⁹We assume that members are treated equally with respect to independence of resources and are

resources can be captured by $\delta \in [0, 1]$:

$$B_A = R^A - \delta(c_1x_1 + c_2x_2)$$

If party members pay by means of their own resources this would mean $\delta \rightarrow 0$. The effect of changes in δ are congruent to changes in R^A . Therefore, with increasing party independence, i.e., $\delta \rightarrow 0$, threshold $\hat{w}$ increases, as the budget is strained less. In the extreme case of complete party independence, $\delta = 0$, it is always optimal for a party to implement a primary with maximum accuracy, as the trade-off between selection quality and contest intensity is eliminated.¹⁰

6 Extensions

We now consider various extensions of our model. We argue that the basic results and mechanism still hold for other model specifications such as a larger number of parties or candidates and different information structures. Moreover, we extend the model to more farsighted applicants who take into account the continuation value of potentially winning the general election after a successful primary. Based on this extension, we illustrate that a reinterpretation of the applicants' cost parameters can explain differences in a primary's accuracy also as a consequence of polarization within parties.

6.1 Multiple Parties and Applicants

We first consider the case of multiple parties and then discuss the case of multiple applicants per party.

6.1.1 Multiple parties

Our baseline model assumes only two parties, which is a valid description of the situation in countries like the U.S. in which, in effect, a two-party system prevails. In many other democracies, however, more than two parties compete in the general election.¹¹ With $n \in \mathbb{N}$ different parties, the probability of party P 's candidate winning the general election

symmetric with respect to own resources.

¹⁰This result explains the global difference in party politics: Because party members mainly pay themselves in the US system when participating in primaries, parties can afford to implement primaries. In the German system, primaries are mainly paid for by the party budget, thus the trade-off is more severe.

¹¹For example, after the general election in 2021, members of eight different parties entered the German parliament (Bundestag) and thus had the right to vote in the election of the Federal Chancellor. Three of the parties nominated an own candidate with a reasonable chance for chancellorship.

becomes

$$\pi^P = \frac{y^P}{y^P + \sum_{j \neq p}^n y^j}. \quad (13)$$

Thus, a larger number of parties will, *ceteris paribus*, increase competition and decrease party P 's winning probability. Similar to the comparative statics of Section 5.2.1, however, the (trade-off determining the) optimal level of a primary's accuracy remains unaffected by the number of competing parties. The intuition is, as above, that a party seeks to maximize its expected impact in the general election regardless of the strength or number of competitors.

6.1.2 Multiple applicants

By nature, intra-party competition often features the dispute between two leading members. And even if there are more applicants initially, in practice, primaries usually boil down to a contest between the two most promising aspirants later on.¹² These situations are well-captured by our model assuming only two applicants per party.

The formal treatment of more than two (heterogeneous) applicants per party faces some technical problems. For $N \in \mathbb{N}$ potential applicants within a party with given qualifications $v_1 \geq v_2 \geq \dots \geq v_N$, a unique pure-strategy Nash equilibrium of the respective primary exists only if $r \leq 1$ (Stein 2002, Cornes & Hartley 2005, Matros 2006). If $r > 1$ but still sufficiently low, several pure-strategy Nash equilibria exist (Ryvkin 2007), even if players are symmetric (Perez-Castrillo & Verdier 1992). For $r \geq 2$, an APA-equilibrium always exists (Alcalde & Dahm 2010), and any (mixed-strategy) Nash equilibrium is an APA-equilibrium if r is sufficiently large (Ewerhart 2017a). For any given $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $r \geq 2$, however, there are qualifications $v_1 \geq v_2 \geq \dots \geq v_N$ such that a non-APA-equilibrium exists as well (Ewerhart 2017a). Thus we are not only confronted with the issue of multiple equilibria. An additional problem is that in the range where multiple equilibria exist, the set of Nash equilibria has not yet been fully characterized in the literature.

One way to circumvent these problems is to restrict the search for an optimal accuracy r to the range of unique equilibria, i.e., $r \leq 1$ or r sufficiently large to enforce an APA-equilibrium. The above analysis of the case with two applicants suggests that this is the relevant range, anyway.

On the one hand, if r is chosen sufficiently large to enforce an APA-equilibrium, only the two strongest applicants are active and the equilibrium values are the same as in the above analysis with only two applicants (Hillman & Riley 1989). On the other hand,

¹²Intra-party elections are often organized in stages. For example, in the U.S. both, the democratic and republican party organize their primaries in the different federal states in a (partially) sequential order. Candidates who are unsuccessful in states with early primaries usually stop their campaign and drop out of the races in later states.

for $r = 1$ Matros (2006) shows that the $K \leq N$ strongest applicants are active in the unique pure-strategy Nash equilibrium, and the number of applicants N (weakly) increases aggregate effort but decreases individual winning probabilities.

A higher number of applicants thus aggravates the trade-off between selection quality and resource dissipation and leads to an even more polarized accuracy choice in the following sense: Whenever an accuracy r that enforces an APA-equilibrium is preferred over any $r \leq 1$ with two applicants, it is, a fortiori, also preferred with more than two applicants. By contrast, if the optimal accuracy with two applicants is some $r^* \leq 1$, then, with more than two applicants, the party board will either find an accuracy r that enforces an APA-equilibrium more preferable or optimally choose some $r^{**} \leq r^*$.

6.2 Alternative Information Structure

The timing of events considered so far (see Figure 1) reflects the implicit assumption that the party board is able to adjust the accuracy in response to realized differences in the applicants' qualification from primary to primary on short notice. In some instances like the U.S., however, longtime habits shape the design of the primaries and changes may arise only in the long run. The alternative timeline of Figure 7, in which the party board chooses the accuracy for its primary before the applicants draw their qualifications, then better captures the true sequence of events. Obviously, the decision on the accuracy of the primary must then be based on the expected rather than the realized differences in the applicants' qualifications. This makes the formal analysis more involved but does not alter the basic trade-off between selection quality and resource dissipation.

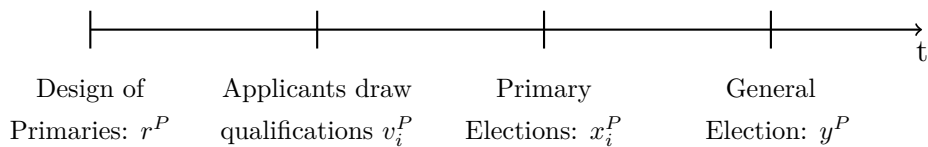


Figure 7: Alternative Timeline.

6.3 Career Concerns and Political Polarization

In this subsection, we consider applicants with career concerns and reinterpret their heterogeneity as a measure of political polarization within their party. To facilitate the analysis, we stick to the case of party A competing against an incumbent with an exogenous impact y^{IN} in the general election. Below, we omit the superscript for the variables of party A .

6.3.1 Career concerns

So far, we assumed that applicants are myopic in the sense that they only value becoming the party's candidate but do not derive any additional utility from the associated possibility to win the subsequent general election and become president. Now assume, by contrast, that applicants have career concerns and (only) value the chance that winning the primary offers them the opportunity to win the subsequent general election as well. Equation (3), which describes applicant 1's expected utility from investing effort x_1 in the primary, thus has to be modified as follows:

$$Eu_1 = p_1\pi_1 - c_1x_1 \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad EU_1 = p_1v_1\pi_1 - x_1, \quad (14)$$

where

$$\pi_1 = \frac{R - c_1x_1 - c_2x_2}{R - c_1x_1 - c_2x_2 + c_1y^{IN}}$$

denotes applicant 1's probability of winning the general election according to equation (4). Analogously,

$$EU_2 = p_2v_2\pi_2 - x_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_2 = \frac{R - c_1x_1 - c_2x_2}{R - c_1x_1 - c_2x_2 + c_2y^{IN}}.$$

The so modified game is strategically more complex because the effective valuations of winning the primary, $v_i\pi_i$, now depend on the investments x_1 and x_2 as well.¹³ However, $c_1 < c_2$ implies $\pi_1 > \pi_2$ and thus $v_1\pi_1 > v_2\pi_2$ for all x_1 and x_2 . Put differently, as in the baseline model above, the effective valuation of the more qualified applicant is always larger than that of the less qualified applicant. In this sense, the structure of the strategic decision problems the applicants face in the primary remains the same. Accordingly, when choosing the accuracy r of the primary, the party board still faces an analog trade-off between selection quality and resource dissipation.

6.3.2 Political polarization

Up to now, we have interpreted the applicants' heterogeneous costs as a form of vertical differentiation with respect to their qualification. Assuming that applicants have career concerns and that their effort costs may differ between the primary and the general election, also allows for interpreting their heterogeneity as a form of horizontal differentiation that describes their political polarization.

¹³Notice that this dependency yields additional incentives to reduce investments for both applicants as

$$\frac{\partial \pi_i}{\partial x_i} = - \frac{c_i y^{IN}}{(R - c_1x - c_2x_2 + c_i y^{IN})^2}.$$

Since straightforward calculations show that $|\frac{\partial \pi_1}{\partial x_1}| < |\frac{\partial \pi_2}{\partial x_2}|$ for all x_1 and x_2 , the marginal disincentives are always stronger for the weaker applicant.

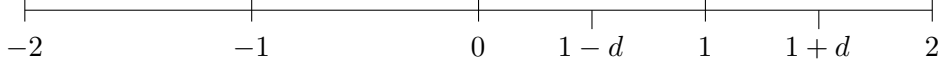


Figure 8: Reinterpreting the applicants' heterogeneity as of political polarization

On a Hotelling-line from -2 to 2 , voters (in the general election) are centered around 0 , but members (i.e., voters in the primary) of party A (B) are centered around 1 (-1). Parameter $d \in [0, 1]$ expresses the applicants' heterogeneity as a measure of political polarization: $1 - d$ describes the position of applicant 1, whereas $1 + d$ describes the position of applicant 2. Assume that the applicants' investment costs differ between the primary and the general election and are equal to 1 plus the distance to the decisive (median) voter of the respective election. Hence, the two applicants' investment costs in the primary are identical and equal to $k_i = 1 + d$. Their investment costs in the general election, however, differ – the more so the larger their political polarization d : applicant 1 has smaller costs than applicant 2, $c_1 = 2 - d < 2 + d = c_2$.

Similar to the previous subsection, applicant 1's expected utility from investing effort x_1 in the primary is then given by

$$Eu_1 = p_1\pi_1 - (1 + d)x_1 \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad EU_1 = p_1v\pi_1 - x_1,$$

where $v = \frac{1}{1+d}$ and

$$\pi_1 = \frac{R - (1 + d)(x_1 + x_2)}{R - (1 + d)(x_1 + x_2) + (2 - d)y^{IN}}.$$

Analogously,

$$EU_2 = p_2v\pi_2 - x_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_2 = \frac{R - (1 + d)(x_1 + x_2)}{R - (1 + d)(x_1 + x_2) + (2 + d)y^{IN}}.$$

As above, $c_1 < c_2$ implies $\pi_1 > \pi_2$ and thus $v\pi_1 > v\pi_2$ for all x_1 and x_2 . Again, the effective valuation of the more qualified applicant is always larger than that of the less qualified applicant and, in this sense, the structure of their strategic decision problems remains the same. Accordingly, when choosing the accuracy r of the primary, the party board faces an analog trade-off between selection quality and resource dissipation here as well.

7 Conclusion

We have studied intra-party contests, such as the US primaries, which are often used to select a candidate for a subsequent cross-party election. A more accurate selection may improve the quality of the candidate but detract more resources from the subsequent

campaign. We have modeled this trade-off as a problem of contest design and shown that extreme accuracy levels are optimal: maximum accuracy if the potential candidates are sufficiently heterogeneous, and a highly random selection otherwise.

Various extensions of the model suggest that, qualitatively, these findings do not depend on the exact number of political parties, the information structure, or whether applicants are myopic or far sighted. The heterogeneity among applicants may not only be interpreted as different qualifications in a vertical sense but also as political polarization in a horizontal sense. Our results explain varying primary designs on a local as well as on a global level and shed light upon the paradox of limited competition within a party.

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