What Makes Foreign Policy Teams Tick: Explaining Variation in Group Performance At Geopolitical Forecasting

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This draft: March 22, 2016

¹This research was supported by IARPA.
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Abstract

How groups make decisions is one of the most fundamental issues in the study of politics. When do groups—be they countries, administrations, or other organizations—more or less accurately understand the world around them and assess political choices? There is a widely held belief that group decision-making processes often fail due to groupthink and the biases in decision-making it induces. Yet there is wide variation in how groups perform at processing political information and making accurate forecasts. To advance knowledge about the intersection of politics and group decision-making, this paper draws on evidence from the Good Judgment Project, a multi-year geopolitical and economic forecasting tournament with thousands of participants sponsored by the Intelligence Advanced Research Projects Activity (IARPA). We assess which factors explain groups’ success or failure at forecasting geopolitical events. We find that, contrary to the predictions of groupthink, teams outperformed individuals in making accurate geopolitical predictions, with regression discontinuity analysis demonstrating specific effects from teamwork itself. Moreover, using structural topic models to assess conversations among different teams of forecasters, we find evidence that more cooperative teams outperformed less cooperative teams. Teams that more explicitly engaged in probabilistic reasoning also excelled. These results demonstrate that groupthink is not inevitable when it comes to political decision-making; rather, teams can and do accurately assess the geopolitical world. Moreover, by deliberately cultivating reasoning designed to hedge against cognitive biases and ensuring all perspectives are heard, groups can be more accurate at understanding politics.
1 Introduction

The role of groups in decision-making is a critical issue for politics. Nearly all decisions made by governments are the work of groups, not single individuals. Even in strong presidential systems such as the United States, the president rarely makes decisions alone; groups decide which issues make it onto the president’s agenda, groups decide how to present the information to the president, and the core national security decision process is designed to be carried out by groups. Thus understanding how groups make decisions is a key goal for the study of politics.¹

Strategies that make groups more effective at gathering information, processing it and accurately comprehending the world around them are especially important (Tetlock, 1999). The failure of groups within the U.S. government to accurately assess the likelihood of nuclear tests by India and Pakistan in 1998, the threat posed by international terrorist organizations prior to 9/11, or the state of Iraq’s WMD programs in both 1991 and 2003 stand out as some of the most significant intelligence and policy failures of the last several decades. These failures occurred despite the work of teams composed of smart, dedicated individuals who had access to a large amount of information about the world and resources at their disposal. Why then did they fail so spectacularly to understand and decisively act on important geopolitical happenings? One potential explanation for these analytic failures is groupthink, or the rush to conformity of opinion and premature cutoff of debate due to social pressure. Decision making bodies that are unable to engage in effective deliberative thinking are more likely to make bad decisions in a variety of scenarios, especially during foreign policy crises (Janis, 1982).

Although group decision-making is not the most extensively-covered aspect of foreign policy within political science, it has been explored in the political psychology and group

¹Groups are typically defined in the literature as units comprising more than two individuals. Likewise teams, a kind of group, are similarly numerically composed, although one key distinction is that team members are generally more familiar with one another than group members, although this is not always the case. While we use the terms groups and teams interchangeably in this paper, we do recognize that the two are conceptualized differently in the literature.
dynamics literature. Given the utility of accurately understanding the world, strategies that improve the effectiveness of group decision-making and deliberations are critical. One of the challenges to optimal group processes is groupthink, or the tendency of some groups to converge on unanimity without engaging in critical deliberation (‘t Hart, 1990). Groupthink can lead to suboptimal choices when it comes to processing information, predicting the future, and making decisions. Is groupthink inevitable or are there scope conditions, especially when it comes to national security decision-making? In other words, are national security decision-makers doomed by groupthink, or can groupthink be overcome by best practices for group design and processes that make them more likely to generate effective decisions and forecasts? This is an especially important question given the high-stakes involved.

To develop a more theoretically and empirically grounded understanding of group and team decision-making, within a political context, this paper presents evidence from the Good Judgment Project (GJP), a geopolitical and economic forecasting tournament with thousands of participants sponsored by the Intelligence Advanced Research Projects Activity (IARPA). Participants entered predictions about potential geopolitical and economic events, such as whether North Korea would test a nuclear device by a certain date or whether Greece would leave the Eurozone by a certain date. As part of the tournament, participants were randomly selected into team and individual conditions, allowing for a controlled test of the relative effectiveness of teams versus individuals at forecasting geopolitical outcomes. In addition, both teams and individuals were encouraged to explain the reasoning behind their predictions. By evaluating both the reasoning behind the forecasts and the forecasts themselves, we can evaluate the accuracy of teams versus individuals as well as the conditions under which teams are more likely to succeed or fail. Essentially, the design allows us to identify the situations in which group behaviors such as groupthink, as well as conditions such as polythink (Mintz and Wayne, 2016a,b), are more likely versus those situations and conditions that set groups up to succeed.

This approach makes a significant contribution in part because while the groupthink phenomenon has been subjected to steady investigatory attention, much of the research
on group decision-making has been non-experimental. The foundational groupthink re-
search used small-\(n\) process-tracing approaches to explore the conditions under which
group dysfunction could be expected (Janis, 1982; Janis and Mann, 1977; Peterson et al.,
1998; Esser, 1998; Tetlock, 1979; Tetlock et al., 1992; Schafer and Crichlow, 2013; 't Hart,
1990). This approach makes it difficult to control for the impact of specific antecedents.
Experiments on groupthink have typically involved single-iteration laboratory tasks, with-
out the opportunity to learn from previous mistakes. Furthermore, the experimental tasks
were typically undertaken by groups of strangers, a situation that bears little resemblance
to the real-world groups that make decisions (a good summary of laboratory experiment
results can be found in Esser (1998)). Our study uses a purposeful design to advance
knowledge: a large-scale randomized-controlled experiment employing a task that resem-
bles what national-security policymakers might face. This provides the most externally
valid test of previous groupthink results to date.\(^2\)

The paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 situates our work in the literature on
collective decision-making and “groupthink.” Section 3 describes the Good Judgment
Project in greater detail and puts forth our hypotheses. Sections 4 and 5 present the
empirical results, showing that not only do teams outperform individuals, but teams
featuring broader and deeper engagement are less prone to groupthink-like biases when
it comes to geopolitical forecasting. In these sections a novel application of machine
learning methods to the textual data generated by participants allows us to explain how
and why some groups succeed while others do not. Section 6 concludes by summarizing
our contributions and highlighting areas for future work.

2 Decision-making in International Relations: The
Specter of Groupthink

Both decision-making and forecasting are critical topics in international relations. Coun-
tries and leaders that make better decisions and forecasts are more likely to succeed in
advancing national interests, whether the issue is setting economic policy, designing a

\(^2\)For more on other experimental approaches to international relations, see Mintz et al. (2011).
military strategy, or deciding whether to sign a free trade deal. Throughout governments, even at very high levels, group processes dominate as the mechanism by which governments make such decisions. For example, in the United States government, important foreign policy issues go through multiple levels of group discussions within the Defense Department, State Department, National Security Council, and elsewhere, as part of what is called the interagency process, before they reach the president. Allison’s foundational work on the Cuban Missile Crisis focuses, in part, on this group process and how it shaped US behavior (Allison, 1969). Even in countries with very small selectorates (De Mesquita and Smith, 2005), leaders generally make decisions about important topics such as war and peace within groups.

So, how do groups make decisions? For almost two generations, political psychologists have studied how group decision-making can go awry and lead to groupthink, resulting in bad political decision-making. Groupthink is defined as “[A]mode of thinking that people engage in when they are deeply involved in a cohesive in-group, when the members’ strivings for unanimity override their motivation to realistically appraise alternative courses of action” (Janis, 1982, pg. 9). Janis (1982) argues that group pathology in foreign policy decision-making can lead individual members of the group to conform to group norms. Since the price of non-conformity with group norms is often exclusion from the group, if group norms lead groups towards suboptimal outcomes, groups may actually lack the diversity of perspectives that should be their strength. Janis (1982) warns that high group cohesiveness is the single largest hazard that can cause a group to fall victim to groupthink. More recent research by Sunstein and Hastie (2014) suggests that modern American bureaucracy is particularly prone to groupthink because organizational incentives to support the group and follow the leader suppress dissent, even when optimism about a particular path is not warranted.

According to research on groupthink, several characteristics of group decision settings may make it difficult for groups to avoid mistakes in foreign-policy decision-making. First, groups seeking consensus on a decision limit their discussions to only some of the relevant information and thus few courses of action (Janis, 1982; McCauley, 1989; Schulz-Hardt
et al., 2000). Second, groups do not adequately examine their favored policy decision in light of non-obvious risks that might not have been considered during initial discussions (Janis, 1982; Janis and Mann, 1977). Third, policy decisions that were initially rejected by the group are never adequately considered (Janis, 1982). Fourth, groups often fail to consult experts who might be able to make an unbiased evaluation of the policy options at hand (Janis 1982). Fifth, groups exhibit selection bias when evaluating new information, ignoring facts that do not support their favored policy proposal (Janis, 1982). Sixth, groups will often fail to discuss contingency plans for what to do if factors arise that might hinder the success of their favored plan (Sunstein and Hastie, 2014; Janis, 1982, see also Janis and Mann 1977, pg. 132).

To analyze the prevalence of groupthink, Tetlock (1979) used content analysis on key decision makers’ public statements about foreign policy choices. Content analysis revealed that, as predicted by Janis’s theory, decision makers involved in Janis’s qualitative case studies made more positive references to their in-group (in this case, the United States) than to the out-group and they evaluated their group more positively than did decision makers in non-groupthink situations. Likewise, as predicted by Janis, the public statements of leaders whose decisions were filtered by groupthink were characterized by significantly lower levels of integrative complexity (essentially, recognition of multiple contingencies and perspectives) than their non-groupthink counterparts; groupthink affected the policymakers by causing them to simplify either their understanding of the situation or their presentation of it (Tetlock, 1979, 1322). Tetlock et al. (1992) attempted to further quantify the study of groupthink through the use of the Group Dynamics Q Sort (GDQS) research instrument, which allows researchers to quantify the degree to which elements of groupthink are present in a decision-making group. The authors found that Janis’s classification of historical episodes as exemplars of groupthink was largely backed up by quantitative metrics (see Tetlock et al. (1992, pp. 410-416) for a discussion of results). Schafer and Crichlow (2013, pg. 170) found that decision-processing variables such as poor information search and uniformity pressures were most explanatory for poor decision-making outcomes.
Does this mean groupthink is inevitable, or are there circumstances that mitigate the risk of groupthink, allowing for more effective group evaluations of politics? This is an important question with implications well beyond foreign policy, including the study of decision-making across levels of government, businesses, and other organizations. If groupthink becomes more or less likely depending on certain conditions, it makes the question one of scope conditions, with the possibility that organizations can design teams less likely to fall prey to groupthink. As Raven notes, “the real genius lies in determining what these circumstances and combinations might be which would lead to deleterious effects” (Raven, 1998, pg. 355). In a similar vein, Baron (2005) asserts that research has failed to prove a conclusive link between Janis’s theorized antecedent conditions and the groupthink phenomenon. Critical to further understanding in this arena is therefore being able to predict when groupthink will occur based on the presence of specific antecedent conditions.

In general, there are environments where groups, working together, can produce superior results to those of individuals. In the military context, for example, units with high levels of group cohesion generally perform better on the battlefield than those lacking cohesion (Janowitz, 1960). As another example, Raven (1998) challenges Janis’s essential notion that groupthink necessarily leads to fiascos, pointing out that the team working with Nixon to contain the Watergate scandal actually came very close to being successful, and failed only due to what was essentially happenstance and chance.\footnote{Groupthink, which in the Watergate case led to gradually more risky behaviors, might have paid off if it were not for, as Raven puts it, “some bungling burglars and some observant guards and custodians” (Raven, 1998, pg. 358).}

Raven (1998) contends that Janis’s argument that group cohesiveness is one of the pernicious forces leading to groupthink behavior is too broad. He argues that group cohesion can indeed lead to groupthink when it quashes minority opinions and leads to an excessively positive view of the in-group, but that it can also sometimes be a beneficial force within groups. He thus seeks to understand what other factors combine with group cohesion to lead to either perverse or effective decision-making behaviors. Raven pinpoints what he calls the “runaway norm” as the factor that causes group cohesiveness to turn de-
The “runaway norm” is the idea that simply adhering to the norms of the group is not enough, and that members must actively try to exceed the norm in order to maintain membership in the group. When this norm is present, Raven argues, group members are pushed to not only cohere to the group, but to demonstrate continuing fidelity to the group by issuing ever stronger statements in favor of a group consensus. Moreover, ’t Hart (1990) distinguishes between collective avoidance and collective overoptimism (review of his work is attached). ’t Hart (1990) also notes that group decision-making is useful for things beyond making good decisions— they are used to adjudicate values disputes and to push collective and institutional action.

The argument by Janis and others about the deleterious effects of groupthink focuses on the negative effects of group cohesion and the need to belong, which leads groups to discard inconvenient information because each individual in the group is incentivized not to present adverse information for fear of being excluded. But in theory, groups should be a promising environment for decision-making because individuals can bring diverse perspectives to the table; the group can then deliberate over the accumulated information, suss out the potential for bias, and arrive at a reasoned conclusion that is superior to what a single individual could do (Sunstein and Hastie, 2014). This possibility raises the question of whether different environments might generate different types of practices within groups that make them more likely to be susceptible to groupthink or more likely to embed some of the potentially virtuous practices of groups.

Moreover, extant research paints a picture that is arguably less pessimistic than the most dire groupthink predictions. Teams have been shown to be more creative (Nijstad and De Dreu, 2002; Hoegl and Parboteeah, 2007), take better risks (Rockenbach et al., 2007), and solving complex problems (Laughlin et al., 2006). Hackman (2002) points out that good teamwork normally results from proper antecedent conditions, the flipside of Janis focus on the antecedent conditions that lead to groupthink. In addition to being assigned a task that is appropriate for groups to work on, roles such as decision-making authority and structuring incentives such as who benefits and advances, are also important for ensuring harmonious group function. A 2008 review of team effectiveness reiterated
the need to better understand how the increasingly virtual nature of teams would impact team effectiveness (Mathieu et al., 2008). Recently, research on polythink by Mintz and Wayne (2016a) highlights that flawed group decision-making processes can emerge even when team members express a plurality of opinions and disagree about the correct policy actions.

Understanding the overall scope conditions of group decision-making therefore requires not just examining the ability of individuals versus groups to conduct particular tasks, but whether there are conditions that lead to variation in group performance. The next section outlines a novel experiment designed, in part, to test the effectiveness of groups and individuals at forecasting international political events.

3 Project Design and Hypotheses

3.1 Project Overview

This project draws on individual-level forecasts submitted as part of the Good Judgment Project (GJP). GJP was a participant in the Aggregative Contingent Estimation (ACE) Program, an effort funded by the Intelligence Advanced Research Projects Activity (IARPA, an organization within the U.S. intelligence community) to better understand how to create the most accurate geopolitical forecasts possible.\(^4\)

We use data from 982 individuals who participated in years 2, 3, and 4 of the tournament. Participants were recruited via e-mail lists, online blogs, and other forums. Participants were required to have a bachelor’s degree or higher. There was an attrition rate of 5% from season to season, so new participants were recruited to ensure that balanced design objectives were reached.\(^5\)

During each season, IARPA released forecasting questions at regular intervals (gener-

\(^4\)The ACE program was designed as a competition between several teams in industry and at different universities. This article exclusively uses data gathered by the Good Judgment Project. The Good Judgment Project was run out of UC-Berkeley and the University of Pennsylvania.

\(^5\)On average, 83% of participants were male, 74% were U.S. citizens, and participants had an average age of 40. While the pool was not made up of international politics experts, it did allow the researchers to gather longitudinal experimental data on a non-student population (Mintz et al., 2006).
ally every few weeks) on geopolitical issues. Forecasting questions were called individual forecasting problems, or IFPs. Examples of questions included: Will NATO invite any new countries to join the Membership Action Plan (MAP) before 1 June 2015? Will Afghanistan sign a Bilateral Security Agreement with the United States before 1 November 2014? For a complete list of questions asked in each season, see Appendix A.

When new questions were released, participants would log onto a website where they had the option to enter a forecast on each question. For a binary question, such as whether Afghanistan would sign a Bilateral Security Agreement with the United States with the U.S., possible forecasts ranged between 0 and 100 (0 = absolutely no, 100 = absolutely yes). Some questions had multiple bins or date ranges where participants would have to enter probabilities in each bin, with the probabilities summing to 100. Importantly, forecasters could log on to the website as often as desired to update their forecasts on all open questions, until that question closed. Any day a forecaster did not log on to update their forecast, their prior forecast on that question carried over to the next day.

Questions closed either when the event posited in the question happened (e.g., Afghanistan signed a Bilateral Security Agreement with the United States), or the question expired without the event occurring. When each question closed, participants received an accuracy score for that question using the Brier scoring rule (Brier, 1950). Brier scores are the sum of the squared deviation between the forecast entered by a participant and the outcome. They range from 0 (perfectly accurate) to .5 (pure chance, such as a coin flip) to 2 (perfectly inaccurate).

As an example, consider the Afghanistan question referenced above. Imagine a participant entered a forecast of 60% for the question of whether Afghanistan would sign a Bilateral Security Agreement with the United States by a certain date on the first day the question was open, and never updated their forecast. The participant would therefore have .60 probability for “yes” and a .40 probability for “no” for each day the question was open. A forecaster gets a score for each day the question is open, based on the final outcome, divided by the number of days the question is open. If Afghanistan did sign a Bilateral Security Agreement with the United States within the time period of the question,
therefore, the Brier score for that participant would be $(1 - 0.60)^2 + (0 - 0.40)^2 = 0.32$.

Now suppose that forecaster entered a prediction of 60% the first day the question was open, then updated their prediction to 85% on the 15th day the question was open, and the question closed as “yes” on the 30th day. In that case, the participant would receive 15 days of $(1 - 0.60)^2 + (0 - 0.40)^2 = 0.32$ and 15 days of $(1 - 0.85)^2 + (0 - 0.15)^2 = 0.045$, for an overall Brier score on that question of 0.1825. Thus, the faster participants get to the right answer, the better (lower) their Brier score.\(^6\) Participants then received an overall score that was the average of all closed questions, with the top participants arranged, in order, on a leaderboard. Thus, participants could see not only their own scores, but also how their scores compared to the scores of other participants.

### 3.2 Group types

GJP’s experimental design included both individual and groups, providing a robust environment for understanding the influence of group size on forecasting accuracy. Some participants were randomly assigned into a condition where they made forecasts on their own while others were randomly assigned into teams of 12-15 members. Individual participants could see a leaderboard of the most accurate forecasters in their experimental condition.\(^7\) Team members communicated through a custom-designed online forum which enabled them to discuss questions and forecast rationales.

Group members entered individual forecasts, with each team receiving a “group” score for each question that was the average of the score of individual members. Group members could also see each other’s individual accuracy scores on each question. Thus, if an individual on a team disagreed with the way other team members described their forecasts in the online forum, an individual on a team could “defect” from most of the forecasters on their team, enter a different prediction, and then all would be able to judge who was right after the question closed. For participants on teams, the analogue to the

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\(^6\)This is necessary since otherwise, for questions where the potential outcome is not likely to occur, the forecaster could just update their forecast on the last day it closed to the correct forecast and receive the same score as someone who got to the right answer weeks earlier.

\(^7\)Other experimental manipulations included training and in year four, accountability system types)
leaderboard for participants in the individual experimental condition was a leaderboard featuring the aggregated scores of each team in their experimental condition.

### 3.3 Hypotheses

When should we expect groups to outperform individuals? Group outperformance of individuals is typically seen as task-dependent. Hackman and Katz (2010), in their broad overview of when groups can outperform individuals, point out that compensatory tasks, when the average of the individual inputs is used as the group output, can mitigate the impact of individual biases, resulting in a superior product. Taking the average of the individual inputs also obviates the need to arrive at a forced consensus, thus neutralizing one of the detrimental antecedent conditions of groupthink (Janis, 1982).  

Additionally, several studies have demonstrated that virtual teams can perform well because they typically bring to bear a more diverse and knowledgeable group to work on a tough problem (Martins et al., 2004; Powell et al., 2004). Virtual teams also help to overcome the typically debilitating impacts of groupthink by reducing the corrosive effects of social pressures to conformity which enables individuals to speak up and raise their own opinions. Groups were self-organized without assigned leaders who could drive the process. Group members also did not use real names (unless they chose to reveal them, which most did not), instead communicating under usernames. The lack of formal leadership and the ability to operate under a pseudonym reduced the risk that status hierarchies and other related issues could bias group discussion (Sunstein and Hastie, 2014). Additionally, as Janis pointed out, groups with a higher level of cohesiveness—“soft” groups that exhibit a great degree of amiability and esprit de corps—are most at risk of groupthink, and therefore at greatest risk of making poor and inaccurate decisions and forecasts. By cooperating virtually and most operating under pseudonyms, the forecasting groups might be less susceptible to groupthink.

Lastly, groups were incentivized to raise the group’s overall accuracy because that

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8Moreover, given that the forecasting questions were deliberately small, objectively falsifiable, problems, they could also provide a way to overcome the fractious discussions that can lead to polythink (Mintz and Wayne, 2016b). This is a potential avenue for future research.
score was what “counted” within the context of the tournament. Group members could see the accuracy score of each groupmate on each question and the overall accuracy of their team (an average of the scores of each member of the team on each question) compared to other teams in their experimental condition. This is the kind of condition that Sunstein and Hastie argue mitigates the effects of groupthink. Teams therefore were incentivized to listen to and follow those team members who had a demonstrated history as most likely to be accurate. By creating status hierarchies based on accuracy, rather than other attributes, forecasting groups were set up in a way to theoretically combat some of the factors that lead to groupthink and maximize those factors likely to make teams more effective at information sharing and processing. If these strategies for combating groupthink are effective, we would expect groups, on average, to outperform participants working alone.

From this, we derive the following hypothesis:

**Hypothesis 1**: Group forecasters will make more accurate predictions than individual forecasters.

Even if groups are more accurate than individuals the questions of what sets better performing groups apart from poorer performing groups remains. The question of “why” can help set the scope conditions in which teams are more or less likely to be subject to groupthink.

Moreover, given the is correct, successful groups should be those that engender engagement by a broad set of teammates, rather than following a traditional, vertical hierarchical group process (Sunstein and Hastie, 2014). As previously noted, a tendency towards centralization through the presence of positional and institutional leadership tends to precede groupthink. Additionally, extant literature on group performance shows that decentralized communications and broader group participation leads to improved group performance relative to more centralized and restrictive information flows (Balkundi and Harrison, 2006; Yang and Tang, 2004; Rulke and Galaskiewicz, 2000; Gloor *et al.*, 2008; Leenders *et al.*, 2003).

**Hypothesis 2**: Better performing teams have decentralized conversational norms.
The research team provided some of its forecasting teams with training in cognitive de-biasing and probability judgments (Mellers et al., 2014). This training included general training to recognize and overcome biases, along with specific encouragement to engage in red teaming and seek out dissenting viewpoints (one of the best practices the literature cited above suggests could lead to more accurate group decisions). All teams received training on how to prevent social dysfunction on teams, based on findings from past research. In general, the training could be viewed of as a way of priming teams to conduct more metacognition (self-aware thinking about how to think) and complex thinking about how the group itself was making forecasts. Higher levels of self-awareness within groups has been shown to lead to better group performance (Cohen et al., 1996; Kozlowski, 1998; Lord and Emrich, 2001).

Hypothesis 3: Better performing teams employ metacognition and exhibit higher levels of self-awareness.

4 Do Teams Matter?

The data analysis below draws on years 2 and 3 of the GJP project. As described above, these years of the project featured individual forecasters as well as forecasters placed in teams. During these years, randomly selected teams and individuals received additional training that focused on cognitive de-biasing as well as how to conduct quantitative probability assessments and study geopolitical issues, the focus of the forecasting tournament. The training programs are described at length elsewhere (Tetlock and Gardner, 2015). In addition to teams and individuals, the experimental design also included a small set of so-called “super teams.” Super teams selected from the top two percent of forecasters in the preceding year, and all super teams received training in cognitive de-biasing and probability judgments.\(^9\)

To test hypothesis 1 that team performance exceeds individual performance, Section 4.1 analyzes initial forecasting accuracy across experimental conditions. Section 4.2

\(^9\)Note that this training, as we explain below, cannot alone explain the variation in the performance of super teams, since other teams also received training. We also explain more about the selection and function of super teams below.
then uses a regression discontinuity model to test whether the superior performance of super teams established in the previous section can be attributed solely to their composition of “better” individuals, or if something more team-based occurred.

### 4.1 Initial Evidence Of Team Performance

We use basic summary statistics to broadly illustrate the performance of teams relative to individuals in the forecasting tournament. A natural starting point is to investigate whether groups made better predictions than individuals, on average. Figure 1 plots the average of the standardized Brier score for individuals, teams and super teams\(^\text{10}\) with 95% confidence intervals. We reverse the normal Brier scale for presentation purposes, meaning higher scores mean higher levels of accuracy. On average, teams and individuals did the worst, with teams performing slightly better. But super teams had significantly better predictions. Individuals in these teams were able to make substantially superior predictions compared to the other groups and individuals. This parallels findings reported in (Mellers et al., 2015a). On the superiority of teams in the context of the IARPA tournament in general see Mellers et al. (2014) and Mellers et al. (2015b). As such we find some initial support for hypothesis 1.

\(^{10}\)Specifically, the score we use is calculated by averaging the Brier scores for all forecasters on a given IFP, and then measuring the standardized deviation from that average for each forecaster on that IFP.

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**Figure 1:** Average (standardized) Brier score by group type.
4.2 Super Teams Are More Than Super Individuals on the Same Team

The results above do raise the question of whether super teams, which excelled on the metrics above, succeed simply because they are the sum of high-performing parts. Alternatively, is there something in particular about being on a team that improves forecasting accuracy? One way to assess this is to use a regression discontinuity model comparing super team forecasters to nearly identical individuals not on a super team. This allows us to estimate how the exogenous “shock” of joining a super team influences forecasting accuracy for comparable individuals.

As described above, super teams are composed of forecasters who were the most accurate in their condition the year before they were invited to join a super team. Forecasters who barely miss the cutoff are essentially equivalent to forecasters who barely make the cutoff; this is why a regression discontinuity design approximates a true experiment in which half of the forecasters near the cutoff were randomly assigned to the treatment, where the treatment is an invitation to join a super team for subsequent years.

Promotion to a super team initially occurred in year 2 on the basis of year 1 performance. Forecasters who made a prediction on at least 45 unique questions and scored in the top 2% of their experimental condition were given an invitation to join a super team in year 2. If the forecaster turned down the invitation, the next most accurate forecaster who met the 45-question threshold was offered their spot. The regression discontinuity analysis is restricted to forecasters who participated in year 1 and year 2, answering at least 45 questions in year 1 and 30 questions in year 2.

Here, we statistically replicate how GJP chose superforecasters to generate a clear discontinuity we can exploit to test the effect of being placed on a super team. Replicating GJP, we used mean imputed Brier score as the promotion decision criterion, because this was the measure of accuracy that forecasters were incentivized to achieve. The mean imputed Brier score for each individual is a mean across IFPs/question scores with an imputed score for the questions a forecaster skipped. In contrast, for assessing year 2 performance, the outcome in our regression, we use the measure that best captures fore-
casting accuracy: mean standardized Brier score of the questions the individual actually forecast. The standardization is performed at the IFP/question level (i.e., the scores for each question have a mean of zero and standard deviation of one). In both cases, a higher score denotes greater accuracy, because we reverse the normal Brier Score scale for presentation purposes. The promotion decision score criterion (mean imputed Brier score) is a noisier measure of skill than the Brier score, since it includes imputed scores, e.g. participants were assigned the average score for an IFP if they did not enter a forecast themselves. This actually strengthens our regression discontinuity design because it assures us that there truly are forecasters on both sides of the cutoff with equal forecasting skill before some were assigned to super teams.

For ease of interpretation, we center the promotion decision score so those with a score of less than or equal to zero were given an invitation to join a super team. All regression specifications include a centered decision score and a dummy variable indicating whether a forecaster received an invitation to join a super team for year 2. If the dummy variable instead indicated whether the forecaster actually joined a super team in year 2, there would be a threat of selection bias: that the more motivated forecasters accepted the nominations. Our approach, an intent-to-treat analysis, is more conservative, and therefore likely understates the effect of the treatment on the treated. The coefficient on the dummy variable is an unbiased estimate of the causal effect on accuracy of being assigned to a super team and it is large ($\beta = 0.265$, S.E. = 0.035). This means that those selected to participate on super teams relatively improved in subsequent years for reasons related to being on the team, not just because the teams are made up of smart individuals. Graphically, the results can be seen in Figure 2. Here, we fit a loess line to data on each side of the discontinuity. We plot individuals that accepted the super team invitation as open circles. ¹¹

Sensitivity analyses demonstrate the estimated effect is essentially unchanged even if we include additional measures of accuracy from year 1 and participation in years 1 and 2 (the number of IFPs answered). Furthermore, the result is robust to interacting

¹¹This also means the solid red dots are forecasters in the individual and team conditions that did not qualify to receive a superforecaster invitation.
the promotion decision score and the super team dummy, which represents the possibility that the slope on the decision score could vary above and below the cut score. These findings further suggest that team dynamics play a significant role in driving super team performance, beyond these teams being an aggregation of talented individuals. This provides especially strong evidence in favor of hypothesis 1.

5 What Kinds of Teams Succeed? Modelling Team Communication

The results above raise the question of why some teams succeed. To test hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3 concerning what explains variation in the ability of groups to forecast, we focus on the content of forecast explanations. In particular, we examine explanations given by individuals in the team conditions. By understanding how different kinds of teams (trained teams, untrained teams, and super teams) use explanations, we can begin unpacking what makes teams more or less effective. We find several patterns in the content of explanations that help to explain super team success.

When making their predictions, participants —whether in the individual or team condition—could also choose to provide an explanation for their forecast. There was a comment box underneath the place where individuals entered their forecasts and partici-
pants were encouraged to leave a comment that included an explanation for their forecast. For participants in an individual experimental condition, only the researchers would see those explanations. For participants in a team experimental condition, however, their teammates would be able to see their explanation/comment. These explanations therefore potentially provide useful information to help identify what leads to forecasting accuracy, giving us a way to test hypotheses 2 and 3.

5.1 The Conversational Norms Of Successful Geopolitical Forecasting Groups

An obvious starting point is to ask whether, on average, individuals differ in how extensively they made explanations (i.e., how many comments per IFP) and how intensively (i.e., how long were the comments). Both of these metrics give us a sense of forecaster engagement - since those that explain their predictions are likely more engaged than those that do not. We do this by contrasting behavior by whether a forecaster was on a team or not, whether they were on a team that got training, or not, and whether they were on a super team. Below, we switch from focusing on the extent of engagement to the intensity of engagement, when it occurs.

To calculate the degree of extensive engagement, for each individual we first calculated the total number of explanations made per IFP for which the individual made at least one explanation. Then for each individual we calculated their average number of comments per IFP, averaging over all of the forecasting questions they answered. Thus, for any person we know the average number of explanations they will give for an prediction task.

Figure 3 plots the resulting distribution of this value for each group (individuals, untrained teams, trained teams, and super teams). The x-axis is scaled along a base 10 log for each individual’s score because this distribution is heavily skewed. The log transformation reduces the presentational influence of extreme outliers in this distribution. Each group is presented as a different density plot, with the height of the plot giving a relative estimate of how many observations were at the particular value of the x-axis.\footnote{We use a kernel density function to make the plots.}

\[12\]
Figure 3: Extensive engagement: number of responses by IFP.

We observe that both individuals and untrained teams have relatively low levels of average responses per IFP. Trained teams and particularly super teams have considerably higher average responses per IFP.

Next we calculate how intensively individuals engage with explaining their prediction. For each individual we calculated the median length of their first explanation of an IFP. We use the first explanation for a variety of reasons. First, as seen in Figure 3, individuals that were not on a team, or were in untrained teams, rarely made more than one explanation per IFP. Second, we are most interested in individuals providing information and analysis to others on their team. Someone’s first explanation is an important first step in doing this. Figure 4 shows the distribution for the four conditions. We see that individuals who are in super teams are clearly engaging in more intensive explanation compared to individuals in other conditions.

Next, we combine Figures 3 and 4 and plot each individual’s value of their extensive engagement and intensive engagement in Figure 5. Here we separate out the plots by each of our groups and overlay a contour plot to give a sense of the distribution of data.
Figure 4: Median number of words used by individuals in their first response to an IFP. in this space. As expected, we observe that super teams tend to have more individuals who are engaging both more extensively per IFP and more intensively. On the other hand, while people not on teams on occasion would provide multiple explanations per IFP, most did not. Teams with and without training had individuals who provided more lengthy explanations, but these teams do not have individuals who both supplied multiple responses to an IFP and began their engagement with an IFP with a lengthy explanation (which could then be read by other participants on their team).
Figure 5: Average number of explanations per IFP versus median number of words for first explanation. X and Y axis are both plotted on log scale.
We also examined other metrics of intensive engagement. Figure 6 plots the fraction of total words in explanations that came after the first response.\textsuperscript{13} The plot shows a low proportion of total words coming after the very first explanation from individuals. Teams did better, with more intensive engagement after the first explanation by trained teams and super teams.

Figure 7 investigates the degree to which explanations are generated by a single member of a team or a broader discussion amongst multiple participants. To measure this we calculate for each IFP, in each team, the total number of explanations of the most prolific responder. We then divided this by the average number of responses within the team to that IFP to generate a score for each team/IFP combination. We then calculated the median value of this statistic for each team and plot the results in Figure 7. This shows a distinct pattern illustrating strong effects for one particular type of team - super teams. Prolific posters for super teams posted four times as much as the rest of their team. But for non-super teams, the relative contribution of the most prolific posters was significantly higher. Essentially, in non-super teams, a smaller number of people dominated the conversation more completely, while super teams featured broader conversations among more team members.\textsuperscript{14}

\textsuperscript{13}More specifically we calculate this by taking number of words in the first response to an IFP divided by the total number of words in all responses to the IFP. We then subtract that quantity from 1 and take the median for a user across IFPs.

\textsuperscript{14}Appendix B looks at whether there are differences in the readability of the explanations. We found no substantive differences across the conditions.
Figure 6: Fraction of total words written after first response.

Figure 7: Distribution of median ratio of maximum number of responses to an IFP by a team member/average number of responses to an IFP.
That teams, and especially super teams, display a substantial difference in how they engaged with each other provides some evidence for hypothesis 2, because it shows that super teams engaged in both more extensive and intensive engagement, and on average these types of engagement were linked to superior performance through their conversational norms.

Figure 8 then shows that these different conversational norms actually produced superior geopolitical forecasting accuracy. Here, we test hypothesis 2 by evaluating whether that higher degree of engagement on the part of super teams is responsible, in part, for their superior forecasting performance. To do this, we first calculate, for each team, on each IFP, the proportion of the team replying (entering a comment on that IFP) and the average of the team’s standardized score. We then aggregate over the team-IFP level to the level of the team by taking the median fraction of the team replying (for IFPs in which they participated) and the average score for the team across IFPs. This gives us a sense of the types of team behaviors that lead to better performance overall.

Finally we regressed the measures of accuracy on our team-level extensive engagement score. To allow for any potential non-linear relationships we used a generalized additive model with cubic-regression basis function, and we plot the 95% confidence intervals.15 We also control for the effect of condition (team with no training, team with training, and super team).

The results in Figure 8 show an unambiguous positive relationship between extensive engagement within a team and accuracy across IFPs. This provides some support for hypothesis 2, which postulated that incorporating the perspective of multiple individuals will improve performance on a team. However, we do see that by the time we reach 40% of a team responding, the relationship flattens out. This flattening is primarily because the teams who have a median response rate beyond 40% are super teams whose positive effect on team accuracy we control for. When not controlling for condition, accuracy continues to increase essentially linearly up to 50% at which point the benefit of additional voices in the conversation declines. This shows, however, that the extremely hierarchical, top-down

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15 Implemented in the mgcv package with option bs="cs" (Wood, 2011).
conversational patterns that often only feature a few voices are less successful, on average, at comprehending and forecasting on important political questions.

5.2 Metacognition and Geopolitical Forecasting

To test hypothesis 3, focusing on whether superior teams use metacognition, e.g. thinking about thinking, and are more self-aware in ways that help them discard biases and evaluate the world more accurately, we turn to text analysis. There are many ways to analyze text, and available tools are constantly evolving. To assess the explanations offered as part of GJP forecasts, we focus on an unsupervised machine learning technique known as the Structural Topic Model, which has been used in a variety of applications in the social sciences (Roberts et al., 2014, 2016b). Topic models are a class of models that discover sets of words that tend to occur together. These co-occurrence patterns allow us to estimate distributions over words called “topics” where each document is a distribution of the estimated topics.

Unlike most existing forms of topic models, such as the popular latent Dirichlet allocation model (Blei et al., 2003), the Structural Topic Model allows for information about individual documents to be incorporated into the estimation of topics. This allows the researcher to investigate the presence of relationships between this “meta-data”, infor-
mation about the documents, and topics of interest.\footnote{Importantly, and as discussed at length in Roberts et al. (2014), this approach does not force there to be relationships.} In the current application we use information about whether an explanation came from an individual who was on an un-trained team, a trained team, or a super team. We also include indicator variables for each IFP in the analysis that help to pick up domain specific-language.

\subsection*{5.2.1 Sample and Preprocessing}

Given our interest in what makes teams most effective, we subset our data to focus only on teams and drop individuals not on teams. We also include only an individual’s first response to an IFP because, as discussed before, there is considerable variation across conditions in terms of how frequently individuals would post explanations per IFP. This does not mean someone would post an explanation only after having seen posts from other teammates. Indeed, as we discuss below, we frequently saw individuals engaging with explanations posted by other teammates.

We also pre-processed the data in several ways. First, we only included words that appeared in a minimum of 20 documents. This eases estimation of the model by reducing the total number of words that can be associated with topics. In order to capture linguistics patterns that are common across IFPs rather than specific to the content of the questions, we only included words that appeared in explanations at least twice for at least 10 different IFPs. We also conducted standard processing of textual data such as stemming (processing words that reflect the same concept to a single root) and stopword (of, the, etc.) removal.\footnote{See Grimmer and Stewart (2013) for additional discussion.}

\subsection*{5.2.2 Results}

To estimate the STM we need to set the number of topics ahead of time. A larger number of topics permits a more granular view whereas a smaller number of topics produces a broader view of the corpus being analyzed. We estimated a structural topic model in which we set the number of topics at 40. This allows for a relatively granularly view while not overwhelming the analyst. Estimation with similar numbers of topics generally
produced similar results.\textsuperscript{18}

We begin by displaying the estimated proportion of the corpus belonging to each topic in Figure 9. The topic that consumes the highest proportion of the corpus, Topic 23, consists of vague language and terms reflecting uncertainty. This is because we use only first predictions and thus individuals do not feel certain about their forecasts. Topic 37, which was also relatively common, picks up on individuals providing justifications based on some sort of weblink. Topics 2 dealt with teamwork, the focus of the current paper. It was estimated to comprise around 3\% of the corpus. Explanations highly related to Topic 2 often utilized a pre-set message indicating that the individual was “following teammates”, after which they could provide further explanation.\textsuperscript{19}

\textsuperscript{18}We used an initialization based on the spectral method of moments estimator of Arora et al. (2012) to bypass mulimodality issues that naturally arise in topic models Roberts et al. (2016a).

\textsuperscript{19}This pre-set message was only available in year 3 but was added by the platform due to similar conventions established in earlier years.
Figure 9: Estimated proportion of corpus from each topic, with top three most highly probable words listed.
Next we investigate several of the topics in greater detail. The top row in Figure 10 gives the top words associated with a teammate topic (Topic 2) as well as two additional topics that we refer to as “analysis” topics, Topics 12 and 33. For each topic we present a “word cloud” representation, where larger words were more highly associated with the topic. The interpretation of the teamwork topic is straightforward. Explanations using this topic had people mentioning that they were following their teammates and learning from them. In doing so, they would explain that they were benefiting from the research done by their teammates. On occasion they would thank specific individuals by name.

The analysis topics pick up on individuals explaining their arguments in more detail, often using the type of logical and probabilistic reasoning tools that previous research suggests lead to better predictions (Mellers et al., 2014). Topic 12 picks up on individuals sharing information. While the words displayed in Figure 10 help to convey this, it is always useful when using topic models to also look at example documents that are heavily associated with a topic. This can be seen in Figure 11, which provides several examples of teammates giving information they found or discussing information found by others. Topic 33 contains a number of words associated with probabilistic reasoning. Earlier research suggests that predictions that do not admit uncertainty one way or the other are likely driven by biases that are unhelpful for ultimate prediction performance. Figure 12 provides one such example, which in this case included an elaboration across a number of relevant outcomes.

Interestingly, in both Figures 11 and 12 we see examples of individuals providing analysis but also engaging with teammates. In Figure 11 this comes in the form of the person noting that they are “following teammates” and in Figure 12 in the form of an individual inquiry about the probability predictions of their teammates. This illustrates how the model allows for any explanation to be a mixture of topics. But it also suggests that perhaps teamwork might be particularly effective if it is combined with analysis, illustrating the use of metacognition.20

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20For example, the following two entries were highly connected to both topic 2 and 33. “[name omitted] I agree with your assessment. I’m not going stronger to the yes side because these talks with decentralized
Figure 10: Top words for three topics from 40 topic STM model (top row). Marginal effect of treatment conditions on topic prevalence (bottom row).

Figure 11: Example explanations for topic 12.
The statistics of it First Ahn Moon will decide who will run I give Ahn a probability A and Moon 1 A Then one of them will fight Park and win with probability B For simplicity B may be same for Ahn as for Moon Hence Ahn wins with probability A B Moon with 1 A B and Park with 1 B br/ Putting a little bit of hedge into it to account for the scoring rule I make it 45 26 29 0 br/ If Ahn and Moon had different chances of defeating Park as of now I have no idea we could distinguish probabilities B1 B2 Then Ahn would win with probability A B1 Moon with 1 A B2 and Park with A 1 B1 1 A 1 B2 For example if my beliefs were A 55 B1 45 B2 50 I would predict 52 23 25 0 and hedge maybe 46 27 27 0 br/ It would be great to know yall’s A B1 B2

Figure 12: Example explanations for topic 33.

What is the relationship between the explanation an individual gives for their predictions and their forecasting accuracy on a particular forecasting question? This can provide additional evidence to test hypothesis 3 because it shows what types of teamwork lead to more accurate decision-making. We therefore investigate whether individuals who engage with their teammates and utilize source information and probabilistic reasoning in their analysis perform better on predictions. To measure performance on a prediction task, we use an individual’s final prediction score standardize by prediction task. We scale this measure such that higher scores are more accurate. We regress this dependent variable on teamwork topic 2, one of the analysis topics, an interaction between the two, and a set of control variables. In particular, we control for the number of days since the prediction was first posted, a dummy variable for whether the prediction came from year 2 or 3, the overall length of the explanation, and fixed-effects for each prediction task.

Results produced for each of the analysis topics demonstrates how super teams use rebel groups types of questions are fuzzy for me and I don’t have enough expertise on this to be seen as leading the way higher and maybe instilling false confidence in others on the team. But if I see others on the team assess this and move their prediction higher I’ll probably do the same.” “Following teammates Assuming 63 probability we’ll know with 95 certainty on 9 10 that the 9 24 elections are on and applying early closing optimization as if there were a 9 10 event that could close the question early with probability 95 gives 71 as the optimal current forecast. I think those assumptions are conservative.”
metacognition to excel, illustrating a key cognitive pathway whereby groups can more effectively forecast on geopolitical issues. Table 1 presents two models that exclusively use the super teams. The first interacts Topic 2 and 12 and the second model interacts Topic 2 and 33. The key result from each of these tables is a strong and positive interaction between the teamwork topic and the analysis topic, but only for super teams.\(^{21}\) One factor that appears to make the team process of super teams much more effective is a simultaneous engagement with one’s own analysis as well as the views of others, illustrating the hypothesized metacognition process.

### 5.3 Summary

Investigations of the patterns and contents of team communication show strong support for hypotheses 2 and 3 that successful teams are decentralized and employ a discourse

\(^{21}\) Separate analysis of all groups are presented in the appendix. We found no interactions between the teamwork and analytical topics for trained and untrained teams.
including metacognition. Successful teams have members who engage more intensively (length of response) and extensively (number of explanations). Particularly distinctive of the highly successful super teams is continued engagement after the first explanation.

Importantly for super teams these discussions are actually team efforts; the most prolific responder typically gives 3-6 times as many explanations as the average member of their team. By contrast, around half of IFPs for other teams (trained and untrained alike) have the most prolific responder contributing 8 or more times the team average. These team dynamics translate directly into accuracy. Teams with a greater fraction of their members responding to IFPs have better forecasting scores even when controlling for super team membership and training.

We’ve also shown that it is not just the patterns of engagement but the content of that engagement which lead to higher accuracy. For super teams, a combination of discourse on teamwork and analysis is a strong predictor of high forecast accuracy. This suggests that more than teamwork alone, a key predictor of group success in forecasting on national security issues is the combination of that teamwork with discussion and contribution of new analysis of the problem at hand.

6 Conclusion

Whether groups can accurately assess the world and make good decisions is a vital question in the study of politics. In this paper, we use data from the Good Judgment Project, a multi-year geopolitical forecasting effort featuring thousands of forecasters—some working as individuals, some as teams—making hundreds of thousands of predictions. In contrast to the gloomy expectations of some of the literature on group decision-making, including groupthink, we find that forecasting teams far outperformed individuals at accurately predicting diverse geopolitical events, including whether North Korea would test a nuclear weapon by a certain date and who would win elections in countries around the world.

Simple statistical analysis shows that teams outperform individuals, suggesting that there are ways to overcome groupthink. We further illustrate that group success is not simply due to putting high-performing individuals together with a regression discontinuity
design that demonstrates how, for forecasters of relatively similar ability, being placed on a team led to more forecasting success.

The results also demonstrate why some groups succeed while others fail. More successful teams were more engaged—with members making more comments per person and with more members of the team commenting. In some ways, this may reflect familiar patterns from politics and business. Hierarchical teams where only a few people speak, dominating the conversation, are, on average, less successful than teams that accept input from a broader representation of team members. Moreover, teams that more effectively employed training on cognitive de-biasing and probability judgments, demonstrated with topic models, were more accurate than those that did not. More accurate groups not only feature individual analysis, though, but genuine teamwork where individuals react to, and update their beliefs, in response to the arguments made by their teammates.

Given that nearly all major government decisions occur through a group process (even when the president makes the final call at the end of the day), these results are striking and important. Theoretically, these results suggest new pathways for case studies on effective versus ineffective government decision-making. They also suggest that, rather than framing questions in terms of whether groups succeed or fail, research should focus on scope conditions. Finally, these results also offer potential lessons for how to improve the ability of groups within the government to understand and anticipate world events, certainly including but not necessarily limited to geopolitical forecasting.
References


## A GJP Questions

The list below are all forecasting questions released in years 2 and 3 of the IARPA forecasting tournament. The first question launched on June 18, 2012, and the last was launched
on April 6, 2014. Questions with an * refer to additional definitional information available to forecasters. We exclude that detail for convenience sake, but it is available upon request.

- Will 1 Euro buy less than $1.20 US dollars at any point before 1 January 2013?
- Will Aleksandr Lukashenko remain president of Belarus through 30 June 2012?
- Will a foreign or multinational military force fire on, invade, or enter Iran before 1 September 2012?
- Will Syria’s Arab League membership be reinstated* by 31 December 2012?
- By 31 December 2012, will the UK officially announce its intention* to withdraw from the EU?
- Will Iran successfully detonate a nuclear device, either atmospherically, underground, or underwater before 1 January 2013?
- Who will win Venezuela’s 2012 presidential election?
- Will a foreign or multinational military force fire on, invade, or enter Syria between 6 March 2012 and 31 December 2012?
- Will the Nigerian government and Boko Haram commence official talks before 31 December 2012?
- Will there be a significant* lethal confrontation involving government forces in the South China Sea or East China Sea between 23 January 2012 and 31 December 2012?
- Will Mario Monti resign, lose re-election/confidence vote, or vacate the office of Prime Minister of Italy before 1 January 2013?
- Will at least one Taliban representative be appointed to serve as a minister in the Afghan government before 1 January 2013?
- Will Zimbabwe commence a presidential election before 1 January 2013?
- Will there be a significant* outbreak of H5N1 in China in 2012?
- Will the Colombian government and FARC commence official talks before 1 January 2013?
- Will the Russian military deploy* additional Iskander missiles before 1 February 2013?
- Will the Republic of Macedonia* be a NATO member before 1 April 2013?
- Will Kim Jong-un resign or otherwise vacate the office of Supreme Leader of North Korea before 1 April 2013?
- Will any country officially announce its intention to withdraw* from the Eurozone before 1 April 2013?
- Will Standard and Poor’s downgrade the United Kingdom’s Foreign Long Term credit rating at any point between 18 June 2012 and 1 April 2013?
- When will Japan officially become a member of the Trans-Pacific Partnership?
- When will an Egyptian Referendum vote approve a new constitution?
- When will North Korea successfully detonate a nuclear device, either atmospherically, under-
ground, or underwater?

- When will the UN announce that Iran has signed an official nuclear monitoring deal with the UN?
- When will Bashar al-Assad resign or otherwise vacate the office of President of Syria?
- Will Libya commence legislative elections before 8 July 2012?
- Will the UN Security Council pass a new resolution before 1 April 2013 that supports military intervention* in Mali?
- Will Fayez al-Tarawneh resign or otherwise vacate the office of Prime Minister of Jordan before 1 January 2013?
- When will Viktor Orban resign or otherwise vacate the office of Prime Minister of Hungary?
- Who will win Sierra Leone’s next Presidential election?
- Will Raja Pervez Ashraf resign or otherwise vacate the office of Prime Minister of Pakistan before 1 April 2013?
- When will South Korea and Japan sign a new military intelligence pact*?
- Will the Romanian people approve the removal of Traian Basescu from the office of President of Romania in a referendum vote before 1 August 2012?
- Will Spanish government generic 10-year bond yields equal or exceed 7% at any point before 1 September 2012?
- When will Nouri al-Maliki resign, lose confidence vote, or vacate the office of Prime Minister of Iraq?
- Will Israel officially announce that it recognizes the Armenian genocide before 1 April 2013?
- Will the Palestinian group Islamic Jihad significantly violate its cease-fire with Israel before 30 September 2012?
- When will Libya name a new prime minister?
- Will Moody’s issue a new downgrade on the long-term ratings for any of the eight major French banks between 30 July 2012 and 31 December 2012?
- Will Syria use chemical or biological weapons before 1 January 2013?
- Will Victor Ponta resign or vacate the office of Prime Minister of Romania before 1 November 2012?
- Will Moody’s issue a new downgrade of the long term debt rating of the Government of Germany between 30 July 2012 and 31 March 2013?
- Will al-Shabaab commence official talks with the Somali government before 1 January 2013?
- When will the Free Syrian Army gain control of the city of Aleppo?
- Will the United Kingdom’s Liberal Democrats and Conservatives remain in a coalition through 1 April 2013?
- Will Kuwait commence parliamentary elections before 1 October 2012?
• Will the number of registered Syrian conflict refugees reported by the UNHCR exceed 250,000 at any point before 1 April 2013?
• Will Israel officially establish a date for early elections before 6 November 2012?
• Will the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (North Korea) and the Republic of Korea (South Korea) commence official bilateral talks before 1 August 2013?
• Will a foreign or multinational military force invade, enter or significantly* fire on Iran before 21 January 2013?
• Will at least one individual be convicted of the July 2011 killing of Iranian nuclear physicist Darioush Rezaeinejad by an Iranian court of law before 1 January 2013?
• Will any government force gain control of the Somali town of Kismayo before 1 November 2012?
• Who will win Ghana’s next Presidential election?
• Will the IMF officially announce before 1 January 2013 that an agreement has been reached to lend Egypt at least 4 billion USD?
• Will the sentence of any of the three members of the band Pussy Riot who were convicted of hooliganism be reduced, nullified, or suspended before 1 December 2012?
• What change will the European Union Council (“EUC”) make with respect to Bulgaria and Romania’s inclusion in the Schengen area* before 1 February 2013?
• Will Mariano Rajoy resign or otherwise vacate the office of Prime Minister of Spain before 1 February 2013?
• Will the Yuan to Dollar exchange rate on 31 December 2012 be more than 5% different than the 31 August 2012 exchange rate?
• Before 1 April 2013, will the Egyptian government officially announce it has started construction of a nuclear power plant at Dabaa?
• What change will occur in the FAO Food Price index during September 2012?
• Will the Vice President of Iraq, Tariq al-Hashimi’s, death sentence be overturned before 1 November 2012?
• Before 1 December 2012, will Joseph Kony be *captured by a Ugandan, foreign or multinational military/law enforcement force?
• Will Japan and North Korea announce an agreement to establish formal diplomatic relations before 1 April 2013?
• Will Sudan and South Sudan sign a border security agreement before 1 December 2012?
• Before 1 April 2013 will the North Korean government officially announce it has invited UN nuclear inspectors to visit the country?
• Will a significant* Turkish military force invade or enter Syria between 9 October 2012 and 30 November 2012?
Will the Malian government and Ansar Dine commence official talks before 1 April 2013?

Will the new leader of Japan’s Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) Shinzo Abe be declared Prime Minister of Japan before 1 October 2013?

Which political parties will be a part of the next Lithuanian coalition government?

What will the number of registered Syrian conflict refugees reported by the UNHCR be as of 1 December 2012?

Will Liu Yandong be selected as a member of the next Politburo Standing Committee of the Communist Party of China?

Will the IMF officially announce sanctions on Argentina before 1 February 2013 if the International Monetary Fund (IMF) officially announces that Argentina has failed to provide the IMF with sufficient growth and inflation data before 20 December 2012?

Will Iran and the U.S. commence official nuclear program talks* before 1 April 2013?

Will the Canadian consulate in Tehran officially re-open at any time before 1 April 2013?

Will Israel launch an airstrike against Sudan between 5 November 2012 and 31 December 2012?

Who will win the next South Korean presidential election?

Will the sentence of any of the seven Italian experts convicted of manslaughter for failing to "adequately warn" about the L’Aquila earthquake be reduced, nullified, or suspended before 1 April 2013?

Will SandP downgrade India’s credit rating between 5 November 2012 and 31 January 2013?

Will a banking union be approved in the EU council before 1 March 2013?

Will the Chinese consumer confidence score for the month of November 2012 drop below 99?

Will the trial of Ahmed Shafik begin before 1 January 2013?

Will a *significant Israeli military force invade or enter the Gaza strip between 19 November and 30 November 2012?

Will the Turkish government release imprisoned Kurdish rebel leader Abdullah Ocalan before 1 April 2013?

Will the Taliban and the Afghan government commence official peace talks before 1 September 2013?

Will Mohammed Morsi cease to be President of Egypt before 1 April 2013?

Will opposition forces in Syria seize control of the Syrian city of Aleppo by 30 April 2013?

Will Benjamin Netanyahu resign or otherwise vacate the office of Prime Minister of Israel before 1 April 2013?

Will a significant* foreign or multinational military force invade or enter Iran between 17 December 2012 and 31 March 2013?

Will Mahmoud Ahmadinejad resign or otherwise vacate the office of President of Iran before 1
April 2013?

- Will the United Nations Security Council pass a new resolution directly concerning Iran between 17 December 2012 and 31 March 2013?
- Will Iran sign an IAEA Structured Approach document before 1 April 2013?
- Before 1 April 2013, will substantial* evidence emerge that Iran has enriched any uranium above 27%
- Will M23 seize, recapture, or otherwise occupy the city of Goma at any time before 1 April 2013?
- Who will be the next president of Cyprus?
- Will North Korea attempt launch of a multistage rocket between 7 January 2013 and 1 September 2013?
- Will there be a substantial* lethal confrontation involving Iraqi government forces and Kurdish fighters before 1 April 2013?
- What will the number of registered Malian conflict refugees reported by the UNHCR be as of 1 March 2013?
- Will the official US Dollar to Venezuelan Bolivar exchange rate exceed 4.35 at any point before 1 April 2013?
- Will Uhuru Kenyatta be found guilty of any charges by the International Criminal Court before 1 September 2013?
- Will Italian ten-year government bond yields be below 4% as of 31 March 2013?
- Will any foreign or multinational military force significantly* attack North Korea before 1 April 2013?
- Will a measurable* Israeli military force invade or enter Syria between 4 February 2013 and 1 April 2013?
- Will Egypt lift the state of emergency in Port Said, Suez, and Ismailiya before 25 February 2013?
- Will a measurable* Syrian military force invade or enter Israel between 4 February 2013 and 1 April 2013?
- Will Hamadi Jebali cease to be Prime Minister of Tunisia before 1 April 2013?
- Will Mali commence presidential elections before 1 January 2014?
- When will Mariano Rajoy vacate the office of Prime Minister of Spain?
- Will the Malian government and National Movement for the Liberation of Azawad (MNLA) begin official talks before 1 April 2013?
- Who will be the next Pope?
- Will Egypt commence parliamentary elections before 23 April 2013?
- Will a Zimbabwean referendum vote approve a new constitution before 1 April 2013?
- Will Standard and Poor’s improve Tunisia’s sovereign credit rating or outlook before 10 April 2013?
Will France withdraw at least 500 troops from Mali before 10 April 2013?

When will Italy next form a new government?

Will the Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) hold a relative majority of seats in the Japanese Parliament’s upper house following the next elections?

Will the Syrian government commence official talks with Syrian opposition forces before 1 September 2013?

Will Euro buy less than $1.27 at any point before 10 April 2013?

Will Standard and Poor’s improve Cyprus’ sovereign credit rating or outlook before 10 April 2013?

When will South Korean workers resume work at the Kaesong Industrial Complex in North Korea?

What will China’s official quarterly GDP growth rate for Q3 2013 be?

Before 1 May 2014, will Chinese armed forces or maritime law enforcement forces attempt to interdict or make physical contact with at least one U.S. government naval vessel or airplane or Japanese government naval vessel or airplane that it claims is in its territorial waters or airspace?

Will Iran blockade the Strait of Hormuz before 1 January 2014?

When will the International Monetary Fund announce that it has ratified a change to the voting shares for its member countries?

Will Libya complete elections for a Constitutional Commission before 1 October 2013?

Will a significant North Korean military force violate the Military Demarcation Line (MDL) of the Korean Demilitarized Zone (DMZ) before 1 October 2013?

Will Turkey ratify a new constitution before 1 February 2014?

Will Angela Merkel win the next election for Chancellor of Germany?

Before 1 January 2014, will the government of Afghanistan sign a Status of Forces Agreement (SOFA) permitting U.S. troops to remain in Afghanistan?

Will a foreign state or multinational coalition officially announce a no-fly zone over Syria before 1 January 2014?

Will there be a significant lethal confrontation in the East China Sea region between Japan and China before 1 January 2014?

Before 1 January 2014, will the government of Bolivia invite the U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) to resume work in Bolivia?

Will the World Trade Organization (WTO) rule in favor of the rare earth metals complaint filed by the European Union against China before 31 December 2013?

Will either the French or Swiss inquiries find elevated levels* of polonium in the remains of Yasser Arafat’s body?

What percentage of countries worldwide will Freedom House identify as "electoral democracies"
in its 2014 Freedom in the World Report?

- When will a U.N.-sponsored international conference on Syria convene with official representatives of both the Syrian government and the Syrian National Coalition in attendance?
- Will six-party talks with North Korea resume before 1 January 2014?
- Which of these events will occur before 1 May 2014?
- Before 1 May 2014, will Joseph Kony be *captured or *incapacitated by a Ugandan, foreign or multinational military/law enforcement force?
- Will Guinea commence legislative elections before 1 October 2013?
- Before 1 December 2013, will Egypt impose a constitutional ban on political parties based on *religion?
- Before 1 May 2014, will Nicolas Maduro vacate the office of President of Venezuela?
- Before 1 April 2014, will the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) inspect the Parchin Military Complex?
- Before 1 May 2014, will Iran *test a ballistic missile with a reported range greater than 2,500 km?
- Before 1 February 2014, will either India or Pakistan recall its High Commissioner from the other country?
- How much will *world economic output grow in 2013?
- Who will become the next Prime Minister of Australia?
- Will Syria attack Israel between 28 August 2013 and 31 December 2013?
- What will the outcome of Bo Xilai’s trial be?
- When will the official Chinese renminbi-to-U.S. dollar exchange rate exceed 0.17?
- Will Prince Khalifa bin Salman Al Khalifa be Prime Minister of Bahrain on 1 February 2014?
- Will China deploy any armed unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) over the territory of another country before 1 May 2014?
- Before 1 May 2014, will Iran abolish the office of President of the Islamic Republic?
- Between 11 September and 1 December 2013, what will be the highest daily close for the U.S. dollar-Japanese yen exchange rate?
- Will Nawaz Sharif vacate the office of Prime Minister of Pakistan before 1 May 2014?
- What will be Moody’s next action on the credit rating of the Government of Ireland between 11 September and 1 November 2013?
- Who will win the next presidential election to be held in Honduras?
- When will the United Nations Security Council next pass a new resolution directly concerning Syria’s chemical weapons?
- Will the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW) complete its initial on-site inspections of Syria’s declared chemical weapons sites before 1 December 2013?
• Who will be the head of government of Saudi Arabia as of 1 May 2014?

• When will the Leadership Council of the Islamic Emirate of Afghanistan announce that it accepts the constitution of the Republic of Afghanistan?

• Before 1 March 2014, will North Korea conduct another successful nuclear detonation?

• Before 1 March 2014, will Gazprom announce that it has unilaterally reduced natural-gas exports to Ukraine?

• Who will win the next presidential election in Georgia?

• Will China seize control* of the Second Thomas Shoal before 1 January 2014?

• Between 25 September 2013 and 31 March 2014, will any members or alternate members of the 18th Central Committee of the Communist Party of China be arrested on charges of bribery, embezzlement, or abuse of power?

• Will the *M-PESA system have a failure that results in at least 100,000 subscribers losing all ability to send and receive money from their accounts for at least 48 hours before 31 December 2013?

• Before or during its next plenary meeting, will the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China announce that it plans to reform the hukou system nationwide by 2015?

• Before 1 May 2014, will Russia sign an agreement with the de facto government of South Ossetia delineating the border between the two?

• Will defense expenditures in Japan’s initial draft budget for fiscal year 2014 exceed 1 percent of projected gross domestic product (GDP)?

• Before 1 May 2014, will the government of Colombia and the FARC sign a formal peace agreement?

• Before 1 May 2014, will any U.N. member state offer diplomatic recognition to the government of a new state on what is now territory of Syria, Turkey, or Iraq?

• Before 1 December 2013, will the government of Pakistan and Tehrik-i-Taliban Pakistan announce that they have agreed to engage in direct talks with one another?

• Before 1 May 2014, will construction begin on the Lamu oil pipeline?

• What will be the lowest end-of-day price of Brent Crude Oil between 16 October 2013 and 1 February 2014?

• Will the president of Brazil come to the United States for an official State Visit before 1 February 2014?

• Will the United Kingdom’s Tehran embassy *officially reopen before 31 December 2013?

• Before 1 January 2014, how many cases of the Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) occurring among pilgrims who attended the 2013 Hajj will be *reported?

• Will the INC (India National Congress) win more seats than any other party in the Lok Sabha in the 2014 General Elections in India?
• Will Facebook and/or Twitter be available in China’s Shanghai Free Trade Zone before 31 March 2014?
• Between 6 November 2013 and 1 April 2014, how many violent attacks will be reported on the Arab Gas Pipeline?
• Before 1 February 2014, will Iran officially announce that it has agreed to *significantly limit its uranium enrichment process?
• Before 1 May 2014, will Russia rescind its law barring US citizens from adopting Russian children?
• At the opening session of the 2014 UN Security Council, what country will sit in the non-permanent seat to which Saudi Arabia was elected in 2013?
• What will be the outcome of Chile’s next legislative elections?
• As of 31 March 2014, what will be the last total value of cumulative pledges to the Least Developed Countries Fund (LDCF) reported by the Global Environmental Facility (GEF)?
• Before 1 January 2014, will the Prime Minister of Japan visit the Yasukuni Shrine?
• What will be the projected real GDP growth for the world in 2014 in the International Monetary Fund’s April 2014 World Economic Outlook Report?
• Before 1 April 2014, will the government of Syria and the Syrian Supreme Military Command announce that they have agreed to a cease-fire?
• Which of the following will occur in the next municipal elections in Venezuela?
• Before 1 April 2014, will one or more countries impose a new requirement on travelers to show proof of a polio vaccination before entering the country?
• Between 13 November 2013 and 1 March 2014, what will be the peak value of the BofA Merrill Lynch Euro High Yield Index Option-Adjusted Spread?
• Before 1 May 2014, will any non-U.S. actor use, in a lethal confrontation, either a firearm containing a critical part made with 3D printing technology or a lethal explosive device containing a critical part made with 3D printing technology?
• Will Russia file a formal World Trade Organization (WTO) anti-dumping dispute against the European Union (EU) before 31 March 2014?
• Will South Korea and Japan sign a *new military intelligence pact before 1 March 2014?
• Before 1 May 2014, will China arrest Wang Zheng on charges of incitement to subvert state power and/or subversion of state power and/or incite separatism?
• Will North Kosovo experience any *election-related violence before 31 December 2013?
• Before 1 March 2014, will the U.S. and E.U. *officially announce that they have reached at least partial agreement on the terms of a Transatlantic Trade and Investment Partnership (TTIP)?
• Will the general elections in Guinea-Bissau commence on 16 March 2014 as planned?
• Before 1 May 2014, will the government of any country other than Armenia, Belarus, Kazakhstan,
Kyrgyzstan, Russia or Tajikistan announce its intention to join the Eurasian Customs Union?

• Between 4 December 2013 and 1 March 2014, will the European Commission *officially state that Italy is eligible for the investment clause?

• Before 1 March 2014, will the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) announce that it has visited the Gchine uranium mine site in Iran?

• Before 1 March 2014, will the European Commission (EC) announce that Turkey is permitted to open a *new chapter of accession negotiations?

• Will the six-party talks with North Korea resume before 1 May 2014?

• What will be the number of registered Syrian refugees reported by the UNHCR as of 1 April 2014?

• Will Israel release all of the 104 Palestinian prisoners from its jails before 1 May 2014?

• Will Thailand *commence parliamentary elections on or before 2 February 2014?

• Before 1 May 2014, will Myanmar *officially announce that construction of the Myitsone Dam will resume?

• How many countries will *officially ban WhatsApp before 1 May 2014?

• Before 1 May 2014, will the U.S. and the European Union reach an agreement on a plan to protect individuals’ data privacy?

• Will inflation in Japan reach 2 percent at any point before 1 April 2014?

• Before 31 March 2014, will the Slovenian government *officially announce that it will seek a loan from either the European Union bailout facilities or the IMF?

• How many Japanese nuclear reactors will be operational as of 31 March 2014?

• Will there be a *lethal confrontation between national military forces from China and Japan before 1 May 2014?

• Before 1 May 2014, will General Abdel Fattah al-Sisi announce that he plans to stand as a candidate in Egypt’s next presidential election?

• Before 1 May 2014, will Iran install any new *centrifuges?

• Before 1 May 2014, will China confiscate the catch or equipment of any foreign fishing vessels in the South China Sea for failing to obtain prior permission to enter those waters?

• Before 1 May 2014, will official representatives of the Syrian government and the Syrian opposition formally agree on a *political plan for Syria?

• Before 31 March 2014, will either Peru or India announce their intention to formally launch negotiations on a preferential trade agreement (PTA) with each other?

• Will the U.N. Security Council approve a U.N. peacekeeping operation for the Central African Republic before 1 April 2014?

• What will be the highest reported monthly average of Mexican oil exports to the United States between 5 February 2014 and 1 April 2014?
• Which of the following will occur first with regard to the state of emergency declared by the government of Thailand on 21 January 2014?
• Will Ukraine officially declare a state of emergency before 10 May 2014?
• Before 1 April 2014, will the government of Venezuela officially announce a reduction in government subsidies for gasoline prices?
• Will Viktor Yanukovich vacate the office of President of Ukraine before 10 May 2014?
• Before 1 May 2014, will Kenneth Bae leave North Korea?
• Will family reunions between South and North Korea begin on or before 25 February 2014?
• Before 1 May 2014, will China attempt to seize control of Zhongye Island?
• Will the European Central Bank (ECB) officially announce a plan to charge a negative interest rate on funds parked overnight at the ECB before 31 March 2014?
• Before 1 May 2014, will North Korea conduct a new multistage rocket or missile launch?
• Which party will win the largest number of seats in the next elections for Colombia’s Chamber of Representatives?
• Before 1 March 2014, will Russia purchase any additional Ukrainian government bonds?
• Will the European Union and/or the U.S. impose new sanctions on Viktor Yanukovich and/or members of his government before 10 May 2014?
• Will Argentina, Brazil, India, Indonesia, Turkey, and/or South Africa impose currency or capital controls before 1 May 2014?
• How many additional countries will announce restrictions on financial institutions and/or businesses converting Bitcoin to conventional currencies between 19 February 2014 and 30 April 2014?
• Will Syria’s mustard agent and key binary chemical weapon components be destroyed on or before the 31 March 2014 deadline established by the Executive Council of the Organization for the Prohibition of Chemical Weapons (OPCW)?
• How many people in the Central African Republic will be estimated as internally displaced by the U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) as of 1 May 2014?
• Will the U.N. Human Rights Council (UNHRC) adopt a resolution directly concerning Sri Lanka during its 25th regular session in March 2014?
• Will negotiations on the TransPacific Partnership (TPP) officially conclude before 1 May 2014?
• Will Russian armed forces invade or enter Kharkiv and/or Donetsk before 1 May 2014?
• Will there be a significant lethal confrontation between armed forces from Russia and Ukraine in Crimea before 1 April 2014?
• Will Recep Tayyip Erdogan vacate the office of Prime Minister of Turkey before 10 May 2014?
• Will the Israeli-Palestinian peace talks be extended beyond 29 April 2014?
• Will Pakistan and the TTP reach a peace agreement before 10 May 2014?
What will be the highest daily close for the U.S. dollar-Ukrainian hryvnia exchange rate between 5 March 2014 and 1 May 2014?

Will there be a significant attack on Israeli territory before 10 May 2014?

Will Bahrain, Egypt, Saudi Arabia, or the United Arab Emirates return their ambassadors to Qatar before 10 May 2014?

When will Yingluck Shinawatra vacate the office of Prime Minister of Thailand?

Before 10 May 2014, will Russia agree to conduct a joint naval exercise with Iran?

Will the Bank of Japan (BoJ) officially announce an enhancement of its quantitative and qualitative monetary easing (QQE) policy before 10 May 2014?

Between 29 May 2011 and 3 May 2014, how many fatalities in Nigeria will be attributed to Boko Haram?

Will Parti Quebecois hold a majority of seats in the Quebec legislature after the 2014 provincial election?

Before 1 May 2014, will the government of Myanmar sign a nationwide ceasefire agreement with the Nationwide Ceasefire Coordination Team (NCCT)?

Will China’s official annual GDP growth rate be less than 7.5 percent in Q1 2014?

Between 2 April 2014 and 10 May 2014, will Russia officially annex any additional Ukrainian territory?

Will Iran and the P5+1 countries officially announce an agreement regarding the Arak reactor before 10 May 2014?

How many additional countries will report cases of the Ebola virus as of 9 May 2014?

Will Iran and Russia officially sign an agreement regarding the exchange of oil for goods and services before 10 May 2014?

Will Nouri al-Maliki’s State of Law bloc win more seats than any other entity in the 2014 parliamentary elections in Iraq?

B Accessibility

While super teams and to a lesser extent trained teams had greater extensive and intensive engagement, were they also communicating in ways that are also accessible? Put differently, what can say about how easily others would be able to read their explanations. One (of many) such approach is to focus in on the number of syllables in words that the forecasters write. In particular, we calculated the ratio of syllables to number of words
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**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05, *p < 0.1

Table 2: OLS models of Topics 2, 12 and accuracy

for every document and then took the average of this ratio for each of our groups. Figure 13 presents the results, with average scores for each group plotted alongside a density description of the entire data set. While super teams had statistically higher scores, these differences were tiny.

C Additional Meta-Cognition Models

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22At times forecasters will embed weblinks whose number of syllables will be calculated to be very high (e.g., in the 1000's). To deal with this problem, we thresholded our syllabus algorithm to remove words with five or greater syllables. We obtain similar results with other thresholds. Thus our score ranges from 1 to 4, with 4 taken as less accessible explanation. This approach, which is related to Flesch-Kincaid scores, avoids the problem that related metrics utilize sentence level measures that for many explanations are unavailable due to not using punctuation.
Figure 13: Average ratio of syllables to words in explanation.
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*p < 0.01, **p < 0.05, *p < 0.1

Table 3: OLS models of Topics 2, 33 and accuracy