The Mathematics of Voting: Paradox, deception, and chaos

Marcus Pivato

Department of Mathematics, Trent University

http://xaravve.trentu.ca/voting.pdf

May 8, 2008

(ㅁ) (귀) (흔) (흔)

3

 $\mathcal{O} \mathcal{Q} \mathcal{O}$

actions
IECTIONS

Suppose people must choose between four alternatives A, B, C, or D. e.g....

(2/84)

(日) (四) (三) (三)

Suppose people must choose between four alternatives A, B, C, or D. e.g....

 ...Olympic judges must give the gold medal to Argentina, Brazil, Canada, or Denmark.

(2/84)

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0)

Suppose people must choose between four alternatives A, B, C, or D. e.g....

- …Olympic judges must give the gold medal to Argentina, Brazil, Canada, or Denmark.
- ...A committee must award a prize to one of four contestants Ariadne, Brynn, Chloe, or Desdemona.

(2/84)

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0)

Suppose people must choose between four alternatives A, B, C, or D. e.g....

- …Olympic judges must give the gold medal to Argentina, Brazil, Canada, or Denmark.
- ...A committee must award a prize to one of four contestants Ariadne, Brynn, Chloe, or Desdemona.
- …Pick one dessert for the dinner party: Apple cobbler, Banana cream pie, Chocolate cake, or *Dulce de leche*.

(2/84)

Suppose people must choose between four alternatives A, B, C, or D. e.g....

- …Olympic judges must give the gold medal to Argentina, Brazil, Canada, or Denmark.
- ...A committee must award a prize to one of four contestants Ariadne, Brynn, Chloe, or Desdemona.
- …Pick one dessert for the dinner party: Apple cobbler, Banana cream pie, Chocolate cake, or *Dulce de leche*.
- ...An federal election with four candidates: LiberAl, Bloc Quebecois, Conservative, or New Democratic.

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0)

(2/84)

Suppose people must choose between four alternatives A, B, C, or D. e.g....

- …Olympic judges must give the gold medal to Argentina, Brazil, Canada, or Denmark.
- ...A committee must award a prize to one of four contestants Ariadne, Brynn, Chloe, or Desdemona.
- …Pick one dessert for the dinner party: Apple cobbler, Banana cream pie, Chocolate cake, or *Dulce de leche*.
- ...An federal election with four candidates: LiberAl, Bloc Quebecois, Conservative, or New Democratic.

We can describe people's preferences with a table:



(2/84)

Suppose people must choose between four alternatives A, B, C, or D. e.g....

- ...Olympic judges must give the gold medal to Argentina, Brazil, Canada, or Denmark.
- ...A committee must award a prize to one of four contestants Ariadne, Brynn, Chloe, or Desdemona.
- …Pick one dessert for the dinner party: Apple cobbler, Banana cream pie, Chocolate cake, or *Dulce de leche*.
- ...An federal election with four candidates: LiberAl, Bloc Quebecois, Conservative, or New Democratic.

We can describe people's preferences with a table: e.g. this means that 10% of the people prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.

Electorate Pro	ofile	
Preferences	#	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22	
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25	
Total	100	
▲ 🗗 🕨 🔺 🖹 🕨 🖉 🕨	E	\mathfrak{O}_{Q}

(~

(2/84)

Suppose people must choose between four alternatives A, B, C, or D. e.g....

- ...Olympic judges must give the gold medal to Argentina, Brazil, Canada, or Denmark.
- ...A committee must award a prize to one of four contestants Ariadne, Brynn, Chloe, or Desdemona.
- …Pick one dessert for the dinner party: Apple cobbler, Banana cream pie, Chocolate cake, or *Dulce de leche*.
- ...An federal election with four candidates: LiberAl, Bloc Quebecois, Conservative, or New Democratic.

We can describe people's preferences with a table: e.g. this means that 10% of the people prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D. There is no unanimous favourite. We must have a vote...

Preferences # $A \succ B \succ C \succ D$ 10 $A \succ C \succ D \succ B$ 9 $A \succ D \succ B \succ C$ 11 $B \succ C \succ D \succ A$ 22 $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ 23 $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ 25 100 Total 5000 < 🗆 ▲ □ ▶ ▲ □ ▶ 1

Electorate Profile						
Preferences	#					
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10					
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9					
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11					
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22					
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23					
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25					
Total	100					

Consider an election with four candidates A, B, C, and D. (e.g. 10% of the voters prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.)

< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 > -

Sac

An election gone wrong....

Plurality Vote								
Preferences	#	А	В	С	D			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10						
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9						
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11						
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22					
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			23				
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25				25			
Total	100	30	22	23	25			
Ve	rdict:		Aw	ins.				

Consider an election with four candidates A, B, C, and D. (e.g. 10% of the voters prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.) Clearly A wins the election, with 30% of the vote.

(日) (四) (三) (三)

Sac

A versus B, C, and D							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A	C	- A	D	- A

(e.g. 10% of the voters prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.) Clearly A wins the election, with 30% of the vote.

But most voters prefer any other candidate over A:

A versus B, C, and D							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A	C >	- A	D	- A

(e.g. 10% of the voters prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.) Clearly A wins the election, with 30% of the vote.

But most voters prefer any other candidate over A:

70% prefer *B* to *A*.....

A versus B, C, and D							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A	C	- A	D	- A

(e.g. 10% of the voters prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.) Clearly A wins the election, with 30% of the vote.

But most voters prefer any other candidate over A:

70% prefer B to A......70% prefer C to A.....

A versus B, C, and D							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A	C >	- A	D	- A

(e.g. 10% of the voters prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.) Clearly A wins the election, with 30% of the vote.

But most voters prefer any other candidate over A:

70% prefer *B* to A......70% prefer *C* to A......70% prefer *D* to A.

A versus B, C, and D							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A	C >	- A	D	- A

(e.g. 10% of the voters prefer A to B, prefer B to C, and prefer C to D.) Clearly A wins the election, with 30% of the vote.

But most voters prefer any other candidate over A:

70% prefer *B* to *A*.....70% prefer *C* to *A*.....70% prefer *D* to *A*. How did *A* win?

(4/84)

<ロ> < 四> < 四> < 四> < 三> < 三> < 三>

A versus B, C, and D							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70
Verdict: $B \succ A$ $C \succ A$ $D \succ A$							
Idea: More than 50% of voters despise A, but the 'anti-A' vote is 'split'							
between candida	tes <mark>B</mark> ,	C, and [), so <mark>A</mark> s	till wins.			

(4/84)

《曰》 《圖》 《콜》 《콜》

 $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathcal{A}}$

A versus B, C, and D							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70
Verdict: $B \succ A$ $C \succ A$ $D \succ A$							- A
Idea: More than	50%	of voters	despise	A, but t	he 'anti-	A' vote i	s 'split'

between candidates B, C, and D, so A still wins.

Problem: With four candidates, no single candidate gets a clear majority.

(4/84)

A versus B, C, and D							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A	C >	- A	D	- A

Idea: More than 50% of voters despise A, but the 'anti-A' vote is 'split' between candidates B, C, and D, so A still wins.

Problem: With four candidates, no single candidate gets a clear majority. (We say *A* wins with a **plurality**, meaning she gets the biggest fraction of votes, but still a minority).

(4/84)

A versus B, C, and D								
Preferences	#	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10		
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9		
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22	
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25	
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70	
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A	C>	- A	D>	- A	

Idea: More than 50% of voters despise A, but the 'anti-A' vote is 'split' between candidates B, C, and D, so A still wins.

Problem: With four candidates, no single candidate gets a clear majority. (We say *A* wins with a **plurality**, meaning she gets the biggest fraction of votes, but still a minority).

Solution? Have a 'run-off election' between A and the second-place candidate

(4/84)

A versus B, C, and D								
Preferences	#	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10		10		
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		9		
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11		11		11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		22		22	
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23		23		23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		25	
Total	100	30	70	30	70	30	70	
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A	C>	- A	D>	- A	

Idea: More than 50% of voters despise A, but the 'anti-A' vote is 'split' between candidates B, C, and D, so A still wins.

Problem: With four candidates, no single candidate gets a clear majority. (We say *A* wins with a **plurality**, meaning she gets the biggest fraction of votes, but still a minority).

Solution? Have a 'run-off election' between A and the second-place candidate (In this case, this is D, who got 25% of the vote).

(5/84)

A versus D							
Preferences	#	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$				
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10					
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9					
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11					
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22				
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23				
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25				
Total	100	30	70				
Ve	D>	- A					

In the run-off election, D crushes A, winning with 70% of the vote.

(5/84)

A versus D versus C							
Preferences	#	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$	$C \succ D$	$D \succ C$		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		
Total	100	30	70	64	36		
Ve	D>	- A	C >	- D			
n the run-off election D crushes A winning with 70% of t							

In the run-off election, D crushes A, winning with 70% of the vote. **Problem:** 64% of the voters prefer C to D!

(5/84)

A versus D versus C							
Preferences	#	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$	$C \succ D$	$D \succ C$		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		
Total	100	30	70	64	36		
Ve	Verdict:		- A	<i>C</i> >	- D		

In the run-off election, D crushes A, winning with 70% of the vote. **Problem:** 64% of the voters prefer C to D! The 'wrong' candidate won again! How?

(5/84)

500

A versus D versus C							
Preferences	#	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$	$C \succ D$	$D \succ C$		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		
Total	100	30	70	64	36		
Verdict:		D>	- A	C >	- D		

In the run-off election, D crushes A, winning with 70% of the vote. **Problem:** 64% of the voters prefer C to D! The 'wrong' candidate won again! How?

Idea: The 'anti-D vote' was split between B and C.

(5/84)

Sac

A versus D versus C							
Preferences	#	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$	$C \succ D$	$D \succ C$		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		
Total	100	30	70	64	36		
Verdict:		D >	- A	C>	- D		

In the run-off election, D crushes A, winning with 70% of the vote. **Problem:** 64% of the voters prefer C to D!

- The 'wrong' candidate won again! How?
- **Idea:** The 'anti-D vote' was split between B and C.
- Thus, D obtained second place, even though most voters prefer C.

(5/84)

A versus D versus C							
Preferences	#	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$	$C \succ D$	$D \succ C$		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		
Total	100	30	70	64	36		
Verdict:		D	- A	C>	- D		

In the run-off election, D crushes A, winning with 70% of the vote. **Problem:** 64% of the voters prefer C to D!

The 'wrong' candidate won again! How?

Idea: The 'anti-D vote' was split between B and C.

Thus, D obtained second place, even though most voters prefer C.

Solution? Have a *sequence* of *two*-candidate elections.

(5/84)

A versus D versus C							
Preferences	#	$A \succ D$	$D \succ A$	$C \succ D$	$D \succ C$		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10		10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25		
Total	100	30	70	64	36		
Ve	D>	- A	C >	- D			

In the run-off election, D crushes A, winning with 70% of the vote. **Problem:** 64% of the voters prefer C to D!

The 'wrong' candidate won again! How?

Idea: The 'anti-D vote' was split between B and C.

Thus, D obtained second place, even though most voters prefer C.

Solution? Have a *sequence* of *two*-candidate elections.

In each of these, the winner must have a clear majority.















Finally, if we match *this* winner (B) against D; then D wins, with 68%.



Jac.

Finally, if we match *this* winner (*B*) against *D*; then *D* wins, with 68%. Thus, *D* wins the election.



Finally, if we match *this* winner (B) against D; then D wins, with 68%. Thus, D wins the election. Such a sequence of pairwise votes is often used by

(ㅁ) (귀) (흔) (흔)

committees to approve motions and amendments.



Finally, if we match *this* winner (B) against D; then D wins, with 68%.

Thus, D wins the election. Such a sequence of pairwise votes is often used by committees to approve motions and amendments.

Problem: With a different 'agenda' of matches, we get a different winner:


With yet another 'agenda', we can get a yet another winner. $D \xrightarrow{70 (D \succ A)} D \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \succ B)} D \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{36 (D \succ C)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \succ D)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \rightarrowtail D)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \longmapsto D)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \coprod D)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 ($

(7/84)

ロ> < 日> < 三> < 三> < 三> < 三</p>

With yet another 'agenda', we can get a yet another winner. $D \xrightarrow{70 (D \succ A)} D \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \succ B)} D \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{36 (D \succ C)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \succ B)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \rightarrowtail B)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \longmapsto B)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D \coprod B)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 ($

Problem: The winner depends upon the *order* in which we match the candidates against each other.

With yet another 'agenda', we can get a yet another winner. $D \xrightarrow{70 (D > A)} D \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D > B)} D \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{36 (D > C)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 (D > B)} C \text{ wins} \xrightarrow{68 ($

Problem: The winner depends upon the *order* in which we match the candidates against each other.

With a suitable **agenda** of pairwise votes, we can make *any one* of B, C, or D the 'winner' of the election!

With yet another 'agenda', we can get a yet another winner. $D \frac{70 (D > A)}{D}$



Problem: The winner depends upon the *order* in which we match the candidates against each other.

With a suitable **agenda** of pairwise votes, we can make *any one* of B, C, or D the 'winner' of the election!

Solution? Have a *sequence* of run-off elections. Start with all candidates, and after each election, drop the lowest-ranked candidate.

(8/84)

Electorate Profile				
Preferences	#			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25			
Total	100			

The instant runoff system (also called Hare's method) works as follows:

Electorate Profile				
Preferences	#			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25			
Total	100			

The instant runoff system (also called Hare's method) works as follows: 1. Each voter writes her *complete* preference ordering on her ballot. Thus, we have all the information in the above table.

Sac

Majority Vote					
Preferences	#	Α	В	C	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25				25
Total	100	30	22	23	25
Verdict:		No	major	ity wi	nner

The instant runoff system (also called Hare's method) works as follows:

1. Each voter writes her *complete* preference ordering on her ballot.

Thus, we have all the information in the above table.

2. We count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

Majority Vote					
Preferences	#	Α	В	C	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25				25
Total	100	30	22	23	25
Verdict:		No	major	ity wi	nner

The instant runoff system (also called Hare's method) works as follows:

1. Each voter writes her *complete* preference ordering on her ballot.

Thus, we have all the information in the above table.

2. We count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

3(a). If some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

(8/84)

Majority Vote					
Preferences	#	Α	В	C	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25				25
Total	100	30	22	23	25
Verdict:		No	major	ity wi	nner

The instant runoff system (also called Hare's method) works as follows:

1. Each voter writes her *complete* preference ordering on her ballot.

Thus, we have all the information in the above table.

2. We count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

3(a). If some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

3(b). Otherwise, we remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, B.

(8/84)

Removal of B:							
Preferences	#	$A \succ D \succ C$	$D \succ C \succ A$	$C \succ A \succ D$	$D \succ A \succ C$	$A \succ C \succ D$	$C \succ D \succ A$
$\mathbf{A}\succ\mathbf{X}\succ C\succ D$	10					10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ X$	9					9	
$A \succ D \succ X \succ C$	11	11					
$\mathbf{X}\succ C\succ D\succ \mathbf{A}$	22						22
$C \succ D \succ \mathbb{X} \succ A$	23						23
$D \succ \mathbf{X} \succ C \succ \mathbf{A}$	25		25				
Total	100	11	25	0	0	19	45

The instant runoff system (also called Hare's method) works as follows:

1. Each voter writes her complete preference ordering on her ballot.

Thus, we have all the information in the above table.

2. We count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

- 3(a). If some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.
- 3(b). Otherwise, we remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, B.
- 4. We reconstruct the voter's preference orders, with B removed.

Majority Vote					
Preferences	#	Α	С	D	
$A \succ C \succ D$	19	19			
$A \succ D \succ C$	11	11			
$C \succ D \succ A$	45		45		
$D \succ C \succ A$	25			25	
Total	100	30	45	25	
Verdict:		No	winn	er.	

1. Each voter writes her *complete* preference ordering on her ballot. Thus, we have all the information in the above table.

2. We count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

3(a). If some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

3(b). Otherwise, we remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, B.

- 4. We reconstruct the voter's preference orders, with B removed.
- 5. Again, we count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

Majority Vote					
Preferences	#	Α	С	D	
$A \succ C \succ D$	19	19			
$A \succ D \succ C$	11	11			
$C \succ D \succ A$	45		45		
$D \succ C \succ A$	25			25	
Total	100	30	45	25	
Verdict:		No	winn	er.	

Thus, we have all the information in the above table.

2. We count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

3(a). If some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

3(b). Otherwise, we remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, B.

4. We reconstruct the voter's preference orders, with B removed.

5. Again, we count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

6(a) Again, if some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

Majority Vote					
Preferences	#	Α	С	D	
$A \succ C \succ D$	19	19			
$A \succ D \succ C$	11	11			
$C \succ D \succ A$	45		45		
$D \succ C \succ A$	25			25	
Total	100	30	45	25	
Verdict:		No	winn	er.	

2. We count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

3(a). If some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

3(b). Otherwise, we remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, B.

4. We reconstruct the voter's preference orders, with B removed.

5. Again, we count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

6(a) Again, if some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

6(b) Otherwise, we again remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, D.

Removal of D					
Preferences	#	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$		
A ≻ X >≻C	11	11			
⋈ ≻ <i>C</i> ≻ <i>A</i>	25		25		
A ≻ C ≻ X 0	19	19			
<i>C</i> ≻ X ≻ <i>A</i>	45		45		
Total	100	30	70		

3(a). If some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

3(b). Otherwise, we remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, B.

4. We reconstruct the voter's preference orders, with B removed.

5. Again, we count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

6(a) Again, if some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

6(b) Otherwise, we again remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, D.

7. We continue this process until some candidate wins a strict majority.

Elector	Electorate				
Preferences	#				
$A \succ C$	30				
$C \succ A$	70				
Verdict:	C wins.				

3(b). Otherwise, we remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, B.

4. We reconstruct the voter's preference orders, with B removed.

5. Again, we count the number of voters who favour each candidate.

6(a) Again, if some candidate has a strict majority of votes, she wins.

6(b) Otherwise, we again remove the candidate who is favoured by the fewest voters —in this case, D.

7. We continue this process until some candidate wins a strict majority.In this case, it is C.

"The greatest improvement in government"?

Electorate Profile				
Preferences	#			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25			
Total	100			

Hare's 'Instant Runoff' is used to elect the President of Ireland, the mayors of London and San Francisco, and the host city for the Olympic Games.

"The greatest improvement in government"?

Electorate Profile				
Preferences	#			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11			
$\mathbf{B}\succ \mathbf{C}\succ \mathbf{D}\succ \mathbf{A}$	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25			
Total	100			

Hare's 'Instant Runoff' is used to elect the President of Ireland, the mayors of London and San Francisco, and the host city for the Olympic Games. In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government."

"The greatest improvement in government"?

Electorate Profile				
Preferences	#			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25			
Total	100			

Hare's 'Instant Runoff' is used to elect the President of Ireland, the mayors of London and San Francisco, and the host city for the Olympic Games. In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government." However, Instant Runoff has a little problem.

Sac

Electorate Profile			
Preferences	#		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10		
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9		
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		
Total	100		

Hare's 'Instant Runoff' is used to elect the President of Ireland, the mayors of London and San Francisco, and the host city for the Olympic Games. In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government." However, Instant Runoff has a little problem. Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ".

Electorate Profile			
Preferences	#		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10		
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9		
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		
Total	100		

Hare's 'Instant Runoff' is used to elect the President of Ireland, the mayors of London and San Francisco, and the host city for the Olympic Games. In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government." However, Instant Runoff has a little problem.

Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%.

Electorate Profile			
Preferences	#		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10		
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9		
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11		
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	27		
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	21		
Total	100		

Hare's 'Instant Runoff' is used to elect the President of Ireland, the mayors of London and San Francisco, and the host city for the Olympic Games. In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government."

However, Instant Runoff has a little problem.

Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%. Note that this change in public opinion is strictly favourable towards $\subseteq_{D \sim B \succ A}$ ".

Electorate Profile				
Preferences	#			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	27			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	21			
Total	100			

In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government."

However, Instant Runoff has a little problem.

Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%. Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch....

Majority Vote					
Preferences	#	Α	В	C	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9			
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	27			27	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	21				21
Total	100	30	22	27	21
Verdict:		No	major	ity wi	nner

In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government."

However, Instant Runoff has a little problem.

Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%. Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch.... During the first round, D has the lowest support, so she is eliminated.

(9/84)

Removal of D:							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B \succ C$	$B \succ C \succ A$	$C \succ A \succ B$	$B \succ A \succ C$	$A \succ C \succ B$	$C \succ B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10	10					
A ≻ C ≻ X ≻ B	9					9	
$A \succ \mathbb{X} \succ B \succ C$	11	11					
$B \succ C \succ X \triangleright A$	22		22				
$C \succ \mathbb{X} \succ B \succ A$	27						27
$\mathbf{X} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{C} \succ \mathbf{A}$	21		21				
Total	100	21	43	0	0	9	27

In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government."

However, Instant Runoff has a little problem.

Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%. Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch.... During the first round, D has the lowest support, so she is eliminated.

Majority Vote				
Preferences	#	Α	В	С
$A \succ B \succ C$	21	21		
$A \succ C \succ B$	9	9		
$B \succ C \succ A$	43		43	
$C \succ B \succ A$	27			27
Total	100	30	43	27
Verdict:		No	winn	er.

In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government."

However, Instant Runoff has a little problem.

Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%. Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch.... During the first round, D has the lowest support, so she is eliminated. During the next round, C is eliminated...

Removal of C					
Preferences	#	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$		
A≻X≻B	9	9			
X ≻	27		27		
A ≻ B ≻ X	21	21			
B ≻ X ≻A	43		43		
Total	100	30	70		

In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government."

However, Instant Runoff has a little problem.

Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%. Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch.... During the first round, D has the lowest support, so she is eliminated. During the next round, C is eliminated...

Electorate		
Preferences	#	
A ≻ B	30	
<i>B</i> ≻ <i>A</i>	70	
Verdict:	B wins.	

In 1860, John Stuart Mill called it, "among the very greatest improvements yet made in the theory and practice of government." However, Instant Runoff has a little problem. Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%. Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch.... During the first round, D has the lowest support, so she is eliminated.

During the next round, C is eliminated...

In the final round, B(not C) is the winner.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Electorate		
Preferences	#	
A ≻ B	30	
<i>B</i> ≻ <i>A</i>	70	
Verdict:	B wins.	

However, Instant Runoff has a little problem.

Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%. Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch.... During the first round, D has the lowest support, so she is eliminated. During the next round, C is eliminated...

In the final round, B (not C) is the winner.

Thus, a shift in public opinion that *favoured* C actually *destroyed* C's victory!

Electorate			
Preferences	#		
A ≻ B	30		
<i>B</i> ≻ <i>A</i>	70		
Verdict:	B wins.		

Suppose 4% of the " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " voters change to " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ ". Thus, the (bottom) " $D \succ B \succ C \succ A$ " tally decreases from 25% to 21%, while the (second last) " $C \succ D \succ B \succ A$ " tally increases from 23% to 27%. Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch.... During the first round, D has the lowest support, so she is eliminated. During the next round, C is eliminated... In the final round, B (*not* C) is the winner.

Thus, a shift in public opinion that *favoured* C actually *destroyed* C's victory! Thus, "Instant Runoff" lacks a critical property: *monotonicity*.

Electorate			
Preferences	#		
A ≻ B	30		
<i>B</i> ≻ <i>A</i>	70		
Verdict:	B wins.		

Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch.... During the first round, D has the lowest support, so she is eliminated. During the next round, C is eliminated...

- In the final round, B(not C) is the winner.
- Thus, a shift in public opinion that *favoured* C actually *destroyed* C's victory! Thus, "Instant Runoff" lacks a critical property: *monotonicity*.

Solution? Have a *single* election involving *all four* candidates. But let each voter more clearly and completely express her preferences.

Electorate		
Preferences	#	
A ≻ B	30	
<i>B</i> ≻ <i>A</i>	70	
Verdict:	B wins.	

Note that this change in public opinion is strictly *favourable* towards C. C won the election before, so she should win again. But let's watch.... During the first round, D has the lowest support, so she is eliminated. During the next round, C is eliminated...

In the final round, B (not C) is the winner.

Thus, a shift in public opinion that *favoured* C actually *destroyed* C's victory! Thus, "Instant Runoff" lacks a critical property: *monotonicity*.

Solution? Have a *single* election involving *all four* candidates. But let each voter more clearly and completely express her preferences.

Example: Let each voter vote for her 'top two' candidates, or even her 'top three' candidates. Or let her 'rank' all four candidates. \square

Vote for top two						
Preferences	#	А	В	С	D	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11	
$\mathbf{B}\succ \mathbf{C}\succ \mathbf{D}\succ \mathbf{A}$	22		22	22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			23	23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25	
Total	100	30	57	54	59	
Ve	Verdict:		Dм	/ins.		

Suppose each voter votes for her 'top two' candidates.

Vote for top two						
Preferences	#	А	В	С	D	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11	
$\mathbf{B}\succ \mathbf{C}\succ \mathbf{D}\succ \mathbf{A}$	22		22	22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			23	23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25	
Total	100	30	57	54	59	
Ve	rdict:	ict: D win				

Suppose each voter votes for her 'top two' candidates. Then D wins the election, with 59 points.

< ロ > < (回 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □

 $\mathcal{O} \mathcal{Q} \mathcal{O}$

Vote for top two						
Preferences	#	А	В	С	D	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11	
$\mathbf{B}\succ \mathbf{C}\succ \mathbf{D}\succ \mathbf{A}$	22		22	22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			23	23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25	
Total	100	30	57	54	59	
Ve	Verdict:			/ins.		

Suppose each voter votes for her 'top two' candidates.

Then D wins the election, with 59 points.

But suppose instead we let each voter vote for her 'top three' candidates.

Sac

Vote for top two						
Preferences	#	А	В	С	D	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10	10			
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9		
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11			11	
$\mathbf{B}\succ \mathbf{C}\succ \mathbf{D}\succ \mathbf{A}$	22		22	22		
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23			23	23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25		25	
Total	100	30	57	54	59	
Ve	rdict:		Dм	/ins.		

Suppose each voter votes for her 'top two' candidates.

Then D wins the election, with 59 points.

But suppose instead we let each voter vote for her 'top three' candidates. (Effectively, she 'votes against' her worst candidate; thus this is called *antiplurality* vote).

(10	10 43
(10)	/84

Antiplurality (vote for top three)						
Preferences	#	Α	В	С	D	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10	10	10		
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9	9	
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11	11		11	
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22	22	
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23	23	
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25	25	25	
Total	100	30	91	89	90	
Ve		Вw	vins.			

Suppose each voter votes for her 'top two' candidates.

Then D wins the election, with 59 points.

But suppose instead we let each voter vote for her 'top three' candidates. (Effectively, she 'votes against' her worst candidate; thus this is called *antiplurality* vote). Then B wins the election, with 91 points.
(10	10 43
(10)	/84

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Antiplurality (vote for top three)					
Preferences	#	Α	В	С	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10	10	10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9	9
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11	11		11
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22	22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23	23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25	25	25
Total	100	30	91	89	90
Verdict:			Βw	/ins.	

Suppose each voter votes for her 'top two' candidates.

Then D wins the election, with 59 points.

But suppose instead we let each voter vote for her 'top three' candidates. (Effectively, she 'votes against' her worst candidate; thus this is called *antiplurality* vote). Then B wins the election, with 91 points. Who is the 'real' winner?

(10	10 43
(10)	/84

Antiplurality (vote for top three)					
Preferences	#	Α	В	С	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10	10	10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9	9
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11	11		11
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22	22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23	23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25	25	25
Total	100	30	91	89	90
Verdict:			Βw	/ins.	

Suppose each voter votes for her 'top two' candidates.

Then D wins the election, with 59 points.

But suppose instead we let each voter vote for her 'top three' candidates. (Effectively, she 'votes against' her worst candidate; thus this is called *antiplurality* vote). Then B wins the election, with 91 points. Who is the 'real' winner? B(antiplurality)?

(10	10 43
(10)	/84

Antiplurality (vote for top three)					
Preferences	#	Α	В	С	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10	10	10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9	9
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11	11		11
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22	22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23	23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25	25	25
Total	100	30	91	89	90
Verdict:			Βw	/ins.	

Suppose each voter votes for her 'top two' candidates.

Then D wins the election, with 59 points.

But suppose instead we let each voter vote for her 'top three' candidates. (Effectively, she 'votes against' her worst candidate; thus this is called *antiplurality* vote). Then B wins the election, with 91 points. Who is the 'real' winner? B(antiplurality)? D(vote-for-2)?

(10	10 43
(10)	/84

Antiplurality (vote for top three)					
Preferences	#	Α	В	С	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	10	10	10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	9		9	9
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	11	11		11
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		22	22	22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	23	23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		25	25	25
Total	100	30	91	89	90
Verdict:			Βw	/ins.	

Suppose each voter votes for her 'top two' candidates.

Then D wins the election, with 59 points.

But suppose instead we let each voter vote for her 'top three' candidates. (Effectively, she 'votes against' her worst candidate; thus this is called *antiplurality* vote). Then B wins the election, with 91 points. Who is the 'real' winner? B(antiplurality)? D(vote-for-2)? or A(plurality)?

Borda (oun		<u> </u>		
	ord	a (OUR	٦ŧ.
	Ulua		oui	IL

(11/84)

Another voting system is the Borda Count. Each voter gives:

(11/84)

Another voting system is the Borda Count. Each voter gives:

▶ 3 points to her favourite candidate

(11/84)

〈ロ〉 〈問〉 〈注〉 〈注〉 三百一

500

Another voting system is the Borda Count. Each voter gives:

- ▶ 3 points to her favourite candidate
- 2 points to her second-best candidate

(11/84)

〈ロ〉 〈母〉 〈注〉 〈注〉 三言

Sac

Another voting system is the Borda Count. Each voter gives:

- ▶ 3 points to her favourite candidate
- 2 points to her second-best candidate
- 1 points to her third-best candidate

(11/84)

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Another voting system is the Borda Count. Each voter gives:

- 3 points to her favourite candidate
- 2 points to her second-best candidate
- 1 points to her third-best candidate
- 0 points to her least-favourite candidate.

Then we sum up the points, and the candidate with the highest sum wins.

(11/84)

Another voting system is the Borda Count. Each voter gives:

- 3 points to her favourite candidate
- 2 points to her second-best candidate
- 1 points to her third-best candidate
- 0 points to her least-favourite candidate.

Then we sum up the points, and the candidate with the highest sum wins.

Borda Count					
Preferences	#	А	В	С	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	3×10	2×10	10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	3× <mark>9</mark>		2×9	9
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	3×11	11		2×11
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		3×22	2×22	22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	3×23	2×23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		2× 25	25	3×25
Total	100	90	170	166	174
Ve	erdict: D wins.				

(11/84)

Another voting system is the Borda Count. Each voter gives:

- 3 points to her favourite candidate
- 2 points to her second-best candidate
- 1 points to her third-best candidate
- 0 points to her least-favourite candidate.

Then we sum up the points, and the candidate with the highest sum wins.

Borda Count					
Preferences	#	А	В	С	D
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	10	3×10	2×10	10	
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	9	3× <mark>9</mark>		2×9	9
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	11	3×11	11		2×11
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	22		3×22	2×22	22
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	23		23	3×23	2×23
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25		2× 25	25	3×25
Total	100	90	170	166	174
Ve	rdict:	D wins.			
In this case, the winner is D with 174 naints					

In this case, the winner is D, with 174 points.

Now consider the following profile

All four methods can disagree

(12/84)

Now consider the following profile

Electorate Profile			
Preferences	#		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	22		
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	22		
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	23		
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	33		
Total	100		

In this case, all four methods give different answers....



1	12	4)

(ㅁ) (귀) (흔) (흔)

 $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathcal{A}}$

∍

Now consider the following profile							
Plurality Vote							
Preferences # A B C D							
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	22	22					
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	22	22					
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	23			23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	33				33		
Total	100	44	0	23	33		
Verdict:			Αv	vins.			

In this case, all four methods give different answers....

► A wins the plurality election, with 44% of the vote.

Э

500

Now consider the following profile							
Vote for top two							
Preferences # A B C D							
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	22	22	22				
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	22	22			22		
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	23		23	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	33		33		33		
Total	100	44	78	23	55		
Ve		Βw	ins.				

In this case, all four methods give different answers....

► A wins the plurality election, with 44% of the vote.

···

▶ B wins the 'vote-for-two' election, with 78 points.

enter de la collection de la collection

NL.

Now consider the following profile							
Antiplurality (vote for top three)							
Preferences # A B C [
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	22	22	22	22			
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	22	22		22	22		
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	23		23	23	23		
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	33		33	33	33		
Total	100	44	78	100	78		
Ve		Cν	vins.				

In this case, all four methods give different answers....

- ► A wins the plurality election, with 44% of the vote.
- ▶ B wins the 'vote-for-two' election, with 78 points.
- C wins the antiplurality election, with 100 points.

Now consider the following profile

Borda Count								
Preferences	#	A	В	С	D			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	22	3×22	2×22	22				
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	22	3×22		22	2×22			
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	23		2×23	3×23	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	33		2× 33	33	3×33			
Total	100	132	156	146	166			
Ve	D wins.							

In this case, all four methods give different answers....

- A wins the plurality election, with 44% of the vote.
- B wins the 'vote-for-two' election, with 78 points.
- C wins the antiplurality election, with 100 points.
- ▶ D wins the Borda Count election, with 166 points.

now consider the following profil	Now	consider	the	tollowing	profile
-----------------------------------	-----	----------	-----	-----------	---------

Borda Count								
Preferences	#	А	В	С	D			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	22	3×22	2×22	22				
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	22	3×22		22	2×22			
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	23		2× 23	3×23	23			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	33		2× 33	33	3×33			
Total	100	132	156	146	166			
Ve	rdict:		Dм	/ins.				

In this case, all four methods give different answers....

- ► A wins the plurality election, with 44% of the vote.
- B wins the 'vote-for-two' election, with 78 points.
- ► C wins the antiplurality election, with 100 points.

► D wins the Borda Count election, with 166 points. Who is the real winner?

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems.

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

$$s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$$

and each voter gives:



(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

▶ *s*¹ points to her favourite candidate,



(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

- ▶ s₁ points to her favourite candidate,
- ▶ s₂ points to her second-favourite candidate,

Sac

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

- ▶ s₁ points to her favourite candidate,
- ▶ *s*₂ points to her second-favourite candidate,
- \triangleright s₃ points to her third choice, etc.

Jac.

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

- ▶ *s*₁ points to her favourite candidate,
- ▶ s₂ points to her second-favourite candidate,
- ▶ *s*₃ points to her third choice, etc.

For example, if there are four candidates, then:

• 'Vote-for-two' has $s_1 = s_2 = 1$ and $s_3 = s_4 = 0$.

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

- ▶ *s*₁ points to her favourite candidate,
- ▶ s₂ points to her second-favourite candidate,
- ▶ *s*₃ points to her third choice, etc.

For example, if there are four candidates, then:

- 'Vote-for-two' has $s_1 = s_2 = 1$ and $s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Antiplurality vote has $s_1 = s_2 = s_3 = 1$ and $s_4 = 0$.

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

- ▶ *s*¹ points to her favourite candidate,
- ▶ s₂ points to her second-favourite candidate,
- ▶ *s*₃ points to her third choice, etc.

For example, if there are four candidates, then:

- 'Vote-for-two' has $s_1 = s_2 = 1$ and $s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Antiplurality vote has $s_1 = s_2 = s_3 = 1$ and $s_4 = 0$.
- Plurality vote has $s_1 = 1$ and $s_2 = s_3 = s_4 = 0$.

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

- ▶ *s*¹ points to her favourite candidate,
- ▶ s₂ points to her second-favourite candidate,
- s_3 points to her third choice, etc.

For example, if there are four candidates, then:

- 'Vote-for-two' has $s_1 = s_2 = 1$ and $s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Antiplurality vote has $s_1 = s_2 = s_3 = 1$ and $s_4 = 0$.
- Plurality vote has $s_1 = 1$ and $s_2 = s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Borda Count has $s_1 = 3$, $s_2 = 2$, $s_3 = 1$, and $s_4 = 0$.

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

- ▶ *s*₁ points to her favourite candidate,
- ▶ s₂ points to her second-favourite candidate,
- s_3 points to her third choice, etc.

For example, if there are four candidates, then:

- 'Vote-for-two' has $s_1 = s_2 = 1$ and $s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Antiplurality vote has $s_1 = s_2 = s_3 = 1$ and $s_4 = 0$.
- Plurality vote has $s_1 = 1$ and $s_2 = s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Borda Count has $s_1 = 3$, $s_2 = 2$, $s_3 = 1$, and $s_4 = 0$.

Of course, there are infinitely many other choices for $s_1 \ge s_2 \ge s_3 \ge \cdots$.

(Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

- ▶ *s*₁ points to her favourite candidate,
- ▶ *s*₂ points to her second-favourite candidate,
- ▶ *s*₃ points to her third choice, etc.

For example, if there are four candidates, then:

- 'Vote-for-two' has $s_1 = s_2 = 1$ and $s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Antiplurality vote has $s_1 = s_2 = s_3 = 1$ and $s_4 = 0$.
- Plurality vote has $s_1 = 1$ and $s_2 = s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Borda Count has $s_1 = 3$, $s_2 = 2$, $s_3 = 1$, and $s_4 = 0$.

Of course, there are infinitely many other choices for $s_1 \ge s_2 \ge s_3 \ge \cdots$. Unlike 'Instant runoff', positional systems are always **monotone**: a change in public opinion which favours candidate **X** will *always* benefit **X**. (Anti)plurality, vote-for-two, and Borda count are positional voting systems. In a **positional voting system**, there is some sequence of 'scores'

 $s_1 \geq s_2 \geq s_3 \geq s_4 \geq \cdots$

and each voter gives:

- ▶ *s*₁ points to her favourite candidate,
- ▶ *s*₂ points to her second-favourite candidate,
- ▶ *s*₃ points to her third choice, etc.

For example, if there are four candidates, then:

- 'Vote-for-two' has $s_1 = s_2 = 1$ and $s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Antiplurality vote has $s_1 = s_2 = s_3 = 1$ and $s_4 = 0$.
- Plurality vote has $s_1 = 1$ and $s_2 = s_3 = s_4 = 0$.
- Borda Count has $s_1 = 3$, $s_2 = 2$, $s_3 = 1$, and $s_4 = 0$.

Of course, there are infinitely many other choices for $s_1 \ge s_2 \ge s_3 \ge \cdots$. Unlike 'Instant runoff', positional systems are always **monotone**: a change in public opinion which favours candidate **X** will *always* benefit **X**. Also, unlike agendas of pairwise votes, positional systems are **neutral**: they don't systematically favour one candidate over others. **Problem:** For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

(日) < (日) > (1)

500

Problem: For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

Question: Which voting procedure is correct?

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Problem: For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

Question: Which voting procedure is correct?

Perhaps a better question: which procedure is the most 'fair'?

(Or most 'democratic'? Or most 'rational'? Or most 'scientific'?)

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Problem: For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

Question: Which voting procedure is correct?

Perhaps a better question: which procedure is the most 'fair'?

(Or most 'democratic'? Or most 'rational'? Or most 'scientific'?)

Agendas of pairwise votes favours 'later' candidates over early ones.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Problem: For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

Question: Which voting procedure is correct?

Perhaps a better question: which procedure is the most 'fair'?

(Or most 'democratic'? Or most 'rational'? Or most 'scientific'?)

Agendas of pairwise votes favours 'later' candidates over early ones.

Instant runoff sometimes 'punishes' a candidate who gains public support.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Problem: For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

- Question: Which voting procedure is correct?
- Perhaps a better question: which procedure is the most 'fair'?
- (Or most 'democratic'? Or most 'rational'? Or most 'scientific'?)
- Agendas of pairwise votes favours 'later' candidates over early ones.
- Instant runoff sometimes 'punishes' a candidate who gains public support.
- The traditional plurality vote allowed candidate A to win with a *minority* of votes, even though A was despised by most voters.
(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Problem: For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

Question: Which voting procedure is correct?

Perhaps a better question: which procedure is the most 'fair'?

(Or most 'democratic'? Or most 'rational'? Or most 'scientific'?)

Agendas of pairwise votes favours 'later' candidates over early ones.

Instant runoff sometimes 'punishes' a candidate who gains public support.

The traditional plurality vote allowed candidate A to win with a *minority* of votes, even though A was despised by most voters.

'Vote-for-two' and Antiplurality detect the majority's dislike of A, and chose C or D instead....

Problem: For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

- Question: Which voting procedure is correct?
- Perhaps a better question: which procedure is the most 'fair'?
- (Or most 'democratic'? Or most 'rational'? Or most 'scientific'?)
- Agendas of pairwise votes favours 'later' candidates over early ones.
- Instant runoff sometimes 'punishes' a candidate who gains public support.
- The traditional plurality vote allowed candidate A to win with a *minority* of votes, even though A was despised by most voters.
- 'Vote-for-two' and Antiplurality detect the majority's dislike of A, and chose C or D instead.... but they don't distinguish a voter's favourite from her 2nd best candidate. (Or 2nd best vs. 3rd best, for antiplurality).

Problem: For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

- Question: Which voting procedure is correct?
- Perhaps a better question: which procedure is the most 'fair'?
- (Or most 'democratic'? Or most 'rational'? Or most 'scientific'?)
- Agendas of pairwise votes favours 'later' candidates over early ones.
- Instant runoff sometimes 'punishes' a candidate who gains public support.
- The traditional plurality vote allowed candidate A to win with a *minority* of votes, even though A was despised by most voters.
- 'Vote-for-two' and Antiplurality detect the majority's dislike of A, and chose C or D instead.... but they don't distinguish a voter's favourite from her 2nd best candidate. (Or 2nd best vs. 3rd best, for antiplurality). The Borda count seems to be a good compromise between 'plurality', 'antiplurality', and 'vote-for-two' procedures.

Problem: For a given electorate, with fixed preferences, different 'voting procedures' can choose different winners.

- Question: Which voting procedure is correct?
- Perhaps a better question: which procedure is the most 'fair'?
- (Or most 'democratic'? Or most 'rational'? Or most 'scientific'?)
- Agendas of pairwise votes favours 'later' candidates over early ones.
- Instant runoff sometimes 'punishes' a candidate who gains public support.
- The traditional plurality vote allowed candidate A to win with a *minority* of votes, even though A was despised by most voters.
- 'Vote-for-two' and Antiplurality detect the majority's dislike of A, and chose C or D instead.... but they don't distinguish a voter's favourite from her 2nd best candidate. (Or 2nd best vs. 3rd best, for antiplurality). The Borda count seems to be a good compromise between 'plurality',
- 'antiplurality', and 'vote-for-two' procedures.
- It allows each voter to 'vote against' her worst candidate, but also assigns more 'weight' to her favourite than to her 2nd best, and more 'weight' to her 2nd best than her 3rd best, etc.

(15/84)

< 🗆 🕨

Borda Count was invented by Jean Charles de Borda (1733-1799), a French mathematician, military engineer, naval commander, and political theorist.



SQ (P

Borda Count was invented by Jean Charles de Borda (1733-1799), a French mathematician, military engineer, naval commander, and political theorist. It has many advantages, and is still widely used.



SQ (P

Borda Count was invented by Jean Charles de Borda (1733-1799), a French mathematician, military engineer, naval commander, and political theorist. It has many advantages, and is still widely used.

But Borda has drawbacks. For example, consider the following profile:

Electorate					
Preferences #					
$A \succ B \succ C$	60				
$B \succ C \succ A$	40				
Total	100				



Borda Count was invented by Jean Charles de Borda (1733-1799), a French mathematician, military engineer, naval commander, and political theorist. It has many advantages, and is still widely used.

But Borda has drawbacks. For example, consider the following profile:

Borda Count							
Preferences	#	А	В	С			
$A \succ B \succ C$	60	2×60	60				
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		2×40	40			
Total	100	120	140	40			
Ve	E	3 wins.					



Clearly B wins the Borda Count election, with 140 points.

Borda Count was invented by Jean Charles de Borda (1733-1799), a French mathematician, military engineer, naval commander, and political theorist. It has many advantages, and is still widely used.

But Borda has drawbacks. For example, consider the following profile:

Plurality Vote						
Preferences # A B C						
$A \succ B \succ C$	60	60				
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		40			
Total	100	60	40	0		
Ve	A	wins	i.			



Clearly B wins the Borda Count election, with 140 points. However, A is prefered by a *strict majority* (60%) of the voters.

(15/84

Borda Count was invented by Jean Charles de Borda (1733-1799), a French mathematician, military engineer, naval commander, and political theorist. It has many advantages, and is still widely used.

But Borda has drawbacks. For example, consider the following profile:

Plurality Vote						
Preferences # A B C						
$A \succ B \succ C$	60	60				
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		40			
Total	100	60	40	0		
Ve	A	wins				



Clearly B wins the Borda Count election, with 140 points.

However, A is prefered by a *strict majority* (60%) of the voters.

Rationale: A is 'polarizing' candidate, loved by 60%, but *hated* by 40%. B is loved by only 40%, but hated by no one; she is a good 'compromise' candidate, and Borda Count detects this.

Borda Count was invented by Jean Charles de Borda (1733-1799), a French mathematician, military engineer, naval commander, and political theorist. It has many advantages, and is still widely used.

But Borda has drawbacks. For example, consider the following profile:

Plurality Vote						
Preferences # A B C						
$A \succ B \succ C$	60	60				
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		40			
Total	100	60	40	0		
Ve	A	wins				



Clearly B wins the Borda Count election, with 140 points.

However, A is prefered by a *strict majority* (60%) of the voters.

Rationale: A is 'polarizing' candidate, loved by 60%, but *hated* by 40%. B is loved by only 40%, but hated by no one; she is a good 'compromise' candidate, and Borda Count detects this.

But many 'positional' systems have this property; why use Borda's?



The problems with Borda's method were first noted by his contemporary, Marie Jean Antoine Nicolas de Caritat, the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794).

< □ >

/84)

SQ (P



Jac.



The problems with Borda's method were first noted by his contemporary, Marie Jean Antoine Nicolas de Caritat, the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794). Condorcet was a French mathematician and philosopher, and a pioneer of modern mathematical voting theory.





The problems with Borda's method were first noted by his contemporary, Marie Jean Antoine Nicolas de Caritat, the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794). Condorcet was a French mathematician and philosopher, and a pioneer of modern mathematical voting theory. He discovered many important facts about voting and probability, and was a strong advocate of democracy and social reform.





The problems with Borda's method were first noted by his contemporary, Marie Jean Antoine Nicolas de Caritat, the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794). Condorcet was a French mathematician and philosopher, and a pioneer of modern mathematical voting theory. He discovered many important facts about voting and probability, and was a strong advocate of democracy and social reform. He died in prison during the French Revolution.





The problems with Borda's method were first noted by his contemporary, Marie Jean Antoine Nicolas de Caritat, the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794). Condorcet was a French mathematician and philosopher, and a pioneer of modern mathematical voting theory. He discovered many important facts about voting and probability, and was a strong advocate of democracy and social reform. He died in prison during the French Revolution.

Jac.

Condorcet asserted that any 'fair' voting system should always choose candidate X if X could beat *every other candidate* in a two-way election





The problems with Borda's method were first noted by his contemporary, Marie Jean Antoine Nicolas de Caritat, the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794). Condorcet was a French mathematician and philosopher, and a pioneer of modern mathematical voting theory. He discovered many important facts about voting and probability, and was a strong advocate of democracy and social reform. He died in prison during the French Revolution.

Jac.

Condorcet asserted that any 'fair' voting system should always choose candidate X if X could beat *every other candidate* in a two-way election—in other words, if a majority of voters prefer X to any other single candidate.





The problems with Borda's method were first noted by his contemporary, Marie Jean Antoine Nicolas de Caritat, the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794). Condorcet was a French mathematician and philosopher, and a pioneer of modern mathematical voting theory. He discovered many important facts about voting and probability, and was a strong advocate of democracy and social reform. He died in prison during the French Revolution.

Sac

Condorcet asserted that any 'fair' voting system should always choose candidate X if X could beat *every other candidate* in a two-way election—in other words, if a majority of voters prefer X to any other single candidate. In this case, X is called the **Condorcet winner** of the election.





The problems with Borda's method were first noted by his contemporary, Marie Jean Antoine Nicolas de Caritat, the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794). Condorcet was a French mathematician and philosopher, and a pioneer of modern mathematical voting theory. He discovered many important facts about voting and probability, and was a strong advocate of democracy and social reform. He died in prison during the French Revolution.

Condorcet asserted that any 'fair' voting system should always choose candidate **X** if **X** could beat *every other candidate* in a two-way election—in other words, if a majority of voters prefer **X** to any other single candidate. In this case, **X** is called the **Condorcet winner** of the election. Thus, **Condorcet's Criterion** says:

A voting system should always choose the Condorcet winner, if one exists.





The problems with Borda's method were first noted by his contemporary, Marie Jean Antoine Nicolas de Caritat, the Marquis de Condorcet (1743-1794). Condorcet was a French mathematician and philosopher, and a pioneer of modern mathematical voting theory. He discovered many important facts about voting and probability, and was a strong advocate of democracy and social reform. He died in prison during the French Revolution.

500

Condorcet asserted that any 'fair' voting system should always choose candidate **X** if **X** could beat *every other candidate* in a two-way election—in other words, if a majority of voters prefer **X** to any other single candidate. In this case, **X** is called the **Condorcet winner** of the election. Thus, **Condorcet's Criterion** says:

A voting system should always choose the Condorcet winner, if one exists. (The last example shows that Borda count violates the Condorcet criteria.)

(17/84)

However, as Condorcet himself discovered, a Condorcet winner doesn't always exist....

(17/84)

ヘロト スピト スティート

Jac.

However, as Condorcet himself discovered, a Condorcet winner doesn't always exist.... For example, consider the following profile:

Condorcet Pairwise Votes							
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$B \succ C$	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C$	33	33		33		33	
$B \succ C \succ A$	33		33	33			33
$C \succ A \succ B$	34	34			34		34
Total	100	67	33	66	34	33	67
Verdict:		A≻	- <i>B</i>	B≻	- C	C>	- A

(17/84)

Jac.

However, as Condorcet himself discovered, a Condorcet winner doesn't always exist.... For example, consider the following profile:

Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$B \succ C$	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C$	33	33		33		33	
$B \succ C \succ A$	33		33	33			33
$C \succ A \succ B$	34	34			34		34
Total	100	67	33	66	34	33	67
Ve	Verdict: $A \succ B$		B≻	- C	$C \succ A$		

▶ 67% of the voters prefer A to B.

Jac.

However, as Condorcet himself discovered, a Condorcet winner doesn't always exist.... For example, consider the following profile:

Condorcet Pair	rwise	Votes
----------------	-------	-------

Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$B \succ C$	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C$	33	33		33		33	
$B \succ C \succ A$	33		33	33			33
$C \succ A \succ B$	34	34			34		34
Total	100	67	33	66	34	33	67
Verdict: $A \succ B$		- B	B>	- C	C >	- A	

▶ 67% of the voters prefer A to B.

▶ 66% of the voters prefer B to C.

< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 >

nac

However, as Condorcet himself discovered, a Condorcet winner doesn't always exist.... For example, consider the following profile:

Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$B \succ C$	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C$	33	33		33		33	
$B \succ C \succ A$	33		33	33			33
$C \succ A \succ B$	34	34			34		34
Total	100	67	33	66	34	33	67
Verdict: $A \succ B$		- B	B>	- C	C >	- A	

▶ 67% of the voters prefer A to B.

- ▶ 66% of the voters prefer B to C.
- ▶ 67% of the voters prefer C to A.

< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 >

 $\mathcal{O} \mathcal{Q} \mathcal{O}$

However, as Condorcet himself discovered, a Condorcet winner doesn't always exist.... For example, consider the following profile:

|--|

Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$B \succ C$	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C$	33	33		33		33	
$B \succ C \succ A$	33		33	33			33
$C \succ A \succ B$	34	34			34		34
Total	100	67	33	66	34	33	67
Verdict:		A ≻ B		$B \succ C$		$C \succ A$	

• 67% of the voters prefer A to B.

▶ 66% of the voters prefer B to C.

• 67% of the voters prefer C to A.

Thus, there is no Condorcet winner.

Jac.

However, as Condorcet himself discovered, a Condorcet winner doesn't always exist.... For example, consider the following profile:

Condorcet Pairwise votes

Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$B \succ C$	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C$	33	33		33		33	
$B \succ C \succ A$	33		33	33			33
$C \succ A \succ B$	34	34			34		34
Total	100	67	33	66	34	33	67
Verdict:		A ≻ B		$B \succ C$		$C \succ A$	

• 67% of the voters prefer A to B.

▶ 66% of the voters prefer B to C.

• 67% of the voters prefer C to A.

Thus, there is no Condorcet winner. This is called Condorcet's Paradox.

However, as Condorcet himself discovered, a Condorcet winner doesn't always exist.... For example, consider the following profile:

Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$B \succ C$	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C$	33	33		33		33	
$B \succ C \succ A$	33		33	33			33
$C \succ A \succ B$	34	34			34		34
Total	100	67	33	66	34	33	67
Verdict:		A ≻ B		$B \succ C$		$C \succ A$	

• 67% of the voters prefer A to B.

- 66% of the voters prefer B to C.
- 67% of the voters prefer C to A.

Thus, *there is no Condorcet winner*. This is called **Condorcet's Paradox**. The majority's apparently 'cyclical' preference ordering

 $\cdots \succ A \succ B \succ C \succ \cdots$

is called a **Condorcet cycle**.

Condorcet cycles cause lots of problems.



(18/84)

SQ (P





(18/84)

 $\mathcal{O} \mathcal{Q} \mathcal{O}$





Condorcet cycles cause lots of problems. For example, they are the reason why different 'agendas' of pairwise votes can produce different winners:



Problem: Whoever controls the agenda (e.g. the Chair of a committee, the head of the Election Commission) can control the outcome.

Condorcet cycles cause lots of problems. For example, they are the reason why different 'agendas' of pairwise votes can produce different winners:



Problem: Whoever controls the agenda (e.g. the Chair of a committee, the head of the Election Commission) can control the outcome. This is called **agenda manipulation**.

Political Instability & Condorcet Spirals

Condorcet cycles can also cause political instability.



(19/84)


Condorcet cycles can also cause political instability. Suppose A wins an election against B. Condorcet B Cycle C

(19/84)



(19/84)

Condorcet cycles can also cause political instability.

Suppose A wins an election against B.

In the *next* election, opponents of A can introduce C, who will beat A.



< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三

SQ (P

Condorcet cycles can also cause political instability.

Suppose A wins an election against B.

- In the *next* election, opponents of A can introduce C, who will beat A.
- In the *third* election, opponents of C can reintroduce B, who will beat C.



< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 >

Condorcet cycles can also cause political instability.

Suppose A wins an election against B.



< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 >

In the *next* election, opponents of A can introduce C, who will beat A. In the *third* election, opponents of C can reintroduce B, who will beat C. But now, in the *fourth* election, opponents of B bring back A, who beats B. Then the cycle starts over.

Condorcet cycles can also cause political instability.

Suppose A wins an election against B.



- In the *next* election, opponents of A can introduce C, who will beat A. In the *third* election, opponents of C can reintroduce B, who will beat C. But now, in the *fourth* election, opponents of B bring back A, who beats B. Then the cycle starts over.
- According to certain mathematical models of electoral politics developed by McKelvey (1976,1979) and Schofield (1978,1983), such 'voting chaos' is quite common (perhaps ubiquitous) in real democracies.

Condorcet cycles can also cause political instability.

Suppose A wins an election against B.



In the *next* election, opponents of A can introduce C, who will beat A. In the *third* election, opponents of C can reintroduce B, who will beat C. But now, in the *fourth* election, opponents of B bring back A, who beats B. Then the cycle starts over.

According to certain mathematical models of electoral politics developed by McKelvey (1976,1979) and Schofield (1978,1983), such 'voting chaos' is quite common (perhaps ubiquitous) in real democracies.

Worse yet: a sly 'electioneer' can construct a Condorcet spiral

 $A_1 \succ B_1 \succ C_1 \succ A_2 \succ B_2 \succ C_2 \succ A_3 \succ B_3 \succ C_3 \succ \cdots$

which will converge towards any desired target in the 'political spectrum'.

Condorcet cycles can also cause political instability.

Suppose A wins an election against B.

In the *next* election, opponents of A can introduce C, who will beat A. In the *third* election, opponents of C can reintroduce B, who will beat C. But now, in the *fourth* election, opponents of B bring back A, who beats B.

Then the cycle starts over.

According to certain mathematical models of electoral politics developed by McKelvey (1976,1979) and Schofield (1978,1983), such 'voting chaos' is quite common (perhaps ubiquitous) in real democracies.

Worse yet: a sly 'electioneer' can construct a Condorcet spiral

 $A_1 \succ B_1 \succ C_1 \succ A_2 \succ B_2 \succ C_2 \succ A_3 \succ B_3 \succ C_3 \succ \cdots$

which will converge towards any desired target in the 'political spectrum'. Thus, by deploying a suitable sequence of candidates, the electioneer can 'steer' the democracy wherever she wants.



(19/84)

The Borda Count & Irrelevant Alternatives

(20/84)

The Borda Count fails the Condorcet Criterion.

(日) (四) (三) (三)

∍

500

The Borda Count fails the Condorcet Criterion. Recall our earlier example:

Borda Count						
Preferences	#	А	В	C		
$A \succ B \succ C$	60	2×60	60			
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		2×40	40		
Total	100	120	140	40		
Ve	rdict:	E	8 wins.			

Recall: B wins the Borda Count election, with 140 points.

< ロ > < (回 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □

Sac

The Borda Count fails the Condorcet Criterion. Recall our earlier example:								
		Condo	orcet Pai	rwise Vo	tes			
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	$B \succ C$	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$C \succ A$	
$A \succ B \succ C$	60	60		60		60		
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		40	40			40	
Total	100	60	40	100	0	60	40	
Verdict: $A \succ B$ $B \succ C$ $A \succ C$			- C					

Recall: B wins the Borda Count election, with 140 points.

However, A is the Condorcet winner.

< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 >

nac

The Borda Count fails the Condorcet Criterion. Recall our earlier example:							
	Condorcet Pairwise Votes						
Preferences	Preferences $\#$ $A \succ B$ $B \succ A$ $B \succ C$ $C \succ B$ $A \succ C$ $C \succ A$						
$A \succ B \succ C$ 60 60 60 60							
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		40	40			40
Total	100	60	40	100	0	60	40
Verdict: $A \succ B$ $B \succ C$ $A \succ C$			- C				

Recall: B wins the Borda Count election, with 140 points.

However, A is the Condorcet winner.

Problem: B wins the Borda only because the presence of the 3rd-place candidate C 'boosts' B's score (because B picks up '2nd place' points).

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

The Borda Count fails the Condorcet Criterion. Recall our earlier example:

2-way Borda count				
Preferences	#	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$	
A ≻ B	60	1× 60		
$B \succ A$	40		1× 40	
Total	100	60	40	

Recall: B wins the Borda Count election, with 140 points.

However, A is the Condorcet winner.

Problem: B wins the Borda only because the presence of the 3rd-place candidate C 'boosts' B's score (because B picks up '2nd place' points). If C *withdrew*, then A would win the Borda Count instead of B!

The Borda Count fails the Condorcet Criterion. Recall our earlier example:

2-way Borda count					
Preferences $\#$ $A \succ B$ $B \succ A$					
A ≻ B	60	1× 60			
$B \succ A$	40		1× 40		
Total	100	60	40		

Recall: B wins the Borda Count election, with 140 points.

However, A is the Condorcet winner.

Problem: B wins the Borda only because the presence of the 3rd-place candidate C 'boosts' B's score (because B picks up '2nd place' points). If C *withdrew*, then A would win the Borda Count instead of B! Thus, the presence of an **irrelevant alternative** —a third-place candidate like C —can change the outcome of the contest between A and B.

This sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives plagues not only Borda Count, but many voting systems, including the conventional plurality vote.

= √Q (~

This sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives plagues not only Borda Count, but many voting systems, including the conventional plurality vote. For example, consider the following election:

Electorate			
Preferences	#		
$A \succ B \succ C$	40		
$B \succ C \succ A$	35		
$C \succ B \succ A$	25		
Total	100		

This sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives plagues not only Borda Count, but many voting systems, including the conventional plurality vote. For example, consider the following election:

Plurality Vote						
Preferences	#	Α	В	С		
$A \succ B \succ C$	40	40				
$B \succ C \succ A$	35		35			
$C \succ B \succ A$	25			25		
Total	100	40	35	25		
Ve	А	wins	S.			

A wins , but only because the anti-A vote is 'split' between B and C.

This sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives plagues not only Borda Count, but many voting systems, including the conventional plurality vote.

For example, consider the following election:

A versus B (C excluded)					
Preferences	$\# A \succ B B \succ A$				
$A \succ B \succ C$	40	40			
$B \succ C \succ A$	35		35		
$C \succ B \succ A$	25		25		
Total	100	40	60		
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A		

A wins , but only because the anti-A vote is 'split' between B and C. If the third-place C withdraws, then B wins with a majority of 60%.

This sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives plagues not only Borda Count, but many voting systems, including the conventional plurality vote.

For example, consider the following election:

A versus B (C excluded)					
Preferences	$\# A \succ B B \succ A$				
$A \succ B \succ C$	40	40			
$B \succ C \succ A$	35		35		
$C \succ B \succ A$	25		25		
Total	100	40	60		
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A		

A wins , but only because the anti-A vote is 'split' between B and C. If the third-place C withdraws, then B wins with a majority of 60%. Thus, plurality vote is sensitive to the 'irrelevant alternative' C.

This sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives plagues not only Borda Count, but many voting systems, including the conventional plurality vote.

For example, consider the following election:

A versus B (C excluded)					
Preferences	$\# A \succ B B \succ A$				
$A \succ B \succ C$	40	40			
$B \succ C \succ A$	35		35		
$C \succ B \succ A$	25		25		
Total	100	40	60		
Ve	rdict:	B>	- A		

A wins , but only because the anti-A vote is 'split' between B and C. If the third-place C withdraws, then B wins with a majority of 60%. Thus, plurality vote is sensitive to the 'irrelevant alternative' C. In fact, Donald Saari (1989) has shown that almost *any* positional voting system (e.g. (anti)plurality, vote-for-two, etc.) is highly sensitive to irrelevant alternatives....

(22/84)

Sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives is a form of 'collective irrationality'.

(22/84)

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives is a form of 'collective irrationality'. For example, imagine a restaurant with the following dessert menu:

- Apple cobbler
- Banana cream pie
- Chocolate cake.

You think, "I prefer Apple cobbler to Banana pie, and I prefer Banana pie to Chocolate cake (i.e. $A \succ B \succ C$). So I will order the Apple cobbler."

Sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives is a form of 'collective irrationality'. For example, imagine a restaurant with the following dessert menu:

- Apple cobbler
- Banana cream pie
- Chocolate cake.

You think, "I prefer Apple cobbler to Banana pie, and I prefer Banana pie to Chocolate cake (i.e. $A \succ B \succ C$). So I will order the Apple cobbler." But then the waiter comes and says, "I'm sorry; the kitchen says there is no more Chocolate cake."

Sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives is a form of 'collective irrationality'. For example, imagine a restaurant with the following dessert menu:

- Apple cobbler
- Banana cream pie
- Chocolate cake.

You think, "I prefer Apple cobbler to Banana pie, and I prefer Banana pie to Chocolate cake (i.e. $A \succ B \succ C$). So I will order the Apple cobbler." But then the waiter comes and says, "I'm sorry; the kitchen says there is no more Chocolate cake."

So you say: "Then I will order the Banana cream pie."

Sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives is a form of 'collective irrationality'. For example, imagine a restaurant with the following dessert menu:

- Apple cobbler
- Banana cream pie
- Chocolate cake.

You think, "I prefer Apple cobbler to Banana pie, and I prefer Banana pie to Chocolate cake (i.e. $A \succ B \succ C$). So I will order the Apple cobbler." But then the waiter comes and says, "I'm sorry; the kitchen says there is no more Chocolate cake."

So you say: "Then I will order the Banana cream pie."

Does this make sense? No. But that is exactly what a voting procedure does if it is sensitive to irrelevant alternatives (in this case, Chocolate cake).

If a voting procedure is sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', then a sly 'electioneer' can manipulate the outcome by introducing 'fringe' candidates.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

If a voting procedure is sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', then a sly 'electioneer' can manipulate the outcome by introducing 'fringe' candidates. For example, in the following plurality election, the supporters of A might introduce an 'irrelevant' third candidate, C....

A versus B					
Preferences	#	А	В		
A ≻ B	40	40			
$B \succ A$	60		60		
Total	100	40	60		
Ve	Βv	vins			

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

If a voting procedure is sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', then a sly 'electioneer' can manipulate the outcome by introducing 'fringe' candidates. For example, in the following plurality election, the supporters of A might introduce an 'irrelevant' third candidate, C....

This splits the opposition, so A wins instead of B.

Plurality Vote					
Preferences	#	Α	В	C	
$A \succ B \succ C$	40	40			
$B \succ C \succ A$	35		35		
$C \succ B \succ A$	25			25	
Total	100	40	35	25	
Ve	rdict:	A	wins	5.	

If a voting procedure is sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', then a sly 'electioneer' can manipulate the outcome by introducing 'fringe' candidates. For example, in the following plurality election, the supporters of A might introduce an 'irrelevant' third candidate, C....

This splits the opposition, so A wins instead of B.

Plu	rality '	Vote							
Preferences	-#-	Δ	R	C	2-wa	ay Borda count			
	π- 40	10	D	~	Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	
AFDFC	40	40	35	25	$A \succ B$	60	1×60		
$B \succ C \succ A$	35				R A	40		1 × 10	
$C \succ B \succ A$	25				DFA	40		1× 40	
T	100	40	25	05	Total	100	60	40	
Total	100	40	35	25	Verdict		A wins		
Verdict:		A wins.		s.		alet.	7		

On the other hand, suppose the right-hand election was a Borda Count. The supporters of B might introduce an 'irrelevant' third candidate, C....

- ロ > ・ 目 > ・ 三 > ・ 三 > ・ 9 へ ()

If a voting procedure is sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', then a sly 'electioneer' can manipulate the outcome by introducing 'fringe' candidates. For example, in the following plurality election, the supporters of A might introduce an 'irrelevant' third candidate, C....

This splits the opposition, so A wins instead of B.

Phu	rality '	Vota								
T lurality Vole					Borda Count					
Preferences	#	Α	В	C	Dorda Count					
	11				Preferences	#	A	В	C	
$A \succ B \succ C$	40	40				60	0.460	60		
RUCUA	35		35		$A \succ B \succ C$	00	2×00	00		
DACA	55		55		$B \succ C \succ A$	40		2×40	40	
$C \succ B \succ A$	25			25	Drern	10		2/10	10	
					Total	100	120	140	40	
Total	100	40	35	25	Total	100	120	110	10	
			<u> </u>		Verdict:		B	B wins.		
Verdict:		A wins.		s.						

On the other hand, suppose the right-hand election was a Borda Count. The supporters of B might introduce an 'irrelevant' third candidate, C.... This inflates B's Borda score, so that B wins instead of A.

Indeed, 'sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives' plagues *every* reasonable voting system. To explain this, we need some terminology.

Indeed, 'sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives' plagues *every* reasonable voting system. To explain this, we need some terminology. Consider an election with three candidates A, B, and C.

500

Indeed, 'sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives' plagues *every* reasonable voting system. To explain this, we need some terminology. Consider an election with three candidates A, B, and C. There are *six* possible preference orderings a voter could have over these three candidates, namely:

 $A \succ B \succ C$, $B \succ C \succ A$, $C \succ A \succ B$, $B \succ A \succ C$, $A \succ C \succ B$, $C \succ B \succ A$.

500

Indeed, 'sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives' plagues *every* reasonable voting system. To explain this, we need some terminology. Consider an election with three candidates A, B, and C. There are *six* possible preference orderings a voter could have over these three candidates, namely:

 $A \succ B \succ C$, $B \succ C \succ A$, $C \succ A \succ B$, $B \succ A \succ C$, $A \succ C \succ B$, $C \succ B \succ A$.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

A 3-candidate profile is a list of how many voters espouse each of these six preference orderings.

Indeed, 'sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives' plagues *every* reasonable voting system. To explain this, we need some terminology. Consider an election with three candidates A, B, and C. There are *six* possible preference orderings a voter could have over these three candidates, namely:

$A \succ B \succ C$, $B \succ C \succ A$, $C \succ A \succ B$, $B \succ A \succ C$, $A \succ C \succ B$, $C \succ B \succ A$.

A 3-candidate profile is a list of how many voters espouse each of these six preference orderings.

For example, here is one possible profile.



Indeed, 'sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives' plagues *every* reasonable voting system. To explain this, we need some terminology. Consider an election with three candidates A, B, and C. There are *six* possible preference orderings a voter could have over these three candidates, namely:

$A \succ B \succ C$, $B \succ C \succ A$, $C \succ A \succ B$, $B \succ A \succ C$, $A \succ C \succ B$, $C \succ B \succ A$.

A 3-candidate profile is a list of how many voters espouse each of these six preference orderings.

For example, here is one possible profile.

Likewise, there are 24 possible preference orderings over four candidates A, B, C, D.

	Electorat		
	Preferences	#	
	$A \succ B \succ C$	10	
	$A \succ C \succ B$	15	
	$B \succ A \succ C$	12	
	$B \succ C \succ A$	18	
	$C \succ A \succ B$	20	
	$C \succ B \succ A$	25	
	Total	100	
•		1	りくへ

< 🗆

Indeed, 'sensitivity to irrelevant alternatives' plagues *every* reasonable voting system. To explain this, we need some terminology. Consider an election with three candidates A, B, and C. There are *six* possible preference orderings a voter could have over these three candidates, namely:

$A \succ B \succ C$, $B \succ C \succ A$, $C \succ A \succ B$, $B \succ A \succ C$, $A \succ C \succ B$, $C \succ B \succ A$.

A 3-candidate profile is a list of how many voters espouse each of these six preference orderings.

For example, here is one possible profile.

Likewise, there are 24 possible preference orderings over four candidates A, B, C, D.

A 4-candidate profile lists how many voters espouse each of these 24 orderings.

	Electorat		
	Preferences	#	
	$A \succ B \succ C$	10	
	$A \succ C \succ B$	15	
	$B \succ A \succ C$	12	
	$B \succ C \succ A$	18	
	$C \succ A \succ B$	20	
	$C \succ B \succ A$	25	
	Total	100	
•			200

< 🗆

_1 .
Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	1
$A \succ B \succ D \succ C$	2
$A \succ C \succ B \succ D$	1
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	1
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	3
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	17
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	2
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	6
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	1
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	5
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	1
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	15
$C \succ A \succ B \succ D$	3
$C \succ A \succ D \succ B$	2
$C \succ B \succ A \succ D$	6
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	1
$C \succ D \succ A \succ B$	1
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	1
$D \succ A \succ B \succ C$	2
$D \succ A \succ C \succ B$	1
$D \succ B \succ A \succ C$	1
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	24
$D \succ C \succ A \succ B$	2
$D \succ C \succ B \succ A$	1
Total	100

< □ >

< 🗗 🕨

5900

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	1
$A \succ B \succ D \succ C$	2
$A \succ C \succ B \succ D$	1
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	1
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	3
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	17
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	2
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	6
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	1
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	5
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	1
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	15
$C \succ A \succ B \succ D$	3
$C \succ A \succ D \succ B$	2
$C \succ B \succ A \succ D$	6
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	1
$C \succ D \succ A \succ B$	1
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	1
$D \succ A \succ B \succ C$	2
$D \succ A \succ C \succ B$	1
$D \succ B \succ A \succ C$	1
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	24
$D \succ C \succ A \succ B$	2
$D \succ C \succ B \succ A$	1
Total	100

An ordinal voting procedure is a rule which, for any *profile* selects some candidate as the 'winner'.*

(*) This definition requires the procedure to be **anonymous**: all voters are treated exactly the same. This excludes 'weighted voting', or giving some voters 'tie-breaker' or 'veto' powers. It also excludes a **dictatorship**, where one 'voter' makes all the decisions. Anonymity is actually not necessary for what follows, but it makes it simpler.

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	1
$A \succ B \succ D \succ C$	2
$A \succ C \succ B \succ D$	1
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	1
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	3
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	17
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	2
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	6
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	1
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	5
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	1
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	15
$C \succ A \succ B \succ D$	3
$C \succ A \succ D \succ B$	2
$C \succ B \succ A \succ D$	6
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	1
$C \succ D \succ A \succ B$	1
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	1
$D \succ A \succ B \succ C$	2
$D \succ A \succ C \succ B$	1
$D \succ B \succ A \succ C$	1
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	24
$D \succ C \succ A \succ B$	2
$D \succ C \succ B \succ A$	1
Total	100

An ordinal voting procedure is a rule which, for any *profile* selects some candidate as the 'winner'.*

For example, *plurality vote*, 'vote-for-two', *antiplurality vote*, *Borda Count* and all other 'positional' voting systems are ordinal voting procedures.

(*) This definition requires the procedure to be **anonymous**: all voters are treated exactly the same. This excludes 'weighted voting', or giving some voters 'tie-breaker' or 'veto' powers. It also excludes a **dictatorship**, where one 'voter' makes all the decisions. Anonymity is actually not necessary for what follows, but it makes it simpler.

(ロ) (日) (日) (日) (日) (日) (日)

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	1
$A \succ B \succ D \succ C$	2
$A \succ C \succ B \succ D$	1
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	1
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	3
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	17
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	2
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	6
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	1
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	5
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	1
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	15
$C \succ A \succ B \succ D$	3
$C \succ A \succ D \succ B$	2
$C \succ B \succ A \succ D$	6
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	1
$C \succ D \succ A \succ B$	1
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	1
$D \succ A \succ B \succ C$	2
$D \succ A \succ C \succ B$	1
$D \succ B \succ A \succ C$	1
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	24
$D \succ C \succ A \succ B$	2
$D \succ C \succ B \succ A$	1
Total	100

An ordinal voting procedure is a rule which, for any *profile* selects some candidate as the 'winner'.*

For example, *plurality vote*, 'vote-for-two', *antiplurality vote*, *Borda Count* and all other 'positional' voting systems are ordinal voting procedures.

So is 'plurality vote with a runoff election'.

(*) This definition requires the procedure to be **anonymous**: all voters are treated exactly the same. This excludes 'weighted voting', or giving some voters 'tie-breaker' or 'veto' powers. It also excludes a **dictatorship**, where one 'voter' makes all the decisions. Anonymity is actually not necessary for what follows, but it makes it simpler.

< □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	1
$A \succ B \succ D \succ C$	2
$A \succ C \succ B \succ D$	1
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	1
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	3
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	17
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	2
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	6
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	1
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	5
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	1
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	15
$C \succ A \succ B \succ D$	3
$C \succ A \succ D \succ B$	2
$C \succ B \succ A \succ D$	6
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	1
$C \succ D \succ A \succ B$	1
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	1
$D \succ A \succ B \succ C$	2
$D \succ A \succ C \succ B$	1
$D \succ B \succ A \succ C$	1
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	24
$D \succ C \succ A \succ B$	2
$D \succ C \succ B \succ A$	1
Total	100

An ordinal voting procedure is a rule which, for any *profile* selects some candidate as the 'winner'.*

For example, *plurality vote*, 'vote-for-two', *antiplurality vote*, *Borda Count* and all other 'positional' voting systems are ordinal voting procedures.

So is 'plurality vote with a runoff election'.

So is Hare's instant runoff system.

(*) This definition requires the procedure to be **anonymous**: all voters are treated exactly the same. This excludes 'weighted voting', or giving some voters 'tie-breaker' or 'veto' powers. It also excludes a **dictatorship**, where one 'voter' makes all the decisions. Anonymity is actually not necessary for what follows, but it makes it simpler.

シック・ ゴー 〈言〉 〈言〉 〈曰〉

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	1
$A \succ B \succ D \succ C$	2
$A \succ C \succ B \succ D$	1
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	1
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	3
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	17
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	2
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	6
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	1
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	5
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	1
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	15
$C \succ A \succ B \succ D$	3
$C \succ A \succ D \succ B$	2
$C \succ B \succ A \succ D$	6
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	1
$C \succ D \succ A \succ B$	1
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	1
$D \succ A \succ B \succ C$	2
$D \succ A \succ C \succ B$	1
$D \succ B \succ A \succ C$	1
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	24
$D \succ C \succ A \succ B$	2
$D \succ C \succ B \succ A$	1
Total	100

An ordinal voting procedure is a rule which, for any *profile* selects some candidate as the 'winner'.*

For example, *plurality vote*, 'vote-for-two', *antiplurality vote*, *Borda Count* and all other 'positional' voting systems are ordinal voting procedures.

So is 'plurality vote with a runoff election'.

So is Hare's instant runoff system.

So is every possible 'agenda' of pairwise votes.

(*) This definition requires the procedure to be **anonymous**: all voters are treated exactly the same. This excludes 'weighted voting', or giving some voters 'tie-breaker' or 'veto' powers. It also excludes a **dictatorship**, where one 'voter' makes all the decisions. Anonymity is actually not necessary for what follows, but it makes it simpler.

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	1
$A \succ B \succ D \succ C$	2
$A \succ C \succ B \succ D$	1
$A \succ C \succ D \succ B$	1
$A \succ D \succ B \succ C$	3
$A \succ D \succ C \succ B$	17
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	2
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	6
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	1
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	5
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	1
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	15
$C \succ A \succ B \succ D$	3
$C \succ A \succ D \succ B$	2
$C \succ B \succ A \succ D$	6
$C \succ B \succ D \succ A$	1
$C \succ D \succ A \succ B$	1
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	1
$D \succ A \succ B \succ C$	2
$D \succ A \succ C \succ B$	1
$D \succ B \succ A \succ C$	1
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	24
$D \succ C \succ A \succ B$	2
$D \succ C \succ B \succ A$	1
Total	100

An ordinal voting procedure is a rule which, for any *profile* selects some candidate as the 'winner'.*

For example, *plurality vote*, 'vote-for-two', *antiplurality vote*, *Borda Count* and all other 'positional' voting systems are ordinal voting procedures.

So is 'plurality vote with a runoff election'.

So is Hare's instant runoff system.

So is every possible 'agenda' of pairwise votes.

There are also many other, more exotic procedures. Which one is right?

(*) This definition requires the procedure to be **anonymous**: all voters are treated exactly the same. This excludes 'weighted voting', or giving some voters 'tie-breaker' or 'veto' powers. It also excludes a **dictatorship**, where one 'voter' makes all the decisions. Anonymity is actually not necessary for what follows, but it makes it simpler.

(ロ) (四) (三) (三) (三) (0)

(日) (四) (三) (三)

A profile unanimously prefers candidate X if X is ranked *first* by 100% of the voters.

 $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathcal{A}}$

∍

A profile unanimously prefers candidate \mathbf{X} if \mathbf{X} is ranked *first* by 100% of the voters.

For example, the following profile unanimously prefers B:

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	10
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	18
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	20
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	12
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	15
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	25
Total	100

A profile unanimously prefers candidate X if X is ranked *first* by 100% of the voters.

For example, the following profile unanimously prefers B:

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	10
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	18
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	20
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	12
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	15
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	25
Total	100

A procedure V respects unanimity if, whenever a profile unanimously prefers X, the procedure V chooses X as the winner.

Sac

(26/84)

A profile unanimously prefers candidate X if X is ranked *first* by 100% of the voters.

For example, the following profile unanimously prefers B:

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	10
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	18
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	20
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	12
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	15
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	25
Total	100

A procedure V respects unanimity if, whenever a profile unanimously prefers X, the procedure V chooses X as the winner.

This rules out stupid procedures like "Always pick A", or "Always pick the candidate who has the *lowest* Borda count", or "Always pick whichever candidate gets the most votes, except for B".

(日) (四) (三) (三)

Sac

(26/84)

A profile unanimously prefers candidate X if X is ranked *first* by 100% of the voters.

For example, the following profile unanimously prefers B:

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	10
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	18
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	20
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	12
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	15
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	25
Total	100

A procedure V respects unanimity if, whenever a profile unanimously prefers X, the procedure V chooses X as the winner.

This rules out stupid procedures like "Always pick A", or "Always pick the candidate who has the *lowest* Borda count", or "Always pick whichever candidate gets the most votes, except for B".

Sac

Clearly, if *everyone* thinks B is the best, then B should win.

(26/84)

A profile unanimously prefers candidate X if X is ranked *first* by 100% of the voters.

For example, the following profile unanimously prefers B:

Electorate Profile	
Preferences	#
$B \succ A \succ C \succ D$	10
$B \succ A \succ D \succ C$	18
$B \succ C \succ A \succ D$	20
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	12
$B \succ D \succ A \succ C$	15
$B \succ D \succ C \succ A$	25
Total	100

A procedure V respects unanimity if, whenever a profile unanimously prefers X, the procedure V chooses X as the winner.

This rules out stupid procedures like "Always pick A", or "Always pick the candidate who has the *lowest* Borda count", or "Always pick whichever candidate gets the most votes, except for B".

Sac

Clearly, if *everyone* thinks B is the best, then B should win. **Example:** Borda count, plurality vote, antiplurality vote, etc. all respect unanimity.

We say that two profiles agree about candidates **X** and **Y** if, in both profiles, exactly the same number of voters feel that $\mathbf{X} \succ \mathbf{Y}$, and exactly the same number feel that $\mathbf{Y} \succ \mathbf{X}$.

(However, voters might differ in how they rank **X** and/or **Y** relative to other candidates, or how they rank other candidates relative to each other.)

We say that two profiles agree about candidates **X** and **Y** if, in both profiles, exactly the same number of voters feel that $\mathbf{X} \succ \mathbf{Y}$, and exactly the same number feel that $\mathbf{Y} \succ \mathbf{X}$.

(However, voters might differ in how they rank ${\bf X}$ and/or ${\bf Y}$ relative to other candidates, or how they rank other candidates relative to each other.)

For example, the following two profiles agree about A and B:

A versus B (C excluded)					
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$		
$A \succ B \succ C$	20	20			
$A \succ C \succ B$	20	20			
$B \succ A \succ C$	15		15		
$B \succ C \succ A$	15		15		
$C \succ A \succ B$	5	5			
$C \succ B \succ A$	25		25		
Total	100	45	55		
Verdict:		$B \succ A$			

A versus B (C excluded)						
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$			
$A \succ B \succ C$	15	15				
$A \succ C \succ B$	15	15				
$B \succ A \succ C$	20		20			
$B \succ C \succ A$	20		20			
$C \succ A \succ B$	15	15				
$C \succ B \succ A$	15		15			
Total	100	45	55			
Verdict:		$B \succ A$				

500

We say that two profiles agree about candidates **X** and **Y** if, in both profiles, exactly the same number of voters feel that $\mathbf{X} \succ \mathbf{Y}$, and exactly the same number feel that $\mathbf{Y} \succ \mathbf{X}$.

(However, voters might differ in how they rank ${\bf X}$ and/or ${\bf Y}$ relative to other candidates, or how they rank other candidates relative to each other.)

For example, the following two profiles agree about A and B:

A versu				
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	Pre
$A \succ B \succ C$	20	20		A
$A \succ C \succ B$	20	20		A
$B \succ A \succ C$	15		15	В
$B \succ C \succ A$	15		15	В
$C \succ A \succ B$	5	5		C
$C \succ B \succ A$	25		25	C
Total	100	45	55	
Verdict:		B>	- A	

A versus B (C excluded)					
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$		
$A \succ B \succ C$	15	15			
$A \succ C \succ B$	15	15			
$B \succ A \succ C$	20		20		
$B \succ C \succ A$	20		20		
$C \succ A \succ B$	15	15			
$C \succ B \succ A$	15		15		
Total	100	45	55		
Verdict:		B>	- A		

A voting procedure V satisfies Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives if, whenever two profiles P_1 and P_2 agree about X and Y, and V makes X the winner in P_1 , then V can't make Y the winner in P_2 .

Plurality vote does *not* satisfy IIA, as the following tables show:

A versus B (C excluded)		A versus B (C excluded)					
Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$	Preferences	#	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ C$	20	20		$A \succ B \succ C$	15	15	
$A \succ C \succ B$	20	20		$A \succ C \succ B$	15	15	
$B \succ A \succ C$	15		15	$B \succ A \succ C$	20		20
$B \succ C \succ A$	15		15	$B \succ C \succ A$	20		20
$C \succ A \succ B$	5	5		$C \succ A \succ B$	15	15	
$C \succ B \succ A$	25		25	$C \succ B \succ A$	15		15
Total	100	45	55	Total	100	45	55
Ve	Verdict: $B \succ A$		- A	Verdict:		$B \succ A$	

A voting procedure V satisfies Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives if, whenever two profiles P_1 and P_2 agree about X and Y, and V makes X the winner in P_1 , then V can't make Y the winner in P_2 .

Plurality vote does *not* satisfy IIA, as the following tables show:

The two profiles agree about A and B.

But on the left, A wins the plurality vote, whereas on the right, B does.

Plurality Vote

Α

15

15

30

#

15

15

20

20

15

15

100

Verdict:

В

20

20

40

B wins.

15

15

30

Plurality Vote					PI
Preferences	#	Α	В	C	Preferences
$A \succ B \succ C$	20	20			$A \succ B \succ C$
$A \succ C \succ B$	20	20			$A \succ C \succ B$
$B \succ A \succ C$	15		15		$B \succ A \succ C$
$B \succ C \succ A$	15		15		$B \succ C \succ A$
$C \succ A \succ B$	5			5	$C \succ A \succ B$
$C \succ B \succ A$	25			25	$C \succ B \succ A$
Total	100	40	30	30	Total
Verdict:		A wins.		Ve	

A voting procedure V satisfies Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives if, whenever two profiles P_1 and P_2 agree about **X** and **Y**, and **V** makes **X** the winner in P_1 , then V can't make Y the winner in P_2 . 500 ∍

Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

(28/84)

〈曰〉〈母〉〈言〉〈言〉

500

In fact, *none* of the procedures we have introduced so far satisfies IIA; this was part of the reason for all the 'paradoxes'.

Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

(28/84)

Sac

In fact, *none* of the procedures we have introduced so far satisfies IIA; this was part of the reason for all the 'paradoxes'.

Indeed, no sensible ordinal procedure can satisfy IIA....

Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

Sac

In fact, *none* of the procedures we have introduced so far satisfies IIA; this was part of the reason for all the 'paradoxes'. Indeed, *no* sensible ordinal procedure can satisfy IIA....

Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: Suppose an election has three or more candidates. Then there is <u>no</u> ordinal voting procedure which respects Unanimity and is Independent of Irrelevant Alternatives.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

In fact, *none* of the procedures we have introduced so far satisfies IIA; this was part of the reason for all the 'paradoxes'. Indeed, *no* sensible ordinal procedure can satisfy IIA....

Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: Suppose an election has three or more candidates. Then there is <u>no</u> ordinal voting procedure which respects Unanimity and is Independent of Irrelevant Alternatives.

That is: *any* ordinal voting procedure must either disrespect unanimity, or be sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', or both.

In fact, *none* of the procedures we have introduced so far satisfies IIA; this was part of the reason for all the 'paradoxes'. Indeed, *no* sensible ordinal procedure can satisfy IIA....

Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: Suppose an election has three or more candidates. Then there is <u>no</u> ordinal voting procedure which respects Unanimity and is Independent of Irrelevant Alternatives.

That is: *any* ordinal voting procedure must either disrespect unanimity, or be sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', or both.

(Or, it must be a system which is *not* an 'ordinal voting procedure' —e.g. it uses some other data besides 'preference orders').

In fact, *none* of the procedures we have introduced so far satisfies IIA; this was part of the reason for all the 'paradoxes'. Indeed, *no* sensible ordinal procedure can satisfy IIA....

Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: Suppose an election has three or more candidates. Then there is <u>no</u> ordinal voting procedure which respects Unanimity and is Independent of Irrelevant Alternatives.

That is: *any* ordinal voting procedure must either disrespect unanimity, or be sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', or both.

(Or, it must be a system which is *not* an 'ordinal voting procedure' —e.g. it uses some other data besides 'preference orders').

This theorem was proved by the mathematical economist Kenneth Arrow in 1950.

In fact, *none* of the procedures we have introduced so far satisfies IIA; this was part of the reason for all the 'paradoxes'. Indeed, *no* sensible ordinal procedure can satisfy IIA....

Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: Suppose an election has three or more candidates. Then there is <u>no</u> ordinal voting procedure which respects Unanimity and is Independent of Irrelevant Alternatives.

That is: *any* ordinal voting procedure must either disrespect unanimity, or be sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', or both.

(Or, it must be a system which is *not* an 'ordinal voting procedure' —e.g. it uses some other data besides 'preference orders').

This theorem was proved by the mathematical economist Kenneth Arrow in 1950. Arrow almost single-handedly invented modern axiomatic voting theory (also called *social choice theory*).

In fact, *none* of the procedures we have introduced so far satisfies IIA; this was part of the reason for all the 'paradoxes'. Indeed, *no* sensible ordinal procedure can satisfy IIA....

Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: Suppose an election has three or more candidates. Then there is <u>no</u> ordinal voting procedure which respects Unanimity and is Independent of Irrelevant Alternatives.

That is: *any* ordinal voting procedure must either disrespect unanimity, or be sensitive to 'irrelevant alternatives', or both.

(Or, it must be a system which is *not* an 'ordinal voting procedure' —e.g. it uses some other data besides 'preference orders').

This theorem was proved by the mathematical economist Kenneth Arrow in 1950. Arrow almost single-handedly invented modern axiomatic voting theory (also called *social choice theory*). In 1972, he received the Nobel Prize in Economics, in part for this result.

What is a theorem?

(29/84)

What is a 'theorem'?



<ロ> <日> <日> < => < => < => < = > < < のへで

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain mathematical object must have certain properties.

What is a theorem?

(29/84)

What is a 'theorem'? A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain abstract mental object must have certain properties.

〈ロ〉 〈問〉 〈注〉 〈注〉 ― 注

5900

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain **class** of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties.

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties.

〈ロ〉 〈問〉 〈注〉 〈注〉 三百一

500

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties).

(日) < (日) > (1) > (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1)

500

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties). For example....

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties). For example....

Pythagoras' Theorem: Suppose a triangle has sides of length *a*, *b*, and *h*. Suppose the angle between sides *a* and *b* is 90°. Then $h^2 = a^2 + b^2$.



What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties). For example....

Pythagoras' Theorem: Suppose a triangle has sides of length *a*, *b*, and *h*. Suppose the angle between sides *a* and *b* is 90°. Then $h^2 = a^2 + b^2$.



Jac.

A theorem is not a 'theory'. It is not something we think 'might' be true.

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties). For example....

Pythagoras' Theorem: Suppose a triangle has sides of length *a*, *b*, and *h*. Suppose the angle between sides *a* and *b* is 90°. Then $h^2 = a^2 + b^2$.



Jac.

< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 >

A theorem is not a 'theory'. It is not something we think 'might' be true. It is a statement that we *know* is *always* true.
What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties). For example....

Pythagoras' Theorem: Suppose a triangle has sides of length *a*, *b*, and *h*. Suppose the angle between sides *a* and *b* is 90°. Then $h^2 = a^2 + b^2$.



Jac.

A theorem is not a 'theory'. It is not something we think 'might' be true. It is a statement that we *know* is *always* true.

A theorem is not a observation of an 'empirical fact' (e.g. like gravity) which we believe because of 10 000 experiments or measurements.

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties). For example....

Pythagoras' Theorem: Suppose a triangle has sides of length *a*, *b*, and *h*. Suppose the angle between sides *a* and *b* is 90°. Then $h^2 = a^2 + b^2$.



Jac.

A theorem is not a 'theory'. It is not something we think 'might' be true. It is a statement that we *know* is *always* true.

A theorem is not a observation of an 'empirical fact' (e.g. like gravity) which we believe because of 10 000 experiments or measurements.

A theorem is statement of *logical necessity*, which has an irrefutable 'proof'.

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties). For example....

Pythagoras' Theorem: Suppose a triangle has sides of length *a*, *b*, and *h*. Suppose the angle between sides *a* and *b* is 90°. Then $h^2 = a^2 + b^2$.



Jac.

A theorem is not a 'theory'. It is not something we think 'might' be true. It is a statement that we *know* is *always* true.

A theorem is not a observation of an 'empirical fact' (e.g. like gravity) which we believe because of 10 000 experiments or measurements. A theorem is statement of *logical necessity*, which has an irrefutable 'proof'.

What's a 'proof'?

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties). For example....

Pythagoras' Theorem: Suppose a triangle has sides of length *a*, *b*, and *h*. Suppose the angle between sides *a* and *b* is 90°. Then $h^2 = a^2 + b^2$.



A theorem is not a 'theory'. It is not something we think 'might' be true. It is a statement that we *know* is *always* true.

A theorem is not a observation of an 'empirical fact' (e.g. like gravity) which we believe because of 10 000 experiments or measurements. A theorem is statement of *logical necessity*, which has an irrefutable 'proof'.

What's a 'proof'?

A **proof** is a sequence of logical deductions, which shows that certain conclusions are the inescapable logical consequence of certain assumptions.

What is a 'theorem'?

A **theorem** is an assertion that a certain precisely defined class of abstract mental objects must *always* have certain properties (or, that they can *never* have certain other properties). For example....

Pythagoras' Theorem: Suppose a triangle has sides of length *a*, *b*, and *h*. Suppose the angle between sides *a* and *b* is 90°. Then $h^2 = a^2 + b^2$.



A theorem is not a 'theory'. It is not something we think 'might' be true. It is a statement that we *know* is *always* true.

A theorem is not a observation of an 'empirical fact' (e.g. like gravity) which we believe because of 10 000 experiments or measurements. A theorem is statement of *logical necessity*, which has an irrefutable 'proof'.

What's a 'proof'?

A **proof** is a sequence of logical deductions, which shows that certain conclusions are the inescapable logical consequence of certain assumptions. For example.....



< D)



• •







< D)



< D)



< D)



< D)



< D)



< D)



< D)













Proof of Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

(31/84)

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.



Proof of Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

(31/84)

500

∍

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will suppose that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA)....

Sac

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will *suppose* that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA).... and we will logically deduce a *paradox*.

Sac

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will *suppose* that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA).... and we will logically deduce a *paradox*.

The only way to avoid the paradox is to accept that no such voting procedure can exist

Sac

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will *suppose* that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA).... and we will logically deduce a *paradox*.

The only way to avoid the paradox is to accept that no such voting procedure can exist —this is the conclusion of Arrow's theorem.

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0)

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will *suppose* that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA).... and we will logically deduce a *paradox*.

The only way to avoid the paradox is to accept that no such voting procedure can exist —this is the conclusion of Arrow's theorem.

To implement this strategy, we first introduce the concept of 'defeating'.

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will *suppose* that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA).... and we will logically deduce a *paradox*.

The only way to avoid the paradox is to accept that no such voting procedure can exist —this is the conclusion of Arrow's theorem.

To implement this strategy, we first introduce the concept of 'defeating'.

Let A and B be candidates. Let p be some percentage between 0 and 100%.

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will *suppose* that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA).... and we will logically deduce a *paradox*.

The only way to avoid the paradox is to accept that no such voting procedure can exist —this is the conclusion of Arrow's theorem.

To implement this strategy, we first introduce the concept of 'defeating'.

Let A and B be candidates. Let p be some percentage between 0 and 100%.

Given a voting rule V, we say that A *can defeat* B under V *with* p% *support* if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will *suppose* that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA).... and we will logically deduce a *paradox*.

The only way to avoid the paradox is to accept that no such voting procedure can exist —this is the conclusion of Arrow's theorem.

To implement this strategy, we first introduce the concept of 'defeating'.

Let A and B be candidates. Let p be some percentage between 0 and 100%. Given a voting rule V, we say that A *can defeat* B under V *with* p% *support* if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

• p% of the voters believe $A \succ B$;

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will *suppose* that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA).... and we will logically deduce a *paradox*.

The only way to avoid the paradox is to accept that no such voting procedure can exist —this is the conclusion of Arrow's theorem.

To implement this strategy, we first introduce the concept of 'defeating'.

Let A and B be candidates. Let p be some percentage between 0 and 100%. Given a voting rule V, we say that A *can defeat* B under V *with* p% *support* if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

- p% of the voters believe $A \succ B$;
- (hence, (100 p)% of the voters believe $B \succ A$);

< 口 > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ = ○ < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○

We will prove Arrow's Impossibility Theorem by contradiction.

That is, we will *suppose* that there is some voting procedure V which respects unanimity and 'independence of irrelevant alternatives' (IIA).... and we will logically deduce a *paradox*.

The only way to avoid the paradox is to accept that no such voting procedure can exist —this is the conclusion of Arrow's theorem.

To implement this strategy, we first introduce the concept of 'defeating'.

Let A and B be candidates. Let p be some percentage between 0 and 100%. Given a voting rule V, we say that A *can defeat* B under V *with* p% *support* if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

- p% of the voters believe $A \succ B$;
- (hence, (100 p)% of the voters believe $B \succ A$);
- ▶ and where V chooses A as the winner.

Proof of Arrow's Theorem: Defeating thresholds

Jac.

Given a voting rule V, we say that A can defeat B under V with p% support if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

- p% of the voters believe $A \succ B$;
- (hence, (100 p)% of the voters believe $B \succ A$);
- ▶ and where V chooses A as the winner.
(32/84)

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Given a voting rule V, we say that A can defeat B under V with p% support if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

- p% of the voters believe $A \succ B$;
- (hence, (100 p)% of the voters believe $B \succ A$);
- ▶ and where V chooses A as the winner.

For example, if V is plurality vote, then A can defeat B with 55% support, because A is the winner of the following profile:

Plurality Vote							
Preferences	#	Α	В	С			
$A \succ B \succ C$	55	55					
$B \succ A \succ C$	45		45				
Total	100	55	45	0			
Verdict:		A	wins				

(Here, "C" represents all the other candidates besides A and B.)

Given a voting rule V, we say that A can defeat B under V with p% support if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

- p% of the voters believe $A \succ B$;
- (hence, (100 p)% of the voters believe $B \succ A$);
- ▶ and where V chooses A as the winner.

If V is any voting rule respecting unanimity, then A can defeat B with 100% support, because A is the winner of the following profile:

Preferences	%
$A \succ B \succ C$	100
Unanimous verdict:	Α

(Here, "C" represents all the other candidates besides A and B.)

(32/84)

Sac

Given a voting rule V, we say that A can defeat B under V with p% support if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

- p% of the voters believe $A \succ B$;
- (hence, (100 p)% of the voters believe $B \succ A$);
- ▶ and where V chooses A as the winner.

If A can defeat B with p% support, and V satisfies IIA, then in *any* profile of voter preferences where p% of the voters believe that $A \succ B$, the procedure V cannot choose B as the winner.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Given a voting rule V, we say that A can defeat B under V with p% support if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

- p% of the voters believe $A \succ B$;
- (hence, (100 p)% of the voters believe $B \succ A$);
- ▶ and where V chooses A as the winner.

If A can defeat B with p% support, and V satisfies IIA, then in *any* profile of voter preferences where p% of the voters believe that $A \succ B$, the procedure V cannot choose B as the winner. (Of course, V might not choose A as the winner either).

< 口 > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ = ○ < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○

Given a voting rule V, we say that A can defeat B under V with p% support if there exists a profile of voter preferences where:

- p% of the voters believe $A \succ B$;
- (hence, (100 p)% of the voters believe $B \succ A$);
- ▶ and where V chooses A as the winner.

If A can defeat B with p% support, and V satisfies IIA, then in *any* profile of voter preferences where p% of the voters believe that $A \succ B$, the procedure V cannot choose B as the winner. (Of course, V might not choose A as the winner either).

In this case, we say that A always defeats B with p% support.

Recall that the 'agenda of pairwise votes' method favours *later* candidates over *earlier* ones.

Recall that the 'agenda of pairwise votes' method favours *later* candidates over *earlier* ones.

In other words, it failed to be neutral: to treat all candidates the same.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Recall that the 'agenda of pairwise votes' method favours *later* candidates over *earlier* ones.

In other words, it failed to be neutral: to treat all candidates the same.

If a voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem....

(33/84)

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0)

Recall that the 'agenda of pairwise votes' method favours *later* candidates over *earlier* ones.

In other words, it failed to be neutral: to treat all candidates the same.

If a voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem....

Lemma 1.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Recall that the 'agenda of pairwise votes' method favours *later* candidates over *earlier* ones.

In other words, it failed to be neutral: to treat all candidates the same.

If a voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem....

Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

<ロ> < 団> < 団> < 三> < 三> < 三> 三 のへで

Recall that the 'agenda of pairwise votes' method favours *later* candidates over *earlier* ones.

In other words, it failed to be neutral: to treat all candidates the same.

If a voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem....

Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support.

<ロ> < 団> < 団> < 三> < 三> < 三> 三 のへで

Recall that the 'agenda of pairwise votes' method favours *later* candidates over *earlier* ones.

In other words, it failed to be neutral: to treat all candidates the same.

If a voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem....

Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support.

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Recall that the 'agenda of pairwise votes' method favours *later* candidates over *earlier* ones.

In other words, it failed to be neutral: to treat all candidates the same.

If a voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem....

Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support.

(That is: if *some* candidate *can* defeat *some* other candidate with p% support, then *any* candidate *always* defeats *any* other candidate with p% support.)

Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support.

5900

Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support. **Proof.**

Jac.

Jac.

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		
Total:	100%		

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {f X}{=} \; {\sf all} \ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

500

	- · j, - ·	 	· /	-
Preferences	%			
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%			
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%			
Total:	100%			

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \ \mathbf{X}{=} \ {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \ candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

	· · · j · · ·	 	 -
Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \ \mathbf{X}{=} \ {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \ candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile. **Proof:**

	· · · j · · ·	 	 -
Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile. **Proof:** *B* can't win:

	· · · j · · · ·			
Preferences	%	$A \succ B$		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%			
Total:	100%	60%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

500

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile. **Proof:** *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$.

				- / •
Preferences	%	$A \succ B$		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%			
Total:	100%	60%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Sac

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis);

	· · · j · · · ·			
Preferences	%	$A \succ B$		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%			
Total:	100%	60%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

500

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA).

	· · · j · · · ·			
Preferences	%	$A \succ B$		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%			
Total:	100%	60%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

500

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win:

	J 1			
Preferences	%	A≻B	B≻D	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		40%	
Total:	100%	60%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \mathsf{all} \\ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 - 9 9 9 9

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$.

Preferences	%	$A \succ B$	B≻D	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		40%	
Total:	100%	60%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \mathsf{all} \\ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity);

	· • · • / · • • •			_	
Preferences	%	A≻B	B≻D		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%	60%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		40%		
Total:	100%	60%	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \mathsf{all} \\ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA).

	· • · • / · • • •			_	
Preferences	%	A≻B	B≻D		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%	60%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		40%		
Total:	100%	60%	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here, } {\bf X}{=} {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win:

· · • • · • · • · • · • · •	00/01	001101010	•		
Preferences	%	$A \succ B$	$B \succ D$	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		40%	40%	
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$.

	ierey, su		00/0.	constact	
Preferences	%	$A \succ B$	$B \succ D$	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		40%	40%	
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%	

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity);

	ierey, su		00/0.	constact	
Preferences	%	$A \succ B$	$B \succ D$	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		40%	40%	
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {\bf X}{=}\; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other}\; {\sf candidates}. \end{array}\right.$

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

· · • • • · • · • · • · • · •	00/01	00.00.000	•		
Preferences	%	$A \succ B$	$B \succ D$	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		40%	40%	
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \ {\sf X}{=} \ {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \ candidates.} \end{array}\right.$

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

But V must pick *someone* as the winner.

· · • • • · • · • · • · • · •	00/01	00110100	•		
Preferences	%	$A \succ B$	$B \succ D$	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%		40%	40%	
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

(Claim 1).

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ X$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA). But *V* must pick someone as the winner. A is the only choice left, so *V*

picks A. Hence A wins.

		77	 ~	s 8870
Preferences	%			$A \succ D$
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	60%			60%
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	40%			0
Total:	100%			60%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with 60% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *Q* with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

But V must pick *someone* as the winner. A is the only choice left, so V picks A. Hence A wins. $\Box_{(Claim 1)}$.

Note: Claim 1 means that A can defeat D with 60% support.

Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support. **Proof.** Now let p be anything.

< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 >

Jac.

Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support. **Proof.** Now let p be anything. Let q% := 100 - p%.

Jac.
Jac.

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	p%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

5990

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	p%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		
Total:	100%		

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {f X}{=}\; {\sf all} \ {\sf other}\; {\sf candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	p%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile. **Proof:**

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	p%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		
Total:	100%		

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {f X}{=} \; {\sf all} \ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile. **Proof:** *B* can't win:

Preferences	%	$A \succ B$		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	p%	p%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%			
Total:	100%	<i>р</i> %		

Jac.

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile. **Proof:** B can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$.

Preferences	%	$A \succ B$		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%			
Total:	100%	р%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Sac

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile. **Proof:** B can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But A can defeat B with p% (by hypothesis);

Preferences	%	$A \succ B$		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%			
Total:	100%	р%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA).

Preferences	%	$A \succ B$		
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	р%	p%		
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%			
Total:	100%	р%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Sac

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win:

Preferences	%	$A \succ B$	B≻D	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	p%	p%	р%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		q%	
Total:	100%	p%	100%	

$$\left(egin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here,} \ \mathbf{X}= \mathsf{all} \ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Claim 1: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$.

-	• •			. ,
)	B≻D	A ≻ B	%	Preferences
	p%	р%	p%	$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$
	q%		q%	$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$
	100%	p%	100%	Total:
1	р% q% 100%	р% р%	р% q% 100%	$\frac{A \succ B \succ D \succ \mathbf{X}}{B \succ D \succ A \succ \mathbf{X}}$ Total:

$$\left(egin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here,} \ \mathbf{X}= \mathsf{all} \ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity);

		01		
%	$A \succ B$	B≻D		
p%	р%	р%		
q%		q%		
100%	р%	100%		
	% p% q% 100%	$ \begin{array}{c c} \% & A \succ B \\ p\% & p\% \\ q\% & \\ 100\% & p\% \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA).

		01		
%	$A \succ B$	B≻D		
p%	р%	р%		
q%		q%		
100%	р%	100%		
	% p% q% 100%	$ \begin{array}{c c} \% & A \succ B \\ p\% & p\% \\ q\% & \\ 100\% & p\% \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

$$\left(egin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here,} \ \mathbf{X}= \mathsf{all} \ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win:

Preferences	%	A≻B	B≻D	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%	р%	р%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		q%	q%	
Total:	100%	р%	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$.

Preferences	%	A≻B	B≻D	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	p%	р%	p%	р%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		q%	q%	
Total:	100%	<i>p</i> %	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 団 > < 言 > < 言 > く 言 > く 言 > シ へ ゆ

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity);

Preferences	%	$A \succ B$	B≻D	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%	р%	р%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		q%	q%	
Total:	100%	р%	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

Preferences	%	$A \succ B$	B≻D	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%	р%	р%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		q%	q%	
Total:	100%	р%	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here,} \ \mathbf{X} = \mathsf{all} \\ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA). *V* must pick someone.

,					
Preferences	%	A≻B	B≻D	B ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%	р%	р%	
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		q%	q%	
Total:	100%	р%	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here,}\ \mathbf{X} = \mathsf{all}\\ \mathsf{other}\ \mathsf{candidates}. \end{array}\right.$

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

V must pick someone. A is the only choice left, so V picks A. $\Box_{(Claim 1)}$.

Preferences	%		$A \succ D$
$A \succ B \succ D \succ X$	р%		р%
$B \succ D \succ A \succ X$	q%		
Total:	100%		<i>р</i> %

$$\left(egin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here,} \ \mathbf{X}= \mathsf{all} \ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Sac

Claim 1: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think that $A \succ B$. But *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis); hence *A* always defeats *B* with p% (by IIA). *D* can't win: 100% of voters think $B \succ D$. But *B* can defeat *D* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats *D* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think that $B \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *B* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *B* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA). *V* must pick someone. A is the only choice left, so *V* picks A. $\Box_{(Claim 1)}$.

Note: Claim 1 means that A can defeat D with p% support.

 $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathcal{C}}$

Now consider the following profilePreferences% $C \succ A \succ D \succ X$ p% $D \succ C \succ A \succ X$ q%

Total: 100%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here,} \ \mathbf{X} = \mathsf{all} \\ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Sac

		<u> </u>		
Preferences	%			
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ D \succ \mathbf{X}$	р%			
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%			
Total:	100%			

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {\pmb{\mathsf{X}}}{=}\; {\sf all}\\ {\sf other\; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

		<u> </u>		
Preferences	%			
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%			
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%			
Total:	100%			

 $\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {f X}{=} \; {\sf all} \ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$

Jac.

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile. **Proof:**

		<u> </u>		
Preferences	%			
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	p%			
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%			
Total:	100%			

 $\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {f X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$

Jac.

Claim 2: *V* makes *C* the winner for this profile. **Proof:** *D* can't win:

		01.	-	
Preferences	%	$A \succ D$		
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%	p%		
$D \succ C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	q%	0		
Total:	100%	<i>р</i> %		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Sac

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile. **Proof:** D can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$.

		01	-	
Preferences	%	$A \succ D$		1
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%	p%		
$D \succ C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	q%	0		
Total:	100%	р%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Sac

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1).

Preferences	%	$A \succ D$		
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	<i>p</i> %	р%		
$D \succ C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	q%	0		
Total:	100%	р%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA).

Preferences	%	$A \succ D$				
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%				
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0				
Total:	100%	р%				

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win:

81							
Preferences	%	$A \succ D$	$C \succ A$				
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%	р%				
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0	q%				
Total:	100%	р%	100%				

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \mathsf{all} \\ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ A$.

of the second of the second presses							
Preferences	%	$A \succ D$	$C \succ A$				
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	p%	р%	р%				
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0	q%				
Total:	100%	р%	100%				

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ A$. But *C* can defeat *A* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity);

Preferences	%	$A \succ D$	$C \succ A$					
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%	р%					
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0	q%					
Total:	100%	р%	100%					

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ A$. But *C* can defeat *A* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats *A* with 100% (by IIA).

ben benefabli the renorm 6 promo								
Preferences	%	$A \succ D$	$C \succ A$					
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%	р%	р%					
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0	q%					
Total:	100%	р%	100%					

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \mathsf{all} \\ \mathsf{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ A$. But *C* can defeat *A* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats *A* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win:

Preferences	%	$A \succ D$	$C \succ A$	$C \succ X$	
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	p%	p%	p%	р%	
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0	q%	q%	
Total:	100%	<i>p</i> %	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ A$. But *C* can defeat *A* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats *A* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ \mathbf{X}$.

Preferences	%	$A \succ D$	$C \succ A$	$C \succ X$	
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	p%	p%	р%	р%	
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0	q%	q%	
Total:	100%	<i>p</i> %	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ A$. But *C* can defeat *A* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats *A* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ$ **X**. But *C* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity);

Preferences	%	$A \succ D$	$C \succ A$	$C \succ X$	
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	p%	р%	р%	р%	
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0	q%	q%	
Total:	100%	<i>p</i> %	100%	100%	

 $\begin{pmatrix} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{pmatrix}$

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ A$. But *C* can defeat *A* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats *A* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ$ **X**. But *C* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

Preferences	%	$A \succ D$	$C \succ A$	$C \succ X$	
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	p%	p%	р%	р%	
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0	q%	q%	
Total:	100%	<i>p</i> %	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ A$. But *C* can defeat *A* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats *A* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ$ **X**. But *C* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA). *V* must pick someone.
Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support. **Proof.** Let q% := 100 - p%. (e.g. if p = 60% then q = 40%). Now consider the following profile

Preferences	%	$A \succ D$	$C \succ A$	$C \succ X$	
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	p%	p%	р%	р%	
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%	0	q%	q%	
Total:	100%	<i>p</i> %	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Proof: *D* can't win: p% of voters think $A \succ D$. But *A* can defeat *D* with p% support (by Claim 1). Hence A always defeats D with p% (by IIA). *A* can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ A$. But *C* can defeat *A* with 100% (*V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats *A* with 100% (by IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $C \succ$ **X**. But *C* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity); hence *C* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA). *V* must pick someone. *C* is the only choice left, so *V* picks *C*. $\Box_{(Claim 2)}$. **Lemma 1.** Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support. **Proof.** Let q% := 100 - p%. (e.g. if p = 60% then q = 40%). Now consider the following profile

Preferences	%				$C \succ D$				
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%				р%				
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%								
Total:	100%				<i>р</i> %				

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$$

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Claim 2 implies that C can defeat D with p% support.

Lemma 1. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support. **Proof.** Let q% := 100 - p%. (e.g. if p = 60% then q = 40%). Now consider the following profile

Preferences	%			$C \succ D$						
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%			p%						
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%									
Total:	100%			р%						

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$$

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Claim 2 implies that C can defeat D with p% support. Thus, C *always* defeats D with p% support, because V satisfies IIA. **Lemma 1.** Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates. Suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any candidates C and D, C always defeats D with p% support. **Proof.** Let q% := 100 - p%. (e.g. if p = 60% then q = 40%). Now consider the following profile

Preferences	%				$C \succ D$					
$C \succ A \succ D \succ X$	р%				р%					
$D \succ C \succ A \succ X$	q%									
Total:	100%				р%					

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$$

Claim 2: V makes C the winner for this profile.

Claim 2 implies that C can defeat D with p% support. Thus, C *always* defeats D with p% support, because V satisfies IIA. But this is what we wanted to prove.

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate *A* can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase A*'s support.

Sac

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate *A* can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase A*'s support. In other words, *A* might defeat *B* when 55% of voters think $A \succ B$, but then *A* might be *defeated* by *B* when 60% of voters think $A \succ B$.

500

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate A can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase* A's support. In other words, A might defeat B when p% of voters think $A \succ B$, but then A might be *defeated* by B when P% of voters think $A \succ B$ for some P > p.

(日) < (日) > (1)

Jac.

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate *A* can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase A*'s support. In other words, *A* might defeat *B* when p% of voters think $A \succ B$, but then *A* might be *defeated* by *B* when P% of voters think $A \succ B$ for some P > p. This is totally perverse. If voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem.

Sac

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate *A* can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase A*'s support. In other words, *A* might defeat *B* when p% of voters think $A \succ B$, but then *A* might be *defeated* by *B* when P% of voters think $A \succ B$ for some P > p. This is totally perverse. If voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem.

Sac

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate *A* can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase A*'s support. In other words, *A* might defeat *B* when p% of voters think $A \succ B$, but then *A* might be *defeated* by *B* when P% of voters think $A \succ B$ for some P > p. This is totally perverse. If voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem.

Lemma 2. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

Sac

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate *A* can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase A*'s support. In other words, *A* might defeat *B* when p% of voters think $A \succ B$, but then *A* might be *defeated* by *B* when P% of voters think $A \succ B$ for some P > p. This is totally perverse. If voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem. **Lemma 2.** Let *V* be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let *A* and *B* be two candidates, and suppose *A* can defeat *B* with p%

support.

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate *A* can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase A*'s support. In other words, *A* might defeat *B* when p% of voters think $A \succ B$, but then *A* might be *defeated* by *B* when P% of voters think $A \succ B$ for some P > p. This is totally perverse. If voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem. **Lemma 2.** Let *V* be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

Let A and B be two candidates, and suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any P > p, A always defeats B with P% support.

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate *A* can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase A*'s support. In other words, *A* might defeat *B* when p% of voters think $A \succ B$, but then *A* might be *defeated* by *B* when P% of voters think $A \succ B$ for some P > p. This is totally perverse. If voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem.

Lemma 2. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates, and suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any P > p, A always defeats B with P% support.

In other words: *increasing* the number of voters who prefer A over B can never cause A to *lose* to B.

Recall that *Hare's method* suffered from nonmonotonicity: Candidate *A* can go from being a winner to a loser when we *increase A*'s support. In other words, *A* might defeat *B* when p% of voters think $A \succ B$, but then *A* might be *defeated* by *B* when P% of voters think $A \succ B$ for some P > p. This is totally perverse. If voting rule respected unanimity and IIA, then it wouldn't have this problem.

Lemma 2. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates, and suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any P > p, A always defeats B with P% support.

In other words: *increasing* the number of voters who prefer A over B can never cause A to *lose* to B.

Example: In plurality vote, if A defeats B with 55% support, then A also defeats B with 60% support.

Lemma 2. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates, and suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any P > p, A always defeats B with P% support. **Lemma 2.** Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates, and suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any P > p, A always defeats B with P% support. **Proof.** **Lemma 2.** Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates, and suppose A can defeat B with 60% support. Then A always defeats B with 70% support. **Proof.** For simplicity, first suppose p := 60 and P := 70.

Preferences	%		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {\pmb{\mathsf{X}}}{=}\; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other\; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 - 9 9 9 9

Preferences	%		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		
Total:	100%		

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {\sf X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Preferences	%		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		
Total:	100%		

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {\sf X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Jac.

Claim: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile. **Proof:**

Preferences	%		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		
Total:	100%		

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {\sf X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Claim: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile. **Proof:** *B* can't win:

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%			
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%			
Total:	100%	60%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {\pmb{\mathsf{X}}}{=}\; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other\; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

500

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile. **Proof:** B can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$.

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%			
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%			
Total:	100%	60%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with 60% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis).

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%			
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%			
Total:	100%	60%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with 60% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win:

				<u>.</u>	· · ·	. 7
Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$			
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%	60%			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%			
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		30%			
Total:	100%	60%	100%			

Here,
$$\mathbf{X}$$
= all other candidates.

500

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with 60% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$.

81								
Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$					
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%	60%					
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%					
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		30%					
Total:	100%	60%	100%					

Here,
$$\mathbf{X}$$
= all other candidates.

500

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with 60% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA).

81								
Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$					
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%	60%					
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%					
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		30%					
Total:	100%	60%	100%					

Here,
$$\mathbf{X}$$
= all other candidates.

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with 60% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win:

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$					
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%					
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%	10%					
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		30%	30%					
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%					

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with 60% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ X$.

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$					
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%					
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%	10%					
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		30%	30%					
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%					

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with 60% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* always defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA).

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$					
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%					
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%	10%					
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		30%	30%					
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%					

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with 60% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ X$. But *A* always defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). *V* must pick *someone* as winner.

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$				
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%				
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%	10%				
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		30%	30%				
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%				

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: 60% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with 60% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with 60% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* always defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). *V* must pick *someone* as winner. But *A* is the only choice left.

Thus, V picks A.

__(Claim). <ロ> < 舂> < 言> く言> ミ のへで

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$					
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%	60%	60%	60%					
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%	10%					
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		30%	30%					
Total:	100%	60%	100%	100%					

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Jac.

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Preferences	%		A ≻ B
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%		60%
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		
Total:	100%		70%

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {f X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

The claim implies that A can defeat B with 70% support.

Preferences	%				$A \succ B$	
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%				60%	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%				10%	
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%					
Total:	100%				70%	

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {\sf X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Jac.

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

The claim implies that A can defeat B with 70% support.

Thus *A* always defeats *B* with 70% support, by IIA.

Preferences	%		A ≻ B
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	60%		60%
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	10%		10%
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	30%		
Total:	100%		70%

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {f X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

Jac.

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

The claim implies that A can defeat B with 70% support.

Thus A always defeats B with 70% support, by IIA.

But this is what we wanted to prove.

Lemma 2. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates, and suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any P > p, A always defeats B with P% support.
Lemma 2. Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates, and suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any P > p, A always defeats B with P% support. **Proof.** **Lemma 2.** Let V be a voting rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let A and B be two candidates, and suppose A can defeat B with p% support. Then for any P > p, A always defeats B with P% support. **Proof.** Now let p and P > p be arbitrary.

	01			
Preferences	%			
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	р%			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%			
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100 - P%			
Total:	100%			

500

		 	-	_
Preferences	%			
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%			$ / \mathbf{X} = $ all
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%			other
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%			Candidates.
Total:	100%			

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Jac.

and constact the	reneming pi	0.	 •	
Preferences	%			
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	р%			$\int \mathbf{X} = all$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P - p%			other
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100 - P%			Candidates.
Total:	100%			

Claim: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile. **Proof:**

(日) (四) (三) (三)

Jac.

and constact the	reneming pi	0.	 •	
Preferences	%			
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%			$ / \mathbf{X} = $ all
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P - p%			other
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100 - P%			Candidates.
Total:	100%			

Claim: *V* makes *A* the winner for this profile. **Proof:** *B* can't win:

	• •			_
Preferences	%	$C \succ B$		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	р%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%			
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100 - P%			
Total:	100%	p%		

500

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile. **Proof:** B can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$.

	•			
Preferences	%	$C \succ B$		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	р%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%			
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%			
Total:	100%	р%		

$$\left(egin{array}{c} {f X}= {f all} \ {f other} \ {f candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$$

500

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with p% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis).

	01			
Preferences	%	$C \succ B$		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	р%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%			
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%			
Total:	100%	р%		

500

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with p% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win:

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	p%	p%		$(\mathbf{X} = all$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P-p%		other
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%		100-P%		Candidates.
Total:	100%	p%	100%		

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile. **Proof:** B can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$. But C always defeats B with p% by Lemma 1, because A can defeat B with p% (by hypothesis). C can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$.

5990

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	p%	p%		/ X=
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P-p%		ot
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%		100-P%		\ ca
Total:	100%	p%	100%		

X= all other candidates.

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with p% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA).

	01				
Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$		
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	p%	p%		/ X=
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P-p%		ot
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%		100-P%		🔪 ca
Total:	100%	p%	100%		

X= all other candidates.

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with p% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win:

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$	
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	р%	p%	p%	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P - p%	P-p%	
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%		100 - P%	100-P%	
Total:	100%	р%	100%	100%	

 $\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other} \\ \text{candidates.} \end{pmatrix}$

ロ> < 団> < 三> < 三> < 三

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with p% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA).

Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ X$.

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$	
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	p%	p%	p%	$ / \mathbf{X} = $ all
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P-p%	P-p%	other
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%		100-P%	100 - P%	Candidates.
Total:	100%	p%	100%	100%	

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with p% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ X$.

But A always defeat X with 100% (because V respects unanimity and IIA).

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$	
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	р%	p%	p%	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P - p%	P-p%	
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%		100 - P%	100-P%	
Total:	100%	р%	100%	100%	

 $\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other} \\ \text{candidates.} \end{pmatrix}$

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with p% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA).

Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* always defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA). *V* must pick *someone* as winner.

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$	
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	р%	p%	p%	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P - p%	P-p%	
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%		100 - P%	100-P%	
Total:	100%	р%	100%	100%	

 $\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other} \\ \text{candidates.} \end{pmatrix}$

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

Proof: *B* can't win: p% of voters think $C \succ B$. But *C* always defeats *B* with p% by Lemma 1, because *A* can defeat *B* with p% (by hypothesis). *C* can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ C$. But *A* always defeats *C* with 100% support (because *V* respects unanimity and IIA).

Finally, any other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of voters think $A \succ X$. But A always defeat **X** with 100% (because V respects unanimity and IIA). V must pick *someone* as winner. But A is the only choice left. Thus, V picks A.

Preferences	%	$C \succ B$	$A \succ C$	$A \succ X$	
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%	р%	p%	p%	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P - p%	P-p%	
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%		100 - P%	100-P%	
Total:	100%	р%	100%	100%	

 $\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other} \\ \text{candidates.} \end{pmatrix}$

(□) < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

500

	<u> </u>			
Preferences	%		$A \succ B$	
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%		р%	$\int \mathbf{X} = all$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P-p%	other
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100- <i>P</i> %			candidates.
Total:	100%		P%	

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

The claim implies that A can defeat B with P% support.

500

	01			
Preferences	%		A ≻ B	
$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%		р%	$\mathbf{X} = $ all
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P-p%	other
$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%			candidat
Total:	100%		P%	

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

The claim implies that A can defeat B with P% support.

Thus *A* always defeats *B* with P% support, by IIA.

500

1.2		<u> </u>			
	Preferences	%		A ≻ B	
	$A \succ C \succ B \succ X$	p%		р%	$\mathbf{X} = $ all
	$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	P-p%		P-p%	other
	$B \succ A \succ C \succ X$	100-P%			candidate
	Total:	100%		Р%	

Claim: V makes A the winner for this profile.

The claim implies that A can defeat B with P% support.

Thus *A* always defeats *B* with P% support, by IIA.

But this is what we wanted to prove.

(40/84)

Recall that Condorcet said the winner of an election should be able to defeat any other candidate in a two-way race.

(40/84)

Jac.

Recall that Condorcet said the winner of an election should be able to defeat any other candidate in a two-way race. Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%.

(40/84)

Jac.

Recall that Condorcet said the winner of an election should be able to defeat any other candidate in a two-way race.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

(40/84)

< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 >

Jac.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support. **Proof.**

(40/84)

ヘロト スピト スティート

Jac.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support. **Proof.** First suppose p := 51%

(40/84)

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support. **Proof.** First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%		
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {\pmb{\mathsf{X}}}{=}\; {\sf all}\\ {\sf other\; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%		
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win:

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	
$B \succ A \succ X$	49%	49%	
Total:	100%	100%	

 $\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {\sf X}{=} \; {\sf all} \ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$

< ロ > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 >

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ X	
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%	
Total:	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity).

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%	
Total:	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%	
Total:	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%	
Total:	100%	100%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins. Case 1: A wins.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ X	A ≻ B	
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	51%	
$B \succ A \succ X$	49%	49%		
Total:	100%	100%	51%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with 51% support.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ X	A ≻ B	
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%		
Total:	100%	100%	51%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with 51% support. Thus A always defeats B with 51% support, by IIA.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ X	A ≻ B	
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%		
Total:	100%	100%	51%	

くヨト くヨト

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with 51% support. Thus A always defeats B with 51% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ X	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%		49%
Total:	100%	100%	51%	49%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with 51% support. Thus A always defeats B with 51% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with 49% support.
Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If *A* are *B* are any candidates, then *A* always defeats *B* with 51% support. **Proof.** First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	B ≻ A
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%		49%
Total:	100%	100%	51%	49%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with 51% support. Thus A always defeats B with 51% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with 49% support.

Thus, for any Q > 49, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%		49%
Total:	100%	100%	51%	49%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \ \mathbf{X}{=} \ {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \ candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

(□) < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with 51% support. Thus A always defeats B with 51% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with 49% support.

Thus, for any Q > 49, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support. But 51 > 49.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%		49%
Total:	100%	100%	51%	49%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with 51% support. Thus A always defeats B with 51% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with 49% support.

Thus, for any Q > 49, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support.

But 51 > 49. Thus, B defeats A with 51% support.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%		49%
Total:	100%	100%	51%	49%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \ \mathbf{X}{=} \ {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \ candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with 51% support. Thus A always defeats B with 51% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with 49% support.

Thus, for any Q > 49, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support.

But 51 > 49. Thus, B defeats A with 51% support.

Thus, Lemma 1 says that A can also defeat B with 51% support.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA.

If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with 51% support.

Proof. First suppose p := 51% Consider the following profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	51%	51%	51%	
B ≻ A ≻ X	49%	49%		49%
Total:	100%	100%	51%	49%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

(日) (四) (三) (三)

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with 51% support. Thus A always defeats B with 51% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with 49% support.

Thus, for any Q > 49, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support.

But 51 > 49. Thus, B defeats A with 51% support.

Thus, Lemma 1 says that A can also defeat B with 51% support.

Thus A *always* defeats B with 51% support, by IIA.

(41/84)

Jac.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support. **Proof.**

(41/84)

Jac.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support. **Proof.** Now let p be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ X$	p%		
B ≻ A ≻ X	q%		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here, } {\bf X}{=} {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \ candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%		
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win:

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$		
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%		$($ Here, \mathbf{X} = all
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%	q%		other candidate
Total:	100%	100%		

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$.

(41/84

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$		
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%		$($ Here, \mathbf{X} = all
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	q%	q%		🔵 other candidat
Total:	100%	100%		

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity).

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$		
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%		$($ Here, \mathbf{X} = all
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%	q%		other candidates.
Total:	100%	100%		

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$		
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%		(
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	q%	q%		
Total:	100%	100%		

(Here, **X**= all) (other candidates.)

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$		
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%		
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	q%	q%		
Total:	100%	100%		

(Here, **X**= all) other candidates.

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins. Case 1: A wins.

(41/84)

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	
$A \succ B \succ X$	p%	р%	p%	
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	q%	q%		
Total:	100%	100%	<i>p</i> %	

 $\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {\sf X}{=} \; {\sf all} \ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with p% support.

(41/84)

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A≻B	
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%	p%	
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	q%	q%		
Total:	100%	100%	р%	

 $\left(egin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; {\sf X}{=} \; {\sf all} \ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}
ight)$

Note that some other candidate **X** can't win: 100% of the voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But *A* can defeat **X** with 100% (because *V* respects unanimity). Thus, *A* always defeats **X** with 100% (by IIA).

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with p% support. Thus A always defeats B with p% support, by IIA.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A≻B	
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%	p%	
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%	q%		
Total:	100%	100%	p%	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with p% support. Thus A always defeats B with p% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	p%	р%	р%	
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%	q%		q%
Total:	100%	100%	р%	q%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with p% support. Thus A always defeats B with p% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with q% support.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%	p%	
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%	q%		q%
Total:	100%	100%	p%	q%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here, } {\sf X}{=} {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with p% support. Thus A always defeats B with p% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with q% support.

Thus, for any Q > q, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%	р%	
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%	q%		q%
Total:	100%	100%	p%	q%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here, } {\sf X}{=} {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with p% support. Thus A always defeats B with p% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with q% support.

Thus, for any Q > q, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support.

But p > q (because p > 50% and q = 100 - p < 50%).

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%	р%	
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%	q%		q%
Total:	100%	100%	p%	q%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {\pmb{\mathsf{X}}}{=}\; {\sf all}\\ {\sf other\; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with p% support. Thus A always defeats B with p% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with q% support.

Thus, for any Q > q, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support.

```
But p > q (because p > 50\% and q = 100 - p < 50\%).
```

Thus, B defeats A with p% support.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	$A \succ B$	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%	р%	
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%	q%		q%
Total:	100%	100%	p%	q%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here, } {\sf X}{=} {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

nac

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with p% support. Thus A always defeats B with p% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with q% support.

Thus, for any Q > q, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support.

- But p > q (because p > 50% and q = 100 p < 50%).
- Thus, B defeats A with p% support.

Thus, Lemma 1 says that A can also defeat B with p% support.

Lemma 3: Let V be a rule which respects unanimity and IIA. Let p > 50%. If A are B are any candidates, then A always defeats B with p% support.

Proof. Now let *p* be arbitrary. Let q% := 100 - p%. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	$A \succ X$	A ≻ B	$B \succ A$
$A \succ B \succ X$	р%	р%	p%	
$B \succ A \succ X$	q%	q%		q%
Total:	100%	100%	p%	q%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

This leaves 2 cases: either A wins, or B wins.

Case 1: A wins.

Then A can defeat B with p% support. Thus A always defeats B with p% support, by IIA.

Case 2: B wins.

Then B defeats A with q% support.

Thus, for any Q > q, Lemma 2 says that B defeats A with Q% support.

- But p > q (because p > 50% and q = 100 p < 50%).
- Thus, B defeats A with p% support.

Thus, Lemma 1 says that A can also defeat B with p% support.

Thus A always defeats B with p% support, by IIA.

・ロト ・ 回 ・ ・ 言 ・ ・ 回 ・ ・ ロ ・

Arrow's Theorem: If an election has three or more candidates, then there is <u>no</u> ordinal voting procedure which respects both Unanimity and IIA. **Proof.** (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
$C \succ A \succ B \succ X$	33 <u>1</u> %		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

Preferences	%		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
Total:	100%		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

B can't win:

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ B		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%		
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > シ へ 三 > シ へ 回 > シ へ の

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ B		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{C} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%		
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

-				
Preferences	%	A ≻ B		
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%		
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$		
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$		

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3. C can't win:

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

	,			
Preferences	%	A ≻ B	B ≻ C	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{C} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

-	,			
Preferences	%	A ≻ B	B ≻ C	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \ {\textbf{X}}{=} \ {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \ candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

	,			
Preferences	%	A ≻ B	B ≻ C	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \ {\textbf{X}}{=} \ {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \ candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win:

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

-					
Preferences	%	A ≻ B	$B \succ C$	$C \succ A$	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	33 <u>1</u> %	
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {\pmb{X}}{=}\; {\sf all}\\ {\sf other\; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $C \succ A$.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

-					
Preferences	%	A ≻ B	B ≻ C	$C \succ A$	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	33 <u>1</u> %	
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $C \succ A$. But C always defeats A with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

-					
Preferences	%	A ≻ B	B ≻ C	$C \succ A$	
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	33 <u>1</u> %	
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Here, } \mathbf{X} = \text{all} \\ \text{other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $C \succ A$. But C always defeats A with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Finally, no other candidate X can win:
Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ B	$B \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ X$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$B \succ C \succ A \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$C \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{X}$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	33 <u>1</u> %	33 <u>1</u> %
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	100%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here, } {\bf X}{=} {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

(日) (월) (문) (문) 문

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $C \succ A$. But C always defeats A with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Finally, no other candidate **X** can win: 100% of voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ B	B ≻ C	$C \succ A$	$A \succ X$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{C} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$C \succ A \succ B \succ X$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	33 <u>1</u> %	33 <u>1</u> %
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	100%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {\pmb{X}}{=}\; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other\; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

(-) (

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $C \succ A$. But C always defeats A with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Finally, no other candidate **X** can win: 100% of voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But A always defeats **X** with 100% support, by unanimity and IIA.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ B	$B \succ C$	$C \succ A$	$A \succ X$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{C} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$C \succ A \succ B \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	100%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,}\; {\pmb{X}}{=}\; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other\; candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

(-) (

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $C \succ A$. But C always defeats A with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Finally, no other candidate **X** can win: 100% of voters think $A \succ X$. But A always defeats **X** with 100% support, by unanimity and IIA.

Thus, no candidate can win in this profile.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

-					
Preferences	%	A ≻ B	B ≻ C	$C \succ A$	$A \succ X$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{C} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$C \succ A \succ B \succ X$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	33 <u>1</u> %	33 <u>1</u> %
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	100%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \; \textbf{X}{=} \; {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \; candidates.} \end{array} \right)$

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $C \succ A$. But C always defeats A with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Finally, no other candidate **X** can win: 100% of voters think $A \succ \mathbf{X}$. But A always defeats **X** with 100% support, by unanimity and IIA. Thus, *no candidate can win* in this profile. But V is supposed to *always*

pick a winner.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

Preferences	%	A ≻ B	B ≻ C	$C \succ A$	$A \succ X$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{C} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$C \succ A \succ B \succ X$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	33 <u>1</u> %	33 <u>1</u> %
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	100%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here, } {\bf X}{=} {\sf all} \\ {\sf other candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $C \succ A$. But C always defeats A with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Finally, no other candidate **X** can win: 100% of voters think $A \succ X$. But A always defeats **X** with 100% support, by unanimity and IIA.

Thus, no candidate can win in this profile. But V is supposed to always pick a winner. Thus, we have a contradiction.

Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose V was such a procedure. Consider profile:

-					
Preferences	%	A ≻ B	B ≻ C	$C \succ A$	$A \succ X$
$A \succ B \succ C \succ X$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$\mathbf{B} \succ \mathbf{C} \succ \mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{X}$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$
$C \succ A \succ B \succ X$	33 <u>1</u> %	$33\frac{1}{3}\%$	0%	33 <u>1</u> %	33 <u>1</u> %
Total:	100%	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	$66\frac{2}{3}\%$	100%

 $\left(\begin{array}{c} {\sf Here,} \ {\textbf{X}}{=} \ {\sf all} \\ {\sf other \ candidates.} \end{array}\right)$

B can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $A \succ B$. But A always defeats B with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

C can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $B \succ C$. But B always defeats C with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

A can't win: $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ of voters think $C \succ A$. But C always defeats A with $66\frac{2}{3}\%$ support, by Lemma 3.

Finally, no other candidate **X** can win: 100% of voters think $A \succ X$. But A always defeats **X** with 100% support, by unanimity and IIA. Thus, *no candidate can win* in this profile. But V is supposed to *always* pick a winner. Thus, we have a contradiction. Thus, no such voting procedure V can exist. **Question:** Perhaps the problem is that we insisted on giving all voters the *same* power.

・ロト ・ 回 ・ ・ 言 ・ ・ 回 ・ ・ ロ ・

Question: Perhaps the problem is that we insisted on giving all voters the *same* power. Perhaps some voters should have more power; for example, maybe some voters should have 'tie-breaker' power, or veto power.

500

500

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Answer: No.

Answer: No. Here we actually proved a special case of Arrow's Theorem, where we assumed all voters were equal.

Answer: No. Here we actually proved a special case of Arrow's Theorem, where we assumed all voters were equal.

The 'general' version of Arrow's Theorem even covers 'non-egalitarian' procedures, where different voters have different influence (but the proof of this version is too hard for us to do here).

Answer: No. Here we actually proved a special case of Arrow's Theorem, where we assumed all voters were equal.

The 'general' version of Arrow's Theorem even covers 'non-egalitarian' procedures, where different voters have different influence (but the proof of this version is too hard for us to do here).

The general version of Arrow's Theorem states that the only 'voting procedure' which respects unanimity and IIA is a *dictatorship*, where *one* voter has *all* the power.

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Answer: No. Here we actually proved a special case of Arrow's Theorem, where we assumed all voters were equal.

The 'general' version of Arrow's Theorem even covers 'non-egalitarian' procedures, where different voters have different influence (but the proof of this version is too hard for us to do here).

The general version of Arrow's Theorem states that the only 'voting procedure' which respects unanimity and IIA is a *dictatorship*, where *one* voter has *all* the power. This is hardly a desirable form of 'democracy.'

Arrow's Theorem: Indecisive and non-ordinal procedures

Question: Perhaps the problem is that we required the procedure to always 'pick a winner'.

・ロト ・ 回 ・ ・ 言 ・ ・ 回 ・ ・ ロ ・

Question: Perhaps the problem is that we required the procedure to always 'pick a winner'. Maybe instead the procedure should allow for a 'tie' between two or more candidates.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Answer: No.

Answer: No. There is a version of Arrow's theorem even for such 'indecisive' procedures (but again, the proof is too complicated to do here).

Answer: No. There is a version of Arrow's theorem even for such 'indecisive' procedures (but again, the proof is too complicated to do here).

Question: Maybe the problem is that we insisted on an 'ordinal' voting procedure.

Answer: No. There is a version of Arrow's theorem even for such 'indecisive' procedures (but again, the proof is too complicated to do here).

Question: Maybe the problem is that we insisted on an 'ordinal' voting procedure. This only uses the voter's 'preference orders', and not the *intensity* of these preferences.

Answer: No. There is a version of Arrow's theorem even for such 'indecisive' procedures (but again, the proof is too complicated to do here).

Question: Maybe the problem is that we insisted on an 'ordinal' voting procedure. This only uses the voter's 'preference orders', and not the *intensity* of these preferences. Could we escape Arrow's theorem with a procedure which also accounts for 'preference intensity'?

Answer: No. There is a version of Arrow's theorem even for such 'indecisive' procedures (but again, the proof is too complicated to do here).

Question: Maybe the problem is that we insisted on an 'ordinal' voting procedure. This only uses the voter's 'preference orders', and not the *intensity* of these preferences. Could we escape Arrow's theorem with a procedure which also accounts for 'preference intensity'?

Answer: Yes.

Answer: No. There is a version of Arrow's theorem even for such 'indecisive' procedures (but again, the proof is too complicated to do here).

Question: Maybe the problem is that we insisted on an 'ordinal' voting procedure. This only uses the voter's 'preference orders', and not the *intensity* of these preferences. Could we escape Arrow's theorem with a procedure which also accounts for 'preference intensity'?

Answer: Yes. We will next consider several 'non-ordinal' voting procedures.

- Escape from Arrow? Nonordinal voting systems.
- Strategic Voting: The Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem
- Representative democracy: Paradoxes.
- Voting power indices.
- ▶ What is democracy? 'Liberalism vs. Populism'.
- Social choice and social welfare functions.

Non-ordinal Voting Systems

<ロ> < 四> < 回> < 三> < 三> < 三> 三 のへで

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to not use an ordinal voting method.

500

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting*, *Cumulative voting*, and *Relative Utilitarianism*.

(47/84)

500

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting*, *Cumulative voting*, and *Relative Utilitarianism*. In **Approval voting** (AV), each voter is asked if she 'approves' of each candidate.

(47/84)

500

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting*, *Cumulative voting*, and *Relative Utilitarianism*. In **Approval voting** (AV), each voter is asked if she 'approves' of each

candidate. She can 'approve' as many or few candidates as she wants.

(47/84)

500

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting, Cumulative voting,* and *Relative Utilitarianism.* In **Approval voting** (AV), each voter is asked if she 'approves' of each candidate. She can 'approve' as many or few candidates as she wants. For example, she can....

► ...strongly vote for candidate **X** by giving her approval *only* to **X**.

(47/84)

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting, Cumulative voting,* and *Relative Utilitarianism.* In **Approval voting** (AV), each voter is asked if she 'approves' of each candidate. She can 'approve' as many or few candidates as she wants. For example, she can....

- ► ...strongly vote for candidate **X** by giving her approval *only* to **X**.
- ► ...vote against candidate **Y** by giving approval for everyone *except* **Y**.

(47/84)

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting, Cumulative voting,* and *Relative Utilitarianism.* In **Approval voting** (AV), each voter is asked if she 'approves' of each candidate. She can 'approve' as many or few candidates as she wants. For example, she can....

- ► ...strongly vote for candidate **X** by giving her approval *only* to **X**.
- …vote against candidate Y by giving approval for everyone except Y.

However, unlike Borda Count, she cannot 'approve' of some candidates more strongly than others. Approval is all-or-nothing.

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting, Cumulative voting,* and *Relative Utilitarianism.* In **Approval voting** (AV), each voter is asked if she 'approves' of each candidate. She can 'approve' as many or few candidates as she wants. For example, she can....

(47/84)

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

- ► ...strongly vote for candidate **X** by giving her approval *only* to **X**.
- …vote against candidate Y by giving approval for everyone except Y.

However, unlike Borda Count, she cannot 'approve' of some candidates more strongly than others. Approval is all-or-nothing. The candidate with the most 'approvals' wins the election.

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting, Cumulative voting,* and *Relative Utilitarianism.* In **Approval voting** (AV), each voter is asked if she 'approves' of each candidate. She can 'approve' as many or few candidates as she wants. For example, she can....

(47/84)

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

- ...strongly vote for candidate X by giving her approval only to X.
- …vote against candidate Y by giving approval for everyone except Y.

However, unlike Borda Count, she cannot 'approve' of some candidates more strongly than others. Approval is all-or-nothing. The candidate with the most 'approvals' wins the election. AV was invented by Robert Weber (1971) and strongly promoted by Steven J. Brams and Peter Fishburn (1982).

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting, Cumulative voting,* and *Relative Utilitarianism.* In **Approval voting** (AV), each voter is asked if she 'approves' of each candidate. She can 'approve' as many or few candidates as she wants. For example, she can....

- ...strongly vote for candidate X by giving her approval only to X.
- ...vote against candidate Y by giving approval for everyone except Y.

However, unlike Borda Count, she cannot 'approve' of some candidates more strongly than others. Approval is all-or-nothing.

The candidate with the most 'approvals' wins the election.

AV was invented by Robert Weber (1971) and strongly promoted by Steven J. Brams and Peter Fishburn (1982). It is used by many professional societies (e.g AMS and IEEE), by the U.S. National Academy of Science, and also to choose the Secretary-General of the U.N.

(47/84)
Non-ordinal voting systems: Approval voting

One way to escape Arrow's Theorem is to *not* use an ordinal voting method. At least three 'non-ordinal' voting systems have been proposed: *Approval voting, Cumulative voting,* and *Relative Utilitarianism.* In **Approval voting** (AV), each voter is asked if she 'approves' of each candidate. She can 'approve' as many or few candidates as she wants. For example, she can....

(47/84)

- ...strongly vote for candidate X by giving her approval only to X.
- …vote against candidate Y by giving approval for everyone except Y.

However, unlike Borda Count, she cannot 'approve' of some candidates more strongly than others. Approval is all-or-nothing.

The candidate with the most 'approvals' wins the election.

AV was invented by Robert Weber (1971) and strongly promoted by Steven J. Brams and Peter Fishburn (1982). It is used by many professional societies (e.g AMS and IEEE), by the U.S. National Academy of Science, and also to choose the Secretary-General of the U.N.

AV is *not* an 'ordinal voting system', so Arrow's Theorem doesn't apply.

(48/84)

(日) (四) (三) (三)

For example, suppose 5 voters rate 4 candidates on a scale from 0 to 1:

Can	didate \Rightarrow	A		В		C		D	
Voter ↓	Threshold	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1		0.95		0.75		0.31		0.04	
#2		0.94		0.05		0.33		0.73	
#3		0.06		0.73		0.98		0.32	
#4		0.04		0.65		0.31		0.91	
#5		0.01		0.92		0.25		0.75	
	Total: \Rightarrow								
Ou	tcome \Rightarrow								

(48/84)

For example, suppose 5 voters rate 4 candidates on a scale from 0 to 1:

Can	didate \Rightarrow	A		В		C		D	
Voter ↓	Threshold	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	0.5	0.95	*	0.75	*	0.31		0.04	
#2	0.5	0.94	*	0.05		0.33		0.73	*
#3	0.5	0.06		0.73	*	0.98	*	0.32	
#4	0.3	0.04		0.65	*	0.31	*	0.91	*
#5	0.5	0.01		0.92	*	0.25		0.75	*
	Total: \Rightarrow								
Ou	tcome \Rightarrow								

Suppose each voter approves all candidates whom she rates at or above some personal threshold....

Can	didate \Rightarrow	A		В		C		D	
Voter ↓	Threshold	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	0.5	0.95	*	0.75	*	0.31		0.04	
#2	0.5	0.94	*	0.05		0.33		0.73	*
#3	0.5	0.06		0.73	*	0.98	*	0.32	
#4	0.3	0.04		0.65	*	0.31	*	0.91	*
#5	0.5	0.01		0.92	*	0.25		0.75	*
	Total: \Rightarrow		2		4		2		2
Ou	tcome \Rightarrow	B wins, when each person approves above some threshold.							old.

Suppose each voter approves all candidates whom she rates at or above some personal threshold.... In this case, B wins the election.

500

8/84)

Can	didate \Rightarrow	A		В		C		D	
Voter ↓	Threshold	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	0.5	0.95	*	0.75	*	0.31		0.04	
#2	0.5	0.94	*	0.05		0.33		0.73	*
#3	0.5	0.06		0.73	*	0.98	*	0.32	
#4	0.3	0.04		0.65	*	0.31	*	0.91	*
#5	0.5	0.01		0.92	*	0.25		0.75	*
	Total: \Rightarrow		2		4		2		2
Ou	tcome \Rightarrow	B wins	B wins, when each person approves above some threshold.						ıold.

Suppose each voter approves all candidates whom she rates at or above some personal threshold.... In this case, B wins the election.

Problem: To maximize the 'impact' of her vote, each voter will either:

500

Can	didate \Rightarrow	A		В		C		D	
Voter ↓	Threshold	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	0.9	0.95	*	0.75		0.31		0.04	
#2	0.9	0.94	*	0.05		0.33		0.73	
#3	0.9	0.06		0.73		0.98	*	0.32	
#4	0.9	0.04		0.65		0.31		0.91	*
#5	0.9	0.01		0.92	*	0.25		0.75	
	Total: \Rightarrow		2		1		1		1
Ou	tcome \Rightarrow	A wins the <i>de facto</i> 'plurality vote'							

Suppose each voter approves all candidates whom she rates at or above some personal threshold.... In this case, B wins the election.

Problem: To maximize the 'impact' of her vote, each voter will either:

1. Only 'approve' her best candidate; or

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

(48/84)

For example, suppose 5 voters rate 4 candidates on a scale from 0 to 1:

Can	didate \Rightarrow	A		В		C		D	
Voter ↓	Threshold	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	0.1	0.95	*	0.75	*	0.31	*	0.04	
#2	0.1	0.94	*	0.05		0.33	*	0.73	*
#3	0.1	0.06		0.73	*	0.98	*	0.32	*
#4	0.1	0.04		0.65	*	0.31	*	0.91	*
#5	0.1	0.01		0.92	*	0.25	*	0.75	*
	Total: \Rightarrow		2		4		5		4
Ou	tcome \Rightarrow	C wins	the <i>de</i>	facto 'ar	ntiplura	lity vote'			

Suppose each voter approves all candidates whom she rates at or above some personal threshold.... In this case, B wins the election.

Problem: To maximize the 'impact' of her vote, each voter will either:

- 1. Only 'approve' her best candidate; or
- 2. Vote 'against' her worst candidate (by 'approving' everyone else).

Can	didate \Rightarrow	A		В		C		D	
Voter ↓	Threshold	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	0.1	0.95	*	0.75	*	0.31	*	0.04	
#2	0.1	0.94	*	0.05		0.33	*	0.73	*
#3	0.1	0.06		0.73	*	0.98	*	0.32	*
#4	0.1	0.04		0.65	*	0.31	*	0.91	*
#5	0.1	0.01		0.92	*	0.25	*	0.75	*
	Total: \Rightarrow		2		4		5		4
Ou	tcome \Rightarrow	C wins	the de	facto 'ar	ntiplura	lity vote'			

Suppose each voter approves all candidates whom she rates at or above some personal threshold.... In this case, B wins the election.

Problem: To maximize the 'impact' of her vote, each voter will either:

- 1. Only 'approve' her best candidate; or
- 2. Vote 'against' her worst candidate (by 'approving' everyone else).

Thus, in reality, Approval Voting will devolve into either a *de facto* plurality vote or antiplurality vote, with all the weaknesses of these methods.

(49/84)

500

(49/84)

500

In **cumulative voting** (CV), each voter is given a supply of 'points' (e.g. ten points), she can allocate amongst the candidates any way she wants. For example, she could...

 ...simulate Borda Count, by giving 4 points to her favourite, 3 points to her 2nd-best, 2 points to her 3rd best, and 1 point to her 4th best.

(49/84)

500

- ...simulate Borda Count, by giving 4 points to her favourite, 3 points to her 2nd-best, 2 points to her 3rd best, and 1 point to her 4th best.
- ...simulate 'vote-for-2' by giving 5 points each to her top 2 candidates.

(49/84)

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

- ...simulate Borda Count, by giving 4 points to her favourite, 3 points to her 2nd-best, 2 points to her 3rd best, and 1 point to her 4th best.
- ...simulate 'vote-for-2' by giving 5 points each to her top 2 candidates.
- ...simulate 'approval voting' by equally distributing the points over all candidates she 'approves'.

(49/84)

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

- ...simulate Borda Count, by giving 4 points to her favourite, 3 points to her 2nd-best, 2 points to her 3rd best, and 1 point to her 4th best.
- ...simulate 'vote-for-2' by giving 5 points each to her top 2 candidates.
- ...simulate 'approval voting' by equally distributing the points over all candidates she 'approves'.
- ...simulate plurality vote by given all 10 points to her favourite.

(49/84)

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

In **cumulative voting** (CV), each voter is given a supply of 'points' (e.g. ten points), she can allocate amongst the candidates any way she wants. For example, she could...

- ...simulate Borda Count, by giving 4 points to her favourite, 3 points to her 2nd-best, 2 points to her 3rd best, and 1 point to her 4th best.
- ...simulate 'vote-for-2' by giving 5 points each to her top 2 candidates.
- ...simulate 'approval voting' by equally distributing the points over all candidates she 'approves'.
- ...simulate plurality vote by given all 10 points to her favourite.

The candidate who accumulates the most points wins.

(49/84)

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

In **cumulative voting** (CV), each voter is given a supply of 'points' (e.g. ten points), she can allocate amongst the candidates any way she wants. For example, she could...

- ...simulate Borda Count, by giving 4 points to her favourite, 3 points to her 2nd-best, 2 points to her 3rd best, and 1 point to her 4th best.
- ...simulate 'vote-for-2' by giving 5 points each to her top 2 candidates.
- ...simulate 'approval voting' by equally distributing the points over all candidates she 'approves'.
- ...simulate plurality vote by given all 10 points to her favourite.

The candidate who accumulates the most points wins. Cumulative voting was proposed by Charles Dodgson (1873) (a.k.a. Lewis Carrol), and later by Richard Musgrave (1953), and James Coleman (1970).

(49/84)

In **cumulative voting** (CV), each voter is given a supply of 'points' (e.g. ten points), she can allocate amongst the candidates any way she wants. For example, she could...

- ...simulate Borda Count, by giving 4 points to her favourite, 3 points to her 2nd-best, 2 points to her 3rd best, and 1 point to her 4th best.
- ...simulate 'vote-for-2' by giving 5 points each to her top 2 candidates.
- ...simulate 'approval voting' by equally distributing the points over all candidates she 'approves'.
- ...simulate plurality vote by given all 10 points to her favourite.

The candidate who accumulates the most points wins.

Cumulative voting was proposed by Charles Dodgson (1873) (a.k.a. Lewis Carrol), and later by Richard Musgrave (1953), and James Coleman (1970). It is used in Peoria, Illinois; Amarillo, Texas; and Norfolk Island, Australia.

(49/84)

In **cumulative voting** (CV), each voter is given a supply of 'points' (e.g. ten points), she can allocate amongst the candidates any way she wants. For example, she could...

- ...simulate Borda Count, by giving 4 points to her favourite, 3 points to her 2nd-best, 2 points to her 3rd best, and 1 point to her 4th best.
- ...simulate 'vote-for-2' by giving 5 points each to her top 2 candidates.
- ...simulate 'approval voting' by equally distributing the points over all candidates she 'approves'.
- ...simulate plurality vote by given all 10 points to her favourite.

The candidate who accumulates the most points wins.

Cumulative voting was proposed by Charles Dodgson (1873) (a.k.a. Lewis Carrol), and later by Richard Musgrave (1953), and James Coleman (1970). It is used in Peoria, Illinois; Amarillo, Texas; and Norfolk Island, Australia. It is also used in publicly owned corporations (where each shareholder gets a 'point' for each shares she owns).

In **cumulative voting** (CV), each voter is given a supply of 'points' (e.g. ten points), she can allocate amongst the candidates any way she wants. For example, she could...

 ...simulate Borda Count, by giving 4 points to her favourite, 3 points to her 2nd-best, 2 points to her 3rd best, and 1 point to her 4th best.

(49/84)

- ...simulate 'vote-for-2' by giving 5 points each to her top 2 candidates.
- ...simulate 'approval voting' by equally distributing the points over all candidates she 'approves'.
- ...simulate plurality vote by given all 10 points to her favourite.

The candidate who accumulates the most points wins.

Cumulative voting was proposed by Charles Dodgson (1873) (a.k.a. Lewis Carrol), and later by Richard Musgrave (1953), and James Coleman (1970). It is used in Peoria, Illinois; Amarillo, Texas; and Norfolk Island, Australia. It is also used in publicly owned corporations (where each shareholder gets a 'point' for each shares she owns).

Again, CV is not an 'ordinal' system, so Arrow's Theorem doesn't apply.

Ca	$ndidate \Rightarrow$	A	Υ.	E	3	(2	E)
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1		0.95		0.75		0.31		0.04	
#2		0.94		0.05		0.33		0.73	
#3		0.06		0.73		0.98		0.32	
#4		0.04		0.65		0.31		0.91	
#5		0.01		0.92		0.25		0.75	
	Total: \Rightarrow								
0	utcome \Rightarrow								

(50/84)

Ca	$ndidate \Rightarrow$	A	4	E	3	C	2	E)
$Voter\Downarrow$	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Borda	0.95	4	0.75	3	0.31	2	0.04	1
#2	Vote for 2	0.94	5	0.05	0	0.33	0	0.73	5
#3	Vote for 1	0.06	0	0.73	0	0.98	10	0.32	0
#4	Vote for 3	0.04	0	0.65	3.33	0.31	3.33	0.91	3.33
#5	Vote for 3	0.01	0	0.92	3.33	0.25	3.33	0.75	3.33
	Total: \Rightarrow								
0	utcome \Rightarrow								

Suppose each voter has 10 'points', and the voters adopt various point-allocation strategies, as shown....

Ca	$ndidate \Rightarrow$	A	4	E	3	(С	[)
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Borda	0.95	4	0.75	3	0.31	2	0.04	1
#2	Vote for 2	0.94	5	0.05	0	0.33	0	0.73	5
#3	Vote for 1	0.06	0	0.73	0	0.98	10	0.32	0
#4	Vote for 3	0.04	0	0.65	3.33	0.31	3.33	0.91	3.33
#5	Vote for 3	0.01	0	0.92	3.33	0.25	3.33	0.75	3.33
	Total: \Rightarrow		9		9.66		18.66		12.66
0	utcome \Rightarrow	C wins, when voters use various strategies.							

Suppose each voter has 10 'points', and the voters adopt various point-allocation strategies, as shown.... then C will win.

Ca	$ndidate \Rightarrow$	4	4	E	3	(2	[)
$Voter\Downarrow$	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Concentrate	0.95	10	0.75	0	0.31	0	0.04	0
#2	Concentrate	0.94	10	0.05	0	0.33	0	0.73	0
#3	Concentrate	0.06	0	0.73	0	0.98	10	0.32	0
#4	Concentrate	0.04	0	0.65	0	0.31	0	0.91	10
#5	Concentrate	0.01	0	0.92	10	0.25	0	0.75	0
	Total: \Rightarrow								
0	utcome \Rightarrow								

Suppose each voter has 10 'points', and the voters adopt various point-allocation strategies, as shown.... ...then C will win. **Problem:** Each voters will maximize her impact by concentrating *all ten points* on her favourite (amongst those who has any chance of winning).

Ca	$ndidate \Rightarrow$	A	4	E	3	(2	E)
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Concentrate	0.95	10	0.75	0	0.31	0	0.04	0
#2	Concentrate	0.94	10	0.05	0	0.33	0	0.73	0
#3	Concentrate	0.06	0	0.73	0	0.98	10	0.32	0
#4	Concentrate	0.04	0	0.65	0	0.31	0	0.91	10
#5	Concentrate	0.01	0	0.92	10	0.25	0	0.75	0
	Total: \Rightarrow		20		10		10		10
0	utcome \Rightarrow	A wins the <i>de facto</i> 'plurality vote'							

Suppose each voter has 10 'points', and the voters adopt various point-allocation strategies, as shown.... ...then C will win. **Problem:** Each voters will maximize her impact by concentrating *all ten points* on her favourite (amongst those who has any chance of winning).

Thus, in reality, CV will function just like plurality vote.

In Relative Utilitarianism (RU, also called range voting, ratings summation, or score system) each voter gives each candidate a fractional numerical 'score' on a scale of 0 to 1 (where 1=best and 0=worst). For example:

500

In Relative Utilitarianism (RU, also called range voting, ratings summation, or score system) each voter gives each candidate a fractional numerical 'score' on a scale of 0 to 1 (where 1=best and 0=worst). For example:

(日) < (日) > (1) > (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1) < (1)

Sac

▶ Her most favourite candidate would get a score of 1.0.

In Relative Utilitarianism (RU, also called range voting, ratings summation, or score system) each voter gives each candidate a fractional numerical 'score' on a scale of 0 to 1 (where 1=best and 0=worst). For example:

Sac

- ▶ Her most favourite candidate would get a score of 1.0.
- ▶ Her 2nd best candidate might get a score of 0.95, etc.

In Relative Utilitarianism (RU, also called range voting, ratings summation, or score system) each voter gives each candidate a fractional numerical 'score' on a scale of 0 to 1 (where 1=best and 0=worst). For example:

- Her most favourite candidate would get a score of 1.0.
- ▶ Her 2nd best candidate might get a score of 0.95, etc.
- ▶ If she is ambivalent about candidate **X**, she might give **X** a score of 0.5.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

In Relative Utilitarianism (RU, also called range voting, ratings summation, or score system) each voter gives each candidate a fractional numerical 'score' on a scale of 0 to 1 (where 1=best and 0=worst). For example:

- ▶ Her most favourite candidate would get a score of 1.0.
- ▶ Her 2nd best candidate might get a score of 0.95, etc.
- ▶ If she is ambivalent about candidate X, she might give X a score of 0.5.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

▶ If she despises candidate **Y**, she will give **Y** a score of **0**.

In Relative Utilitarianism (RU, also called range voting, ratings summation, or score system) each voter gives each candidate a fractional numerical 'score' on a scale of 0 to 1 (where 1=best and 0=worst). For example:

- ▶ Her most favourite candidate would get a score of 1.0.
- ▶ Her 2nd best candidate might get a score of 0.95, etc.
- ▶ If she is ambivalent about candidate **X**, she might give **X** a score of 0.5.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

► If she despises candidate **Y**, she will give **Y** a score of 0.

The candidate with the highest average score wins.

In Relative Utilitarianism (RU, also called range voting, ratings summation, or score system) each voter gives each candidate a fractional numerical 'score' on a scale of 0 to 1 (where 1=best and 0=worst). For example:

- ▶ Her most favourite candidate would get a score of 1.0.
- ▶ Her 2nd best candidate might get a score of 0.95, etc.
- ▶ If she is ambivalent about candidate X, she might give X a score of 0.5.
- ► If she despises candidate **Y**, she will give **Y** a score of 0.

The candidate with the highest average score wins.

This is how winners are chosen in many Olympic events (e.g. figure skating, gymnastics).

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

In Relative Utilitarianism (RU, also called range voting, ratings summation, or score system) each voter gives each candidate a fractional numerical 'score' on a scale of 0 to 1 (where 1=best and 0=worst). For example:

- ▶ Her most favourite candidate would get a score of 1.0.
- ▶ Her 2nd best candidate might get a score of 0.95, etc.
- ▶ If she is ambivalent about candidate X, she might give X a score of 0.5.
- ► If she despises candidate **Y**, she will give **Y** a score of 0.

The candidate with the highest average score wins.

This is how winners are chosen in many Olympic events (e.g. figure skating, gymnastics).

RU has many nice properties, and has been studied by Cao (1982), Dhillon and Mertens (1998-99), Karni (1998), and Segal (2000).

In Relative Utilitarianism (RU, also called range voting, ratings summation, or score system) each voter gives each candidate a fractional numerical 'score' on a scale of 0 to 1 (where 1=best and 0=worst). For example:

- ▶ Her most favourite candidate would get a score of 1.0.
- ▶ Her 2nd best candidate might get a score of 0.95, etc.
- ▶ If she is ambivalent about candidate X, she might give X a score of 0.5.
- ► If she despises candidate **Y**, she will give **Y** a score of 0.

The candidate with the highest average score wins.

This is how winners are chosen in many Olympic events (e.g. figure skating, gymnastics).

RU has many nice properties, and has been studied by Cao (1982), Dhillon and Mertens (1998-99), Karni (1998), and Segal (2000).

Again, RU is not an 'ordinal' voting system (rather, it is a 'cardinal' voting system), so Arrow's Theorem doesn't apply.

・ロト ・ 回 ・ ・ 言 ・ ・ 回 ・ ・ ロ ・

For example, suppose 5 voters each rate 4 candidates from 0 to 1:

$Candidate \Rightarrow$		A		В		С		D	
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1		0.95		0.75		0.31		0.04	
#2		0.94		0.05		0.33		0.73	
#3		0.06		0.73		0.98		0.32	
#4		0.04		0.65		0.31		0.91	
#5		0.01		0.92		0.25		0.75	
Total: \Rightarrow									
$Outcome \Rightarrow$									

For example, suppose 5 voters each rate 4 candidates from 0 to 1:

$Candidate \Rightarrow$		A		В		С		D	
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Honest	0.95	0.95	0.75	0.75	0.31	0.31	0.04	0.04
#2	Honest	0.94	0.94	0.05	0.05	0.33	0.33	0.73	0.75
#3	Honest	0.06	0.06	0.73	0.73	0.98	0.98	0.32	0.32
#4	Honest	0.04	0.04	0.65	0.65	0.31	0.31	0.91	0.91
#5	Honest	0.01	0.01	0.92	0.92	0.25	0.25	0.75	0.75
Total: \Rightarrow									
Out	$come \Rightarrow$								

If voters *honestly* reveal their ratings of candidates...

For example, suppose 5 voters each rate 4 candidates from 0 to 1:

$Candidate \Rightarrow$		Α		В		С		D	
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Honest	0.95	0.95	0.75	0.75	0.31	0.31	0.04	0.04
#2	Honest	0.94	0.94	0.05	0.05	0.33	0.33	0.73	0.75
#3	Honest	0.06	0.06	0.73	0.73	0.98	0.98	0.32	0.32
#4	Honest	0.04	0.04	0.65	0.65	0.31	0.31	0.91	0.91
#5	Honest	0.01	0.01	0.92	0.92	0.25	0.25	0.75	0.75
Total: \Rightarrow 2.00			2.00		3.10		2.18		2.77
Outcome \Rightarrow B wins, when each person votes honestly.									

If voters *honestly* reveal their ratings of candidates.....then B will win.

< (1)
 < (1)

500

For example, suppose 5 voters each rate 4 candidates from 0 to 1:

$Candidate \Rightarrow$		A		В		С		D	
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Honest	0.95	0.95	0.75	0.75	0.31	0.31	0.04	0.04
#2	Honest	0.94	0.94	0.05	0.05	0.33	0.33	0.73	0.75
#3	Honest	0.06	0.06	0.73	0.73	0.98	0.98	0.32	0.32
#4	Honest	0.04	0.04	0.65	0.65	0.31	0.31	0.91	0.91
#5	Honest	0.01	0.01	0.92	0.92	0.25	0.25	0.75	0.75
Total: \Rightarrow 2.00				3.10		2.18		2.77	
Outcome \Rightarrow B wins, when each person votes honestly.									

If voters *honestly* reveal their ratings of candidates.....then B will win. **Problem:** Each voters will maximize her impact by giving a score of 1.0 to her favourite(s), and 0 to everyone else.
(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

For example, suppose 5 voters each rate 4 candidates from 0 to 1:

$Candidate \Rightarrow$		A		В		C		D)
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Plurality	0.95	1.00	0.75	0.00	0.31	0.00	0.04	0.00
#2	Plurality	0.94	1.00	0.05	0.00	0.33	0.00	0.73	0.00
#3	Plurality	0.06	0.00	0.73	0.00	0.98	1.00	0.32	0.00
#4	Plurality	0.04	0.00	0.65	0.00	0.31	0.00	0.91	1.00
#5	Plurality	0.01	0.00	0.92	1.00	0.25	0.00	0.75	0.00
	Total: \Rightarrow		2.00		1.00		1.00		1.00
0	$utcome \Rightarrow$	A wins	the <i>de</i>	<i>facto</i> 'plι	irality v	ote'			

If voters *honestly* reveal their ratings of candidates.....then B will win.

Problem: Each voters will maximize her impact by giving a score of 1.0 to her favourite(s), and 0 to everyone else.

Thus, in reality, RU will function just like Approval Voting.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

For example, suppose 5 voters each rate 4 candidates from 0 to 1:

$Candidate \Rightarrow$		A		В		C		D)
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Antiplurality	0.95	1.00	0.75	1.00	0.31	1.00	0.04	0.00
#2	Antiplurality	0.94	1.00	0.05	0.00	0.33	1.00	0.73	1.00
#3	Antiplurality	0.06	0.00	0.73	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.32	1.00
#4	Antiplurality	0.04	0.00	0.65	1.00	0.31	1.00	0.91	1.00
#5	Antiplurality	0.01	0.00	0.92	1.00	0.25	1.00	0.75	1.00
Total: \Rightarrow			2.00		4.00		5.00		4.00
	$Outcome \Rightarrow$	C wins	the de	<i>facto</i> 'an	tiplurali	ty vote'			

If voters *honestly* reveal their ratings of candidates.....then B will win.

Problem: Each voters will maximize her impact by giving a score of 1.0 to her favourite(s), and 0 to everyone else.

Thus, in reality, RU will function just like Approval Voting.

Approval voting, in turn, tends to devolve into an (anti)plurality vote.

For example, suppose 5 voters each rate 4 candidates from 0 to 1:

$Candidate \Rightarrow$		A		B		C		D)
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Antiplurality	0.95	1.00	0.75	1.00	0.31	1.00	0.04	0.00
#2	Antiplurality	0.94	1.00	0.05	0.00	0.33	1.00	0.73	1.00
#3	Antiplurality	0.06	0.00	0.73	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.32	1.00
#4	Antiplurality	0.04	0.00	0.65	1.00	0.31	1.00	0.91	1.00
#5	Antiplurality	0.01	0.00	0.92	1.00	0.25	1.00	0.75	1.00
	Total: \Rightarrow		2.00		4.00		5.00		4.00
	$Outcome \Rightarrow$	C wins	the de	<i>facto</i> 'an	tiplurali	ty vote'			

If voters *honestly* reveal their ratings of candidates.....then B will win.

Problem: Each voters will maximize her impact by giving a score of 1.0 to her favourite(s), and 0 to everyone else.

Thus, in reality, RU will function just like Approval Voting.

Approval voting, in turn, tends to devolve into an (anti)plurality vote. However, using extensive computer experiments, Warren D. Smith has recently argued that, even when voters exaggerate like this, RU is still better than any other known voting procedure.

For example, suppose 5 voters each rate 4 candidates from 0 to 1:

$Candidate \Rightarrow$		A		B		C		D)
Voter ↓	Strategy	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote	Rating	Vote
#1	Antiplurality	0.95	1.00	0.75	1.00	0.31	1.00	0.04	0.00
#2	Antiplurality	0.94	1.00	0.05	0.00	0.33	1.00	0.73	1.00
#3	Antiplurality	0.06	0.00	0.73	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.32	1.00
#4	Antiplurality	0.04	0.00	0.65	1.00	0.31	1.00	0.91	1.00
#5	Antiplurality	0.01	0.00	0.92	1.00	0.25	1.00	0.75	1.00
	Total: \Rightarrow		2.00		4.00		5.00		4.00
	$Outcome \Rightarrow$	C wins	the de	<i>facto</i> 'an	tiplurali	ty vote'			

If voters *honestly* reveal their ratings of candidates.....then B will win.

Problem: Each voters will maximize her impact by giving a score of 1.0 to her favourite(s), and 0 to everyone else.

Thus, in reality, RU will function just like Approval Voting.

Approval voting, in turn, tends to devolve into an (anti)plurality vote. However, using extensive computer experiments, Warren D. Smith has recently argued that, even when voters exaggerate like this, RU is still better than any other known voting procedure. Smith runs the 'Centre for Range Voting', which promotes RU for electoral reform.

(日) (四) (三) (三)

As we've seen, the various 'non-ordinal' voting systems are easily manipulated through strategic voting.



As we've seen, the various 'non-ordinal' voting systems are easily manipulated through strategic voting.

However, 'ordinal' voting systems are also susceptible to strategic voting, especially because of their sensitivity to 'irrelevant alternatives'.

(54/84)

Sac

As we've seen, the various 'non-ordinal' voting systems are easily manipulated through strategic voting.

However, 'ordinal' voting systems are also susceptible to strategic voting, especially because of their sensitivity to 'irrelevant alternatives'.

For example, consider this election:

Plurality Vote						
Preferences	#	Α	В	С		
$A \succ B \succ C$	45	45				
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		40			
$C \succ B \succ A$	15			15		
Total	100	45	40	15		
Ve	rdict:	ļ	A wins	5.		

Sac

As we've seen, the various 'non-ordinal' voting systems are easily manipulated through strategic voting.

However, 'ordinal' voting systems are also susceptible to strategic voting, especially because of their sensitivity to 'irrelevant alternatives'.

For example, consider this election: A wins the plurality vote, because the opposition is 'split' between B and C.

Plurality Vote						
Preferences	#	Α	В	С		
$A \succ B \succ C$	45	45				
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		40			
$C \succ B \succ A$	15			15		
Total	100	45	40	15		
Ve	rdict:	ļ	A wins	5.		

A = A = A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A
 A = A

(54/84)

As we've seen, the various 'non-ordinal' voting systems are easily manipulated through strategic voting.

However, 'ordinal' voting systems are also susceptible to strategic voting, especially because of their sensitivity to 'irrelevant alternatives'.

For example, consider this election: A wins the plurality vote, because the opposition is 'split' between B and C. But a supporter of C can see she has no hope of winning. Voting for C is really voting 'against' B, and thereby helping A.

Plurality Vote						
Preferences	#	Α	В	С		
$A \succ B \succ C$	45	45				
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		40			
$C \succ B \succ A$	15			15		
Total	100	45	40	15		
Ve	rdict:	A	A wins	5.		

(54/84

As we've seen, the various 'non-ordinal' voting systems are easily manipulated through strategic voting.

However, 'ordinal' voting systems are also susceptible to strategic voting, especially because of their sensitivity to 'irrelevant alternatives'.

For example, consider this election: A wins the plurality vote, because the opposition is 'split' between B and C. But a supporter of C can see she has no hope of winning. Voting for C is really voting 'against' B, and thereby helping A.

Plurality Vote						
Preferences	#	Α	В	С		
$A \succ B \succ C$	45	45				
$B \succ C \succ A$	40		40			
$C \succ B \succ A$	15			15		
Total	100	45	40	15		
Ve	rdict:	ļ	A wins	5.		

<ロ> < 団> < 団> < 三> < 三> < 三> 三 のへで

It would be better for her to vote strategically for B. That way at least she gets her *second-best* outcome B, not her *worst* outcome, A.

As we've seen, the various 'non-ordinal' voting systems are easily manipulated through strategic voting.

However, 'ordinal' voting systems are also susceptible to strategic voting, especially because of their sensitivity to 'irrelevant alternatives'.

For example, consider this election: A wins the plurality vote, because the opposition is 'split' between B and C.

But a supporter of C can see she has no hope of winning. Voting for C is really voting 'against' B, and thereby helping A.

Plurality Vote					
Preferences	#	А	В	С	
$A \succ B \succ C$	45	45			
$B \succ C \succ A$	50		50		
$C \succ B \succ A$	5			5	
Total	100	45	50	5	
Ve	rdict:	B	wins		

<ロ> < 団> < 団> < 三> < 三> < 三> 三 のへで

It would be better for her to vote strategically for B. That way at least she gets her *second-best* outcome B, not her *worst* outcome, A.

If 2/3rds of C's supporters voted strategically like this, then B would win.

(54/84

As we've seen, the various 'non-ordinal' voting systems are easily manipulated through strategic voting.

However, 'ordinal' voting systems are also susceptible to strategic voting, especially because of their sensitivity to 'irrelevant alternatives'.

For example, consider this election: A wins the plurality vote, because the opposition is 'split' between B and C.

But a supporter of C can see she has no hope of winning. Voting for C is really voting 'against' B, and thereby helping A.

Plurality Vote					
Preferences	#	А	В	С	
$A \succ B \succ C$	45	45			
$B \succ C \succ A$	50		50		
$C \succ B \succ A$	5			5	
Total	100	45	50	5	
Ve	Verdict:				

It would be better for her to vote strategically for B. That way at least she gets her *second-best* outcome B, not her *worst* outcome, A. If 2/3rds of C's supporters voted strategically like this, then B would win.

Example: U.S. Presidential Election 2000, A=Bush, B=Gore, C=Nader.

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

As we've seen, the various 'non-ordinal' voting systems are easily manipulated through strategic voting.

However, 'ordinal' voting systems are also susceptible to strategic voting, especially because of their sensitivity to 'irrelevant alternatives'.

For example, consider this election: A wins the plurality vote, because the opposition is 'split' between B and C.

But a supporter of C can see she has no hope of winning. Voting for C is really voting 'against' B, and thereby helping A.

Plurality Vote					
Preferences	#	Α	В	С	
$A \succ B \succ C$	45	45			
$B \succ C \succ A$	50		50		
$C \succ B \succ A$	5			5	
Total	100	45	50	5	
Ve	rdict:	B	wins		

It would be better for her to vote strategically for B. That way at least she gets her *second-best* outcome B, not her *worst* outcome, A. If 2/3rds of C's supporters voted strategically like this, then B would win. **Example:** U.S. Presidential Election 2000, A=Bush, B=Gore, C=Nader. But if the outcome is the result of strategic voting, how can we say it really reflects the 'Will of the People'?

(日) (四) (三) (三)

This kind of strategic voting can occur in any of the voting systems we have described. (Exercise: Find strategic situations for each one.)

Sac

This kind of strategic voting can occur in any of the voting systems we have described. (Exercise: Find strategic situations for each one.) Is it possible to design a voting system which is 'immune' to strategic voting? Unfortunately, no.

Jac.

This kind of strategic voting can occur in any of the voting systems we have described. (Exercise: Find strategic situations for each one.) Is it possible to design a voting system which is 'immune' to strategic voting? Unfortunately, no.

Theorem. (Alan Gibbard, 1973; Mark Satterthwaite, 1975)

This kind of strategic voting can occur in any of the voting systems we have described. (Exercise: Find strategic situations for each one.) Is it possible to design a voting system which is 'immune' to strategic voting? Unfortunately, no.

Theorem. (Alan Gibbard, 1973; Mark Satterthwaite, 1975) Suppose an election has three or more candidates. In any voting mechanism (ordinal or otherwise) there always exist situations where some voter will find it advantageous to misrepresent her preferences and vote 'strategically' (if she could predict how other people were going to vote).

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

This kind of strategic voting can occur in any of the voting systems we have described. (Exercise: Find strategic situations for each one.) Is it possible to design a voting system which is 'immune' to strategic voting? Unfortunately, no.

Theorem. (Alan Gibbard, 1973; Mark Satterthwaite, 1975) Suppose an election has three or more candidates. In any voting mechanism (ordinal or otherwise) there always exist situations where some voter will find it advantageous to misrepresent her preferences and vote 'strategically' (if she could predict how other people were going to vote).

To vote strategically, you need to predict the behaviour of other voters (at least approximately). If you were totally ignorant of other voters, then the best strategy is simply 'vote honestly'.

This kind of strategic voting can occur in any of the voting systems we have described. (Exercise: Find strategic situations for each one.) Is it possible to design a voting system which is 'immune' to strategic voting? Unfortunately, no.

Theorem. (Alan Gibbard, 1973; Mark Satterthwaite, 1975) Suppose an election has three or more candidates. In any voting mechanism (ordinal or otherwise) there always exist situations where some voter will find it advantageous to misrepresent her preferences and vote 'strategically' (if she could predict how other people were going to vote).

To vote strategically, you need to predict the behaviour of other voters (at least approximately). If you were totally ignorant of other voters, then the best strategy is simply 'vote honestly'.

Thus, public opinion polls actually *facilitate* strategic voting.

(56/84)

<ロ> < 団> < 団> < 三> < 三> < 三> 三 のへで

The Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem says that *every* voting system is susceptible to strategic voting.

However, some systems are more susceptible than others.

500

The Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem says that *every* voting system is susceptible to strategic voting.

However, some systems are more susceptible than others.

An election is most vulnerable to strategic voting when the vote is nearly

tied, so that a small number of strategic votes could change the outcome.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

The Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem says that *every* voting system is susceptible to strategic voting.

However, some systems are more susceptible than others.

An election is most vulnerable to strategic voting when the vote is nearly tied, so that a small number of strategic votes could change the outcome. Thus, a voting system is 'less susceptible' to strategic voting if it is less likely to produce 'nearly tied' outcomes.

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

The Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem says that *every* voting system is susceptible to strategic voting.

However, some systems are more susceptible than others.

An election is most vulnerable to strategic voting when the vote is nearly tied, so that a small number of strategic votes could change the outcome. Thus, a voting system is 'less susceptible' to strategic voting if it is less likely to produce 'nearly tied' outcomes.

For example, suppose there are three candidates, A, B, and C, so voters are distributed over six possible preference orders:

 $A \succ B \succ C$, $B \succ C \succ A$, $C \succ A \succ B$, $B \succ A \succ C$, $A \succ C \succ B$, $C \succ B \succ A$.

500

The Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem says that *every* voting system is susceptible to strategic voting.

However, some systems are more susceptible than others.

An election is most vulnerable to strategic voting when the vote is nearly tied, so that a small number of strategic votes could change the outcome. Thus, a voting system is 'less susceptible' to strategic voting if it is less likely to produce 'nearly tied' outcomes.

For example, suppose there are three candidates, A, B, and C, so voters are distributed over six possible preference orders:

 $A \succ B \succ C$, $B \succ C \succ A$, $C \succ A \succ B$, $B \succ A \succ C$, $A \succ C \succ B$, $C \succ B \succ A$.

Theorem. (Donald Saari, 1990)

The Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem says that *every* voting system is susceptible to strategic voting.

However, some systems are more susceptible than others.

An election is most vulnerable to strategic voting when the vote is nearly tied, so that a small number of strategic votes could change the outcome. Thus, a voting system is 'less susceptible' to strategic voting if it is less likely to produce 'nearly tied' outcomes.

For example, suppose there are three candidates, A, B, and C, so voters are distributed over six possible preference orders:

 $A \succ B \succ C$, $B \succ C \succ A$, $C \succ A \succ B$, $B \succ A \succ C$, $A \succ C \succ B$, $C \succ B \succ A$.

Theorem. (Donald Saari, 1990) Suppose all possible distributions of voters over these six orders are equally likely. Then, amongst all positional voting systems, the Borda Count is the least susceptible to strategic voting.

Representative Democracy and Compound-Majority Paradoxes

Sac

Representative Democracy

So far we've been looking at direct democracy, where every voter can vote 'directly' for the candidates.

However, in a representative democracy, the voters elect delegates, and it is these delegates, in turn, who vote for/against the candidates.

(58/84)

500

However, in a representative democracy, the voters elect delegates, and it is these delegates, in turn, who vote for/against the candidates.

In the U.S. Electoral College, each state elects one or more 'electors', who then elect the President.

However, in a representative democracy, the voters elect delegates, and it is these delegates, in turn, who vote for/against the candidates.

- In the U.S. Electoral College, each state elects one or more 'electors', who then elect the President.
- In regional representation (or 'first past the post') systems (e.g. Canada, U.K., or U.S.A.) each 'district' (or 'constituency' or 'riding') elects a representative to the Parliament (Congress, Senate, etc.) through plurality vote.

Jac.

However, in a representative democracy, the voters elect delegates, and it is these delegates, in turn, who vote for/against the candidates.

- In the U.S. Electoral College, each state elects one or more 'electors', who then elect the President.
- In regional representation (or 'first past the post') systems (e.g. Canada, U.K., or U.S.A.) each 'district' (or 'constituency' or 'riding') elects a representative to the Parliament (Congress, Senate, etc.) through plurality vote.
- ► In proportional representation systems (e.g. Israel, Brazil, EU parliament) parties propose 'lists' of candidates, and people vote for parties. If a party gets N % of the popular vote, then it controls N % of the seats in Parliament (drawn from the list).

However, in a representative democracy, the voters elect delegates, and it is these delegates, in turn, who vote for/against the candidates.

- In the U.S. Electoral College, each state elects one or more 'electors', who then elect the President.
- In regional representation (or 'first past the post') systems (e.g. Canada, U.K., or U.S.A.) each 'district' (or 'constituency' or 'riding') elects a representative to the Parliament (Congress, Senate, etc.) through plurality vote.

In proportional representation systems (e.g. Israel, Brazil, EU parliament) parties propose 'lists' of candidates, and people vote for parties. If a party gets N % of the popular vote, then it controls N % of the seats in Parliament (drawn from the list).
 In the closed list version, people vote for the party list as a whole.

However, in a representative democracy, the voters elect delegates, and it is these delegates, in turn, who vote for/against the candidates.

- In the U.S. Electoral College, each state elects one or more 'electors', who then elect the President.
- In regional representation (or 'first past the post') systems (e.g. Canada, U.K., or U.S.A.) each 'district' (or 'constituency' or 'riding') elects a representative to the Parliament (Congress, Senate, etc.) through plurality vote.

In proportional representation systems (e.g. Israel, Brazil, EU parliament) parties propose 'lists' of candidates, and people vote for parties. If a party gets N % of the popular vote, then it controls N % of the seats in Parliament (drawn from the list).
 In the closed list version, people vote for the party list as a whole.
 In the open list version, people can vote for individual list members.

Hybrid Proportional Systems

500

In Parallel Voting systems (e.g. Japan, South Korea) a fixed portion of delegates are elected by Regional Representation, and the remainder are chosen using Proportional Representation. But there is no attempt to make the overall distribution proportional.

Hybrid Proportional Systems

< 口 > < 同 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ = ○ < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○ > < ○

- In Parallel Voting systems (e.g. Japan, South Korea) a fixed portion of delegates are elected by Regional Representation, and the remainder are chosen using Proportional Representation. But there is no attempt to make the overall distribution proportional.
- In Mixed Member Proportional (MMP) systems (e.g. Scotland, Germany, Mexico, New Zealand) most delegates are elected using Regional Representation. The remainder are drawn from party 'lists' so as to 'approximate' the outcome of Proportional Representation as closely as possible. This system was recently considered in Ontario.
Hybrid Proportional Systems

(59/84)

- In Parallel Voting systems (e.g. Japan, South Korea) a fixed portion of delegates are elected by Regional Representation, and the remainder are chosen using Proportional Representation. But there is no attempt to make the overall distribution proportional.
- In Mixed Member Proportional (MMP) systems (e.g. Scotland, Germany, Mexico, New Zealand) most delegates are elected using Regional Representation. The remainder are drawn from party 'lists' so as to 'approximate' the outcome of Proportional Representation as closely as possible. This system was recently considered in Ontario.
- In Single Transferable Vote (STV) systems (e.g. Ireland, Malta, municipal elections in Scotland and New Zealand), delegates are elected as in Regional Representation, but something like 'Instant Runoff' is used to ensure that the allocation of seats to parties is roughly proportional. This system was recently considered in B.C.

Hybrid Proportional Systems

500

- In Parallel Voting systems (e.g. Japan, South Korea) a fixed portion of delegates are elected by Regional Representation, and the remainder are chosen using Proportional Representation. But there is no attempt to make the overall distribution proportional.
- In Mixed Member Proportional (MMP) systems (e.g. Scotland, Germany, Mexico, New Zealand) most delegates are elected using Regional Representation. The remainder are drawn from party 'lists' so as to 'approximate' the outcome of Proportional Representation as closely as possible. This system was recently considered in Ontario.
- In Single Transferable Vote (STV) systems (e.g. Ireland, Malta, municipal elections in Scotland and New Zealand), delegates are elected as in Regional Representation, but something like 'Instant Runoff' is used to ensure that the allocation of seats to parties is roughly proportional. This system was recently considered in B.C.

Regardless of how they are chosen, the use of delegates introduces additional paradoxes and pathologies into democracy.

In a system of regional representation (e.g. Canada), each 'district' elects a representative through plurality vote.

In a system of regional representation (e.g. Canada), each 'district' elects a representative through plurality vote.

	District
Preference	X
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	26%
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	24%
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	25%
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25%
Verdict:	A wins

As we've seen, if there are four parties (e.g. LiberAl, Bloc, Conservative and New Democratic), then it's possible for the A candidate in District X to get elected with only 26% of the votes —even if the A candidate is despised by the other 74% of the voters.

(日) < (日) > (1)

In a system of regional representation (e.g. Canada), each 'district' elects a representative through plurality vote.

	District								
Preference	1	2	3	4	5	Nationwide			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	26%	26%	26%	26%	26%	26%			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	24%	24%	24%	24%	24%	24%			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%			
Verdict:	A wins	A wins	A wins	A wins	A wins	A gets all seats			

As we've seen, if there are four parties (e.g. LiberAl, Bloc, Conservative and New Democratic), then it's possible for the A candidate in District X to get elected with only 26% of the votes —even if the A candidate is despised by the other 74% of the voters.

If this happens in every single district, then the A party could get all the seats in the Parliament, even though the A party is despised by almost three quarters of the voters!

In a system of regional representation (e.g. Canada), each 'district' elects a representative through plurality vote.

	District								
Preference	1	2	3	4	5	Nationwide			
$A \succ B \succ C \succ D$	26%	26%	26%	26%	26%	26%			
$B \succ C \succ D \succ A$	24%	24%	24%	24%	24%	24%			
$C \succ D \succ B \succ A$	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%			
$D \succ B \succ C \succ A$	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%	25%			
Verdict:	A wins	A wins	A wins	A wins	A wins	A gets all seats			

As we've seen, if there are four parties (e.g. LiberAl, Bloc, Conservative and New Democratic), then it's possible for the A candidate in District X to get elected with only 26% of the votes —even if the A candidate is despised by the other 74% of the voters.

- If this happens in every single district, then the A party could get all the seats in the Parliament, even though the A party is despised by almost three quarters of the voters!

Regional Representation: The Referendum Paradox (61/84)

Consider a referendum on some proposal.

Suppose there are 100 voters living in five districts with 20 voters each. Suppose popular support for the proposal is distributed as follows:

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

	District					
Preference	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Yes	20	20	8	8	8	64
No	0	0	12	12	12	36
People's verdict:						

Suppose there are 100 voters living in five districts with 20 voters each. Suppose popular support for the proposal is distributed as follows:

	District					
Preference	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Yes	20	20	8	8	8	64
No	0	0	12	12	12	36
People's verdict:					Yes	

64% of all voters say Yes, so the proposal is easily approved in a referendum.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Suppose there are 100 voters living in five districts with 20 voters each. Suppose popular support for the proposal is distributed as follows:

	District					
Preference	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Yes	20	20	8	8	8	64
No	0	0	12	12	12	36
People's verdict:	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Parliamentary verdict:						

64% of all voters say Yes, so the proposal is easily approved in a referendum. But instead, suppose the question is decided by a Parliament chosen through Regional Representation.

(日) < (日) > (1)

Suppose there are 100 voters living in five districts with 20 voters each. Suppose popular support for the proposal is distributed as follows:

	District					
Preference	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Yes	20	20	8	8	8	64
No	0	0	12	12	12	36
People's verdict:	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Parliamentary verdict:						

64% of all voters say Yes, so the proposal is easily approved in a referendum. But instead, suppose the question is decided by a Parliament chosen through Regional Representation.

Then 3 out of 5 Parliamentarians can each honestly say that a majority of her constituents reject the proposal.

Suppose there are 100 voters living in five districts with 20 voters each. Suppose popular support for the proposal is distributed as follows:

	District					
Preference	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Yes	20	20	8	8	8	64
No	0	0	12	12	12	36
People's verdict:	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes
Parliamentary verdict:	No					

64% of all voters say Yes, so the proposal is easily approved in a referendum. But instead, suppose the question is decided by a Parliament chosen through Regional Representation.

Then 3 out of 5 Parliamentarians can each honestly say that a majority of her constituents reject the proposal.

Thus, if each Parliamentarian obeys the 'wishes' of her constituents, the proposal would be rejected by a vote of 3 to 2.

Even with Proportional Representation, there can be problems.

Even with Proportional Representation, there can be problems. Suppose there are two parties, A and B, which propose different policies on three distinct 'issues'.

Even with Proportional Representation, there can be problems.

Suppose there are two parties, A and B, which propose different policies on three distinct 'issues'. Suppose public support for these policies is as follows:

Voters	lssue 1	Issue 2	Issue 3	Votes for
20%	A	В	В	
20%	В	А	В	
20%	В	В	Α	
20%	Α	А	Α	
20%	А	А	А	

Even with Proportional Representation, there can be problems.

Suppose there are two parties, A and B, which propose different policies on three distinct 'issues'. Suppose public support for these policies is as follows:

Voters	lssue 1	Issue 2	Issue 3	Votes for
20%	А	В	В	В
20%	В	А	В	В
20%	В	В	А	В
20%	А	А	А	А
20%	А	А	А	А

Suppose each person votes for a party if she agrees with it on most issues.

Even with Proportional Representation, there can be problems.

Suppose there are two parties, A and B, which propose different policies on three distinct 'issues'. Suppose public support for these policies is as follows:

Voters	lssue 1	Issue 2	Issue 3	Votes for
20%	А	В	В	В
20%	В	А	В	В
20%	В	В	А	В
20%	А	А	А	А
20%	А	А	А	А
	Majority:	B (60%)		

Suppose each person votes for a party if she agrees with it on most issues. Then 60% will vote for B, so the B party will control a majority in Parliament, and will implement B party policies.

Even with Proportional Representation, there can be problems.

Suppose there are two parties, A and B, which propose different policies on three distinct 'issues'. Suppose public support for these policies is as follows:

Voters	lssue 1	Issue 2	Issue 3	Votes for
20%	А	В	В	В
20%	В	А	В	В
20%	В	В	Α	В
20%	А	А	Α	А
20%	А	А	А	А
Majority Position:	А	А	A	
	B (60%)			

Suppose each person votes for a party if she agrees with it on most issues. Then 60% will vote for B, so the B party will control a majority in Parliament, and will implement B party policies.

< ロ > < 母 > < 三 > < 三 > 、 三 > の < で

But on *every issue*, a majority of voters prefer A's policy to B's policy.

Even with Proportional Representation, there can be problems.

Suppose there are two parties, A and B, which propose different policies on three distinct 'issues'. Suppose public support for these policies is as follows:

Voters	lssue 1	Issue 2	Issue 3	Votes for
20%	А	В	В	В
20%	В	А	В	В
20%	В	В	А	В
20%	А	А	А	А
20%	А	А	А	А
Majority Position:	А	А	А	
	Majority:	B (60%)		

Suppose each person votes for a party if she agrees with it on most issues. Then 60% will vote for B, so the B party will control a majority in Parliament, and will implement B party policies.

But on *every issue*, a majority of voters prefer A's policy to B's policy. This paradox was discovered by Moise Ostrogorski (1902), who was highly critical of the role of political parties in democratic politics. Ostrogorski's paradox happens because people can't vote for individual *policies*; instead, they must vote for a party's 'platform' of policies.

Jac.

Ostrogorski's paradox happens because people can't vote for individual *policies*; instead, they must vote for a party's 'platform' of policies. Suppose voters *could* vote for individual policies. Suppose there are three issues, and two policies for each issue. Voter preferences are as follows:

Voters	lss	ue 1	lssue 2		Issue 3		
	Policy		Policy		Policy		
20%	A		С		F		
20%	В		D		F		
20%	В		С		E		
20%	Α		D		E		
20%	Α		D		E		

Jac.

Ostrogorski's paradox happens because people can't vote for individual *policies*; instead, they must vote for a party's 'platform' of policies. Suppose voters *could* vote for individual policies. Suppose there are three issues, and two policies for each issue. Voter preferences are as follows:

Voters	lss	ue 1	lssue 2		Issue 3		
	Policy		Policy		Policy		
20%	A		С		F		
20%	В		D		F		
20%	В		С		E		
20%	Α		D		E		
20%	Α		D		E		
Verdict:	A (60%)	D (60%)	E (50%)	

In referenda, A, D, and E will be chosen, each with 60% support.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Ostrogorski's paradox happens because people can't vote for individual *policies*; instead, they must vote for a party's 'platform' of policies. Suppose voters *could* vote for individual policies. Suppose there are three issues, and two policies for each issue. Voter preferences are as follows:

Voters	lss	lssue 1		Issue 2		Issue 2		ue 3	
	Policy	Happy?	Policy	Happy?	Policy	Happy?			
20%	A	\odot	C		F				
20%	В	(D	\odot	F	(
20%	В		С		E	\odot			
20%	Α	\odot	D	\odot	E	\odot			
20%	Α	\odot	D	\odot	E	\odot			
Verdict:	A (60%)	D (60%)	Ε (60%)			

In referenda, A, D, and E will be chosen, each with 60% support. Each referendum outcome will make some voters happy and others unhappy. Ostrogorski's paradox happens because people can't vote for individual *policies*; instead, they must vote for a party's 'platform' of policies. Suppose voters *could* vote for individual policies. Suppose there are three issues, and two policies for each issue. Voter preferences are as follows:

Voters	lss	ue 1	lss	Issue 2		ue 3	Overall
	Policy	Happy?	Policy	Happy?	Policy	Happy?	Satisfaction
20%	A	\odot	C	(F	(
20%	В		D	\odot	F	\bigotimes	
20%	В		C		E	\odot	
20%	Α	\odot	D	\odot	E	\odot	\odot
20%	Α	\odot	D	\odot	E	\odot	\odot
Verdict:	A (60%)	D (60%)	E (50%)	

In referenda, A, D, and E will be chosen, each with 60% support. Each referendum outcome will make some voters happy and others unhappy. Suppose a voter is 'satisfied overall' if she is happy with 2 out of 3 referenda. Ostrogorski's paradox happens because people can't vote for individual *policies*; instead, they must vote for a party's 'platform' of policies. Suppose voters *could* vote for individual policies. Suppose there are three issues, and two policies for each issue. Voter preferences are as follows:

Voters	lss	ue 1	Issue 2		Issue 3		Overall
	Policy	Happy?	Policy	Happy?	Policy	Happy?	Satisfaction
20%	A	\odot	C		F	(8
20%	В		D	\odot	F	\bigotimes	
20%	В		C		E	\odot	
20%	Α	\odot	D	\odot	E	\odot	\odot
20%	Α	\odot	D	\odot	E	\odot	\odot
Verdict:	A (60%)	D (60%)	Ε (50%)	😕 (60%)

In referenda, A, D, and E will be chosen, each with 60% support. Each referendum outcome will make some voters happy and others unhappy. Suppose a voter is 'satisfied overall' if she is happy with 2 out of 3 referenda. Then 60% of the voters are dissatisfied overall!

Possible solution: Consensus via creative compromise (64/84)

This paradox was found by British philosopher Elizabeth Anscombe (1976).

This paradox was found by British philosopher Elizabeth Anscombe (1976). It happens because, on each issue, the winner has only a 'small' majority.

(日) < (日) > (1)

 $\mathfrak{I}_{\mathcal{A}}$

It happens because, on each issue, the winner has only a 'small' majority.

Wagner (1983) has shown that Anscombe's paradox *cannot occur* if, on each issue, the winning policy is supported by at least 3/4 of the voters. Of course, such a 'supermajority' does not usually occur....

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

It happens because, on each issue, the winner has only a 'small' majority.

Wagner (1983) has shown that Anscombe's paradox *cannot occur* if, on each issue, the winning policy is supported by at least 3/4 of the voters. Of course, such a 'supermajority' does not usually occur....

Suppose it appears unlikely that either of the policies A or B will attract 3/4 of the voters.

It happens because, on each issue, the winner has only a 'small' majority.

Wagner (1983) has shown that Anscombe's paradox *cannot occur* if, on each issue, the winning policy is supported by at least 3/4 of the voters. Of course, such a 'supermajority' does not usually occur....

Suppose it appears unlikely that either of the policies A or B will attract 3/4 of the voters.

The only solution is to attempt some 'creative compromise', and replace A and/or B with new proposals (say, A_1 and B_1), one of which is likely to satisfy 3/4 of the voters. (The same goes for C vs. D, and E vs. F).

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

It happens because, on each issue, the winner has only a 'small' majority.

Wagner (1983) has shown that Anscombe's paradox *cannot occur* if, on each issue, the winning policy is supported by at least 3/4 of the voters. Of course, such a 'supermajority' does not usually occur....

Suppose it appears unlikely that either of the policies A or B will attract 3/4 of the voters.

The only solution is to attempt some 'creative compromise', and replace A and/or B with new proposals (say, A_1 and B_1), one of which is likely to satisfy 3/4 of the voters. (The same goes for C vs. D, and E vs. F).

How can we find this 'creative compromise'? Only through widespread dialogue and deliberation....

Voting Power

< ロ > < 合 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ >

All animals are equal...

Suppose a 100-seat Parliament is spit between parties A, B, C and D:

	Parliament Breakdown							
Party	Α	В	С	D				
#Seats	28	26	26	20				

(日) (四) (三) (三)

All animals are equal...

Suppose a 100-seat Parliament is spit between parties A, B, C and D:

	Parliament Breakdown							
Party	Α	В	C	D				
#Seats	28	26	26	20				

∍

Sac

If 'power' \approx (# of seats), then all four parties have roughly the same power.

Maybe A has a little more, and D has a little less.

...but some animals are more equal than others.

Suppose a 100-seat Parliament is spit between parties A, B, C and D:

If 'power' \approx (# of seats), then all four parties have roughly the same power.

Maybe A has a little more, and D has a little less.

	Pa	rtisan E	Bloc Vo				
Party	Α	В	C	D	Total	Score	1
#Seats	28	26	26	20	Yes	No	Outcome
	No	No	No	No	0	100	No
	No	No	No	Yes	20	80	No
	Yes	No	No	No	28	72	No
	Yes	No	No	Yes	48	52	No
	No	Yes	No	No	26	74	No
	No	Yes	No	Yes	46	54	No
	Yes	Yes	No	No	54	46	Yes
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	74	26	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	No	52	48	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	72	28	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	80	20	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0	Yes

Assume each party votes as a 'bloc' —either because all members have identical ideologies, or because of strong 'party discipline'.

...but some animals are more equal than others.

Suppose a 100-seat Parliament is spit between parties A, B, C and D:

If 'power' \approx (# of seats), then all four parties have roughly the same power.

Maybe A has a little more, and D has a little less.

	Pa	rtisan E	Bloc Vo				
Party	Α	В	C	D	Total	Score	1
#Seats	28	26	26	20	Yes	No	Outcome
	No	No	No	No	0	100	No
	No	No	No	Yes	20	80	No
	Yes	No	No	No	28	72	No
	Yes	No	No	Yes	48	52	No
	No	Yes	No	No	26	74	No
	No	Yes	No	Yes	46	54	No
	Yes	Yes	No	No	54	46	Yes
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	74	26	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	No	52	48	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	72	28	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	80	20	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0	Yes

Assume each party votes as a 'bloc' —either because all members have identical ideologies, or because of strong 'party discipline'.

Question: How often does party D's vote actually change the outcome?
...but some animals are more equal than others.

Suppose a 100-seat Parliament is spit between parties A, B, C and D:

If 'power' \approx (# of seats), then all four parties have roughly the same power.

Maybe A has a little more, and D has a little less.

	Pa	rtisan E	Bloc Vo				
Party	Α	В	C	D	Total	Score	
#Seats	28	26	26	20	Yes	No	Outcome
	No	No	No	No	0	100	No
	No	No	No	Yes	20	80	No
	Yes	No	No	No	28	72	No
	Yes	No	No	Yes	48	52	No
	No	Yes	No	No	26	74	No
	No	Yes	No	Yes	46	54	No
	Yes	Yes	No	No	54	46	Yes
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	74	26	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	No	52	48	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	72	28	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	80	20	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0	Yes

Assume each party votes as a 'bloc' —either because all members have identical ideologies, or because of strong 'party discipline'.

Question: How often does party D's vote actually change the outcome? **Answer:** Never.

...but some animals are more equal than others.

Suppose a 100-seat Parliament is spit between parties A, B, C and D:

If 'power' \approx (# of seats), then all four parties have roughly the same power.

Maybe A has a little more, and D has a little less.

	Pa	rtisan E	Bloc Vo				
Party	Α	В	C	D	Total	Score	
#Seats	28	26	26	20	Yes	No	Outcome
	No	No	No	No	0	100	No
	No	No	No	Yes	20	80	No
	Yes	No	No	No	28	72	No
	Yes	No	No	Yes	48	52	No
	No	Yes	No	No	26	74	No
	No	Yes	No	Yes	46	54	No
	Yes	Yes	No	No	54	46	Yes
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	74	26	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	No	52	48	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	72	28	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	80	20	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0	Yes

Assume each party votes as a 'bloc' —either because all members have identical ideologies, or because of strong 'party discipline'.

Question: How often does party D's vote actually change the outcome? **Answer:** Never.

Conclusion: Although party D has 20% of the seats, D has *zero* power.

...but some animals are more equal than others.

Suppose a 100-seat Parliament is spit between parties A, B, C and D:

If 'power' \approx (# of seats), then all four parties have roughly the same power.

Maybe A has a little more, and D has a little less.

	Pa	rtisan E	Bloc Vo]			
Party	Α	В	C	D	Total	Score	1
#Seats	28	26	26	20	Yes	No	Outcome
	No	No	No	No	0	100	No
	No	No	No	Yes	20	80	No
	Yes	No	No	No	28	72	No
	Yes	No	No	Yes	48	52	No
	No	Yes	No	No	26	74	No
	No	Yes	No	Yes	46	54	No
	Yes	Yes	No	No	54	46	Yes
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	74	26	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	No	52	48	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	72	28	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	80	20	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0	Yes

Assume each party votes as a 'bloc' —either because all members have identical ideologies, or because of strong 'party discipline'.

Question: How often does party D's vote actually change the outcome? **Answer:** Never.

Conclusion: Although party D has 20% of the seats, D has zero power. Also, parties A, B and C all have *exactly the same* power, even though A has slightly more seats. **Idea:** The correct measure of your 'voting power' is not the percentage of seats you control.....

Idea: The correct measure of your 'voting power' is not the percentage of seats you control..... It is the probability that your vote will actually *change the outcome* —i.e. the probability that you will be a pivotal voter.

Idea: The correct measure of your 'voting power' is not the percentage of seats you control..... It is the probability that your vote will actually *change the outcome* —i.e. the probability that you will be a pivotal voter. A **voting power index** (VPI) is an *estimate* of this probability, based on assumptions about how 'voting coalitions' can form.

	Parliament Breakdown				
Party	А	С			
#Seats	48	47	5		

Idea: The correct measure of your 'voting power' is not the percentage of seats you control..... It is the probability that your vote will actually *change the outcome* —i.e. the probability that you will be a pivotal voter. A **voting power index** (VPI) is an *estimate* of this probability, based on assumptions about how 'voting coalitions' can form. **Example:** Suppose three parties split Parliament as shown above.

	Partisan Bloc Votes					
Party	А	В	C	Total	Score	
#Seats	48	47	5	Yes	No	Outcome
	No	No	No	0	100	No
	No	No	Yes	5	95	No
	No	Yes	No	47	53	No
	No	Yes	Yes	52	48	Yes
	Yes	No	No	48	52	No
	Yes	No	Yes	53	47	Yes
	Yes	Yes	No	95	5	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0	Yes

Idea: The correct measure of your 'voting power' is not the percentage of seats you control..... It is the probability that your vote will actually *change the outcome* —i.e. the probability that you will be a pivotal voter. A **voting power index** (VPI) is an *estimate* of this probability, based on assumptions about how 'voting coalitions' can form.

Example: Suppose three parties split Parliament as shown above. No *one* party can dictate the outcome, but any team of *two* parties can.

	Partisan Bloc Votes					
Party	А	В	C	Total	Score	
#Seats	48	47	5	Yes	No	Outcome
	No	No	No	0	100	No
	No	No	Yes	5	95	No
	No	Yes	No	47	53	No
	No	Yes	Yes	52	48	Yes
	Yes	No	No	48	52	No
	Yes	No	Yes	53	47	Yes
	Yes	Yes	No	95	5	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0	Yes

Idea: The correct measure of your 'voting power' is not the percentage of seats you control..... It is the probability that your vote will actually *change the outcome* —i.e. the probability that you will be a pivotal voter. A **voting power index** (VPI) is an *estimate* of this probability, based on assumptions about how 'voting coalitions' can form.

Example: Suppose three parties split Parliament as shown above. No *one* party can dictate the outcome, but any team of *two* parties can. Thus, a VPI would say all three parties actually have *equal* power.

	Partisan Bloc Votes					
Party	Α	В	C	Total	Score	
#Seats	48	47	5	Yes	No	Outcome
	No	No	No	0	100	No
	No	No	Yes	5	95	No
	No	Yes	No	47	53	No
	No	Yes	Yes	52	48	Yes
	Yes	No	No	48	52	No
	Yes	No	Yes	53	47	Yes
	Yes	Yes	No	95	5	Yes
	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0	Yes

Idea: The correct measure of your 'voting power' is not the percentage of seats you control..... It is the probability that your vote will actually *change the outcome* —i.e. the probability that you will be a pivotal voter. A **voting power index** (VPI) is an *estimate* of this probability, based on assumptions about how 'voting coalitions' can form. **Example:** Suppose three parties split Parliament as shown above. No *one* party can dictate the outcome, but any team of *two* parties can.

Thus, a VPI would say all three parties actually have equal power.

In particular C has exactly *the same* power as A and B, even though C has only 5% of the votes (C holds "the balance of power") $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{R}}$

Suppose Parliament votes on a bill. We can linearly order the parties from those *most in favour* of the bill to those *most opposed* to it:

abc..... mno pqr..... xyz

Suppose Parliament votes on a bill. We can linearly order the parties from those *most in favour* of the bill to those *most opposed* to it:

abc..... mno pqr..... xyz

The left parties (e.g. a, b, c) strongly support the bill; the right parties (e.g. x, y, z) strongly oppose it, and the middle (e.g. n, o, p) are neutral.

Suppose Parliament votes on a bill. We can linearly order the parties from those *most in favour* of the bill to those *most opposed* to it:

The left parties (e.g. a, b, c) strongly support the bill; the right parties (e.g. x, y, z) strongly oppose it, and the middle (e.g. n, o, p) are neutral. Draw a line so that the parties *left* of this line vote 'Yes' and the parties *right* of this line vote 'No'. In this case, the line is between o and p.

Suppose Parliament votes on a bill. We can linearly order the parties from those *most in favour* of the bill to those *most opposed* to it:

$$\underbrace{a \quad b \quad c \quad \dots \quad m \quad n \quad o}_{Yes} \mid \underbrace{p \quad q \quad r \quad \dots \quad x \quad y \quad z}_{No}$$

The left parties (e.g. a, b, c) strongly support the bill; the right parties (e.g. x, y, z) strongly oppose it, and the middle (e.g. n, o, p) are neutral. Draw a line so that the parties *left* of this line vote 'Yes' and the parties *right* of this line vote 'No'. In this case, the line is between o and p. The bill will pass if and only if the coalition left of the line is a majority.

(日) < (日) > (1)

Suppose Parliament votes on a bill. We can linearly order the parties from those *most in favour* of the bill to those *most opposed* to it:

$$\underbrace{a \quad b \quad c \quad \dots \quad m \quad n \quad o}_{Yes} \mid \underbrace{p \quad q \quad r \quad \dots \quad x \quad y \quad z}_{No}$$

The left parties (e.g. a, b, c) strongly support the bill; the right parties (e.g. x, y, z) strongly oppose it, and the middle (e.g. n, o, p) are neutral. Draw a line so that the parties *left* of this line vote 'Yes' and the parties *right* of this line vote 'No'. In this case, the line is between o and p. The bill will pass if and only if the coalition left of the line is a majority. In this order, p is **pivotal** if $\{a, b, c, ..., o, p\}$ *is* a majority, but $\{a, b, c, ..., o\}$ is *not* a majority; thus the bill will pass *if and only if p* votes Yes.

Suppose Parliament votes on a bill. We can linearly order the parties from those *most in favour* of the bill to those *most opposed* to it:

$$\underbrace{a \quad b \quad c \quad \dots \quad m \quad n \quad o}_{Yes} \mid \underbrace{p \quad q \quad r \quad \dots \quad x \quad y \quad z}_{No}$$

The left parties (e.g. a, b, c) strongly support the bill; the right parties (e.g. x, y, z) strongly oppose it, and the middle (e.g. n, o, p) are neutral. Draw a line so that the parties *left* of this line vote 'Yes' and the parties *right* of this line vote 'No'. In this case, the line is between o and p. The bill will pass if and only if the coalition left of the line is a majority. In this order, p is **pivotal** if $\{a, b, c, ..., o, p\}$ is a majority, but $\{a, b, c, ..., o\}$ is *not* a majority; thus the bill will pass *if and only if* p votes Yes. The **Shapley-Shubik index** (SSI) of party p is the the probability that pwill be pivotal, assuming that all orderings of the N parties are equally likely:

$$\frac{SSI(p)}{\#(\text{orderings where } p \text{ is pivotal})}{\#(\text{orderings of } N \text{ parties})} = \frac{\#(\text{orderings where } p \text{ is pivotal})}{N!}$$

Suppose Parliament votes on a bill. We can linearly order the parties from those *most in favour* of the bill to those *most opposed* to it:

$$\underbrace{a \quad b \quad c \quad \dots \quad m \quad n \quad o}_{Yes} \mid \underbrace{p \quad q \quad r \quad \dots \quad x \quad y \quad z}_{No}$$

The left parties (e.g. a, b, c) strongly support the bill; the right parties (e.g. x, y, z) strongly oppose it, and the middle (e.g. n, o, p) are neutral. Draw a line so that the parties *left* of this line vote 'Yes' and the parties *right* of this line vote 'No'. In this case, the line is between o and p. The bill will pass if and only if the coalition left of the line is a majority. In this order, p is **pivotal** if $\{a, b, c, ..., o, p\}$ is a majority, but $\{a, b, c, ..., o\}$ is *not* a majority; thus the bill will pass *if and only if* p votes Yes. The **Shapley-Shubik index** (SSI) of party p is the the probability that pwill be pivotal, assuming that all orderings of the N parties are equally likely:

$$SSI(p) := \frac{\#(\text{orderings where } p \text{ is pivotal})}{\#(\text{orderings of } N \text{ parties})} = \frac{\#(\text{orderings where } p \text{ is pivotal})}{N!}$$

Here, $N! := N \cdot (N-1) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$. Example: $5! = 5! \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 120$

(69/84

<ロ> <日> <日> < => < => < => < = > < < のへで

Party	A	В	C
#Seats	48	47	5

For example, in this scenario,

$$SSI(A) = SSI(B) = SSI(C) = 1/3.$$

(All three parties have the same amount of power.)

(69/84)

Party	Α	В	C
#Seats	48	47	5

For example, in this scenario,

$$SSI(A) = SSI(B) = SSI(C) = 1/3.$$

(All three parties have the same amount of power.)

Party	А	В	C	D
#Seats	28	26	26	20

In this scenario,

$$SSI(A) = SSI(B) = SSI(C) = 1/3$$
, and $SS(D) = 0$.

(A, B, and C have the same power; D has *no* power.)

(69/84)

Sac

Party	Α	В	C
#Seats	48	47	5

For example, in this scenario,

$$SSI(A) = SSI(B) = SSI(C) = 1/3.$$

(All three parties have the same amount of power.)

Party	Α	В	C	D
#Seats	28	26	26	20

In this scenario,

$$SSI(A) = SSI(B) = SSI(C) = 1/3$$
, and $SS(D) = 0$.

(A, B, and C have the same power; D has *no* power.) The SSI shows that the power of a party in a coalition government can be wildly disproportionate to its share of Parliamentary seats.

(69/84)

Party	Α	В	C
#Seats	48	47	5

For example, in this scenario,

$$SSI(A) = SSI(B) = SSI(C) = 1/3.$$

(All three parties have the same amount of power.)

Party	А	В	C	D
#Seats	28	26	26	20

In this scenario,

$$SSI(A) = SSI(B) = SSI(C) = 1/3$$
, and $SS(D) = 0$.

(A, B, and C have the same power; D has *no* power.) The SSI shows that the power of a party in a coalition government can be wildly disproportionate to its share of Parliamentary seats.

When combined with the previous 'voting paradoxes', the power of a party may be even more wildly disproportionate to its share of the popular vote.

Voting power indices can also be applied to more complex voting systems, where different voters have different 'weights'. For example:

Voting power indices can also be applied to more complex voting systems, where different voters have different 'weights'. For example:

In a public corporation, each shareholder's 'weight' is the number of shares she owns. Thus, a few large shareholders might hold *all* the voting power, even though they do not own all the shares.

Sac

Voting power indices can also be applied to more complex voting systems, where different voters have different 'weights'. For example:

- In a public corporation, each shareholder's 'weight' is the number of shares she owns. Thus, a few large shareholders might hold *all* the voting power, even though they do not own all the shares.
- In the European Union, different countries have different weights. e.g. Fra=Ger=U.K.=10 votes, Belg=Neth=5 votes, Den=3 votes, etc.

Voting power indices can also be applied to more complex voting systems, where different voters have different 'weights'. For example:

- In a public corporation, each shareholder's 'weight' is the number of shares she owns. Thus, a few large shareholders might hold all the voting power, even though they do not own all the shares.
- In the European Union, different countries have different weights. e.g. Fra=Ger=U.K.=10 votes, Belg=Neth=5 votes, Den=3 votes, etc.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Voting power indices can also be applied to more complex voting systems, where different voters have different 'weights'. For example:

- In a public corporation, each shareholder's 'weight' is the number of shares she owns. Thus, a few large shareholders might hold all the voting power, even though they do not own all the shares.
- In the European Union, different countries have different weights. e.g. Fra=Ger=U.K.=10 votes, Belg=Neth=5 votes, Den=3 votes, etc.

Voting power indices also apply to systems with vetoes and 'antivetoes'.

In the United States Federal System, the President can veto a bill passed by a > 50% majority in House and Senate. However, this veto can be *overridden* by a 2/3rds majority of House and Senate.

Voting power indices can also be applied to more complex voting systems, where different voters have different 'weights'. For example:

- In a public corporation, each shareholder's 'weight' is the number of shares she owns. Thus, a few large shareholders might hold all the voting power, even though they do not own all the shares.
- In the European Union, different countries have different weights. e.g. Fra=Ger=U.K.=10 votes, Belg=Neth=5 votes, Den=3 votes, etc.

- In the United States Federal System, the President can veto a bill passed by a > 50% majority in House and Senate. However, this veto can be *overridden* by a 2/3rds majority of House and Senate.
- In the 15-member United Nations Security Council, a resolution is adopted if and only if it is approved by six out of the ten Nonpermanent Members, and by *all five* Permanent Members (U.S.A., U.K. France, Russia, China), who each have a (binding) veto.

Voting power indices can also be applied to more complex voting systems, where different voters have different 'weights'. For example:

- In a public corporation, each shareholder's 'weight' is the number of shares she owns. Thus, a few large shareholders might hold *all* the voting power, even though they do not own all the shares.
- In the European Union, different countries have different weights. e.g. Fra=Ger=U.K.=10 votes, Belg=Neth=5 votes, Den=3 votes, etc.

- ► In the United States Federal System, the President can veto a bill passed by a > 50% majority in House and Senate. However, this veto can be *overridden* by a 2/3rds majority of House and Senate.
- In the 15-member United Nations Security Council, a resolution is adopted if and only if it is approved by six out of the ten Nonpermanent Members, and by *all five* Permanent Members (U.S.A., U.K. France, Russia, China), who each have a (binding) veto.
 For example, the SSI of each Permanent Member of the UNSC is 19.6%.

Voting power indices can also be applied to more complex voting systems, where different voters have different 'weights'. For example:

- In a public corporation, each shareholder's 'weight' is the number of shares she owns. Thus, a few large shareholders might hold *all* the voting power, even though they do not own all the shares.
- In the European Union, different countries have different weights. e.g. Fra=Ger=U.K.=10 votes, Belg=Neth=5 votes, Den=3 votes, etc.

- ► In the United States Federal System, the President can veto a bill passed by a > 50% majority in House and Senate. However, this veto can be *overridden* by a 2/3rds majority of House and Senate.
- In the 15-member United Nations Security Council, a resolution is adopted if and only if it is approved by six out of the ten Nonpermanent Members, and by *all five* Permanent Members (U.S.A., U.K. France, Russia, China), who each have a (binding) veto.
 For example, the SSI of each Permanent Member of the UNSC is 19.6%.
 The SSI of each *Nonpermanent* Member is only 0.187%, the test is approved.

Liberalism, Populism, and Social Choice

(ㅁ) (귀) (흔) (흔)

Liberalism versus Populism

(72/84)

Political scientist William Riker (1982) contrasted two views of democracy:

500

Political scientist William Riker (1982) contrasted two views of democracy:

Populism sees democracy as a device to determine the 'Will of the People' and convert this 'General Will' into law. This view is usually associated with French philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1762).

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Political scientist William Riker (1982) contrasted two views of democracy:

- Populism sees democracy as a device to determine the 'Will of the People' and convert this 'General Will' into law. This view is usually associated with French philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1762).
- ▶ Liberalism sees democracy as a device to eject bad governments, and to deter corruption and incompetence. This view is often associated with American constitutionalist James Madison (1787).

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Political scientist William Riker (1982) contrasted two views of democracy:

- Populism sees democracy as a device to determine the 'Will of the People' and convert this 'General Will' into law. This view is usually associated with French philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1762).
- ▶ Liberalism sees democracy as a device to eject bad governments, and to deter corruption and incompetence. This view is often associated with American constitutionalist James Madison (1787).

After an election, when journalists and politicians say, "The voters want X", or "The voters said Y", they are implicitly adopting a Populist viewpoint.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Political scientist William Riker (1982) contrasted two views of democracy:

- Populism sees democracy as a device to determine the 'Will of the People' and convert this 'General Will' into law. This view is usually associated with French philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1762).
- ▶ Liberalism sees democracy as a device to eject bad governments, and to deter corruption and incompetence. This view is often associated with American constitutionalist James Madison (1787).

After an election, when journalists and politicians say, "The voters want X", or "The voters said Y", they are implicitly adopting a Populist viewpoint.

However, for Riker, modern voting theory shows that 'Populism' is incoherent.

Political scientist William Riker (1982) contrasted two views of democracy:

- Populism sees democracy as a device to determine the 'Will of the People' and convert this 'General Will' into law. This view is usually associated with French philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1762).
- ▶ Liberalism sees democracy as a device to eject bad governments, and to deter corruption and incompetence. This view is often associated with American constitutionalist James Madison (1787).

After an election, when journalists and politicians say, "The voters want X", or "The voters said Y", they are implicitly adopting a Populist viewpoint.

However, for Riker, modern voting theory shows that 'Populism' is incoherent.

For Riker, voting paradoxes, pathologies, and Impossibility Theorems imply that there is no such thing as a 'General Will' —or at least, none which could ever be ascertained through an election or referendum.
Political scientist William Riker (1982) contrasted two views of democracy:

- Populism sees democracy as a device to determine the 'Will of the People' and convert this 'General Will' into law. This view is usually associated with French philosopher Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1762).
- ▶ Liberalism sees democracy as a device to eject bad governments, and to deter corruption and incompetence. This view is often associated with American constitutionalist James Madison (1787).

After an election, when journalists and politicians say, "The voters want X", or "The voters said Y", they are implicitly adopting a Populist viewpoint.

However, for Riker, modern voting theory shows that 'Populism' is incoherent.

For Riker, voting paradoxes, pathologies, and Impossibility Theorems imply that there is no such thing as a 'General Will' —or at least, none which could ever be ascertained through an election or referendum.

Thus, Riker advocates the more pessimistic 'Liberal' view of democracy.

We must separate two questions:

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0)

We must separate two questions:

1. *Is* there a 'Will of the People'?

Question #1 is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called Social Choice Theory. A mathematical representation of the 'Will of the People' is called a social choice function.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

We must separate two questions:

- 1. Is there a 'Will of the People'?
- 2. If so, how can we accurately determine this Will?

Question #1 is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called Social Choice Theory. A mathematical representation of the 'Will of the People' is called a social choice function.

One can translate each philosophical desideratum (e.g. 'equality', 'consistency', etc.) into a precise mathematical property, and then determine which social choice functions (if any) satisfy these properties.

We must separate two questions:

- 1. Is there a 'Will of the People'?
- 2. If so, how can we accurately determine this Will?

Question #1 is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called Social Choice Theory. A mathematical representation of the 'Will of the People' is called a social choice function.

One can translate each philosophical desideratum (e.g. 'equality', 'consistency', etc.) into a precise mathematical property, and then determine which social choice functions (if any) satisfy these properties.

For example, Arrow's Impossibility Theorem says there is no social choice function which uses only 'preference orders' as input, which is egalitarian (i.e. not a dictatorship), and which respects Unanimity and Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives.

We must separate two questions:

- 1. Is there a 'Will of the People'?
- 2. If so, how can we accurately determine this Will?

Question #1 is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called Social Choice Theory. A mathematical representation of the 'Will of the People' is called a social choice function.

One can translate each philosophical desideratum (e.g. 'equality', 'consistency', etc.) into a precise mathematical property, and then determine which social choice functions (if any) satisfy these properties.

For example, Arrow's Impossibility Theorem says there is no social choice function which uses only 'preference orders' as input, which is egalitarian (i.e. not a dictatorship), and which respects Unanimity and Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives.

We must separate two questions:

- 1. Is there a 'Will of the People'?
- 2. If so, how can we accurately determine this Will?

Question #1 is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called Social Choice Theory. A mathematical representation of the 'Will of the People' is called a social choice function.

One can translate each philosophical desideratum (e.g. 'equality', 'consistency', etc.) into a precise mathematical property, and then determine which social choice functions (if any) satisfy these properties.

For example, Arrow's Impossibility Theorem says there is no social choice function which uses only 'preference orders' as input, which is egalitarian (i.e. not a dictatorship), and which respects Unanimity and Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives.

(ㅁ) (귀) (흔) (흔)

= √Q (~

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

One kind of social choice function seeks to maximize a social welfare function: a mathematical representation of the 'aggregate happiness' of society. For example:

► Utilitarianism seeks to maximize the 'sum total utility' of all citizens (where utility ≈ happiness).

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

- ► Utilitarianism seeks to maximize the 'sum total utility' of all citizens (where utility ≈ happiness).
 - It was first articulated by British philosopher Jeremy Bentham (1789).

- ► Utilitarianism seeks to maximize the 'sum total utility' of all citizens (where utility ≈ happiness). It was first articulated by British philosopher Jeremy Bentham (1789).
- Relative Utilitarianism is a modern variant of utilitarianism, where each citizen's 'utility' is assumed to be between 0 and 1.

- ▶ Utilitarianism seeks to maximize the 'sum total utility' of all citizens (where utility ≈ happiness).
 It was first articulated by British philosopher Jeremy Bentham (1789).
- Relative Utilitarianism is a modern variant of utilitarianism, where each citizen's 'utility' is assumed to be between 0 and 1.
- Egalitarianism seeks to maximize the *minimum* utility over all citizens. (In practice, this usually means *equalizing* the utilities of all citizens).

- ▶ Utilitarianism seeks to maximize the 'sum total utility' of all citizens (where utility ≈ happiness).
 It was first articulated by British philosopher Jeremy Bentham (1789).
- Relative Utilitarianism is a modern variant of utilitarianism, where each citizen's 'utility' is assumed to be between 0 and 1.
- Egalitarianism seeks to maximize the *minimum* utility over all citizens. (In practice, this usually means *equalizing* the utilities of all citizens). It is often associated with American philosopher John Rawls (1971).

- ► Utilitarianism seeks to maximize the 'sum total utility' of all citizens (where utility ≈ happiness). It was first articulated by British philosopher Jeremy Bentham (1789).
- Relative Utilitarianism is a modern variant of utilitarianism, where each citizen's 'utility' is assumed to be between 0 and 1.
- Egalitarianism seeks to maximize the *minimum* utility over all citizens. (In practice, this usually means *equalizing* the utilities of all citizens). It is often associated with American philosopher John Rawls (1971).

Each of these social choice functions satisfies different (and mutually exclusive) mathematical axioms (which encode philosophical ideals).

Even if we can identify the 'Will of the People' (e.g. via a social choice function), how can we measure it, without being misled by strategic voting?

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Even if we can identify the 'Will of the People' (e.g. via a social choice function), how can we measure it, without being misled by strategic voting? For example: suppose we implement Bentham's Utilitarianism by asking each voter to assign a 'utility' to each candidate.

500

Even if we can identify the 'Will of the People' (e.g. via a social choice function), how can we measure it, without being misled by strategic voting? For example: suppose we implement Bentham's Utilitarianism by asking each voter to assign a 'utility' to each candidate. Then each voter will exaggerate her preferences (e.g. *overstate* the utility of her favourite candidates, and *understate* the utility of her least prefered candidates).

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Even if we can identify the 'Will of the People' (e.g. via a social choice function), how can we measure it, without being misled by strategic voting?

For example: suppose we implement Bentham's Utilitarianism by asking each voter to assign a 'utility' to each candidate. Then each voter will exaggerate her preferences (e.g. *overstate* the utility of her favourite candidates, and *understate* the utility of her least prefered candidates).

Each voting system is like a 'game', and sometimes a voter's best 'strategy' is to be dishonest.

Even if we can identify the 'Will of the People' (e.g. via a social choice function), how can we measure it, without being misled by strategic voting?

For example: suppose we implement Bentham's Utilitarianism by asking each voter to assign a 'utility' to each candidate. Then each voter will exaggerate her preferences (e.g. *overstate* the utility of her favourite candidates, and *understate* the utility of her least prefered candidates).

Each voting system is like a 'game', and sometimes a voter's best 'strategy' is to be dishonest. We want to design a 'voting game' where each voter's best strategy is always to be honest. This is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called mechanism design.

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Even if we can identify the 'Will of the People' (e.g. via a social choice function), how can we measure it, without being misled by strategic voting?

For example: suppose we implement Bentham's Utilitarianism by asking each voter to assign a 'utility' to each candidate. Then each voter will exaggerate her preferences (e.g. *overstate* the utility of her favourite candidates, and *understate* the utility of her least prefered candidates).

Each voting system is like a 'game', and sometimes a voter's best 'strategy' is to be dishonest. We want to design a 'voting game' where each voter's best strategy is always to be honest. This is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called mechanism design.

For example, the Clarke Pivotal Mechanism (CPM) is a hybrid election/auction. Each voter declares a monetary 'price' for each candidate (which we interpret as 'utility').

Even if we can identify the 'Will of the People' (e.g. via a social choice function), how can we measure it, without being misled by strategic voting?

For example: suppose we implement Bentham's Utilitarianism by asking each voter to assign a 'utility' to each candidate. Then each voter will exaggerate her preferences (e.g. *overstate* the utility of her favourite candidates, and *understate* the utility of her least prefered candidates).

Each voting system is like a 'game', and sometimes a voter's best 'strategy' is to be dishonest. We want to design a 'voting game' where each voter's best strategy is always to be honest. This is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called mechanism design.

For example, the Clarke Pivotal Mechanism (CPM) is a hybrid election/auction. Each voter declares a monetary 'price' for each candidate (which we interpret as 'utility'). If a candidate wins by only a small margin, the voter might have to *pay* this price, in the form of a 'Clarke tax'.

Even if we can identify the 'Will of the People' (e.g. via a social choice function), how can we measure it, without being misled by strategic voting?

For example: suppose we implement Bentham's Utilitarianism by asking each voter to assign a 'utility' to each candidate. Then each voter will exaggerate her preferences (e.g. *overstate* the utility of her favourite candidates, and *understate* the utility of her least prefered candidates).

Each voting system is like a 'game', and sometimes a voter's best 'strategy' is to be dishonest. We want to design a 'voting game' where each voter's best strategy is always to be honest. This is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called mechanism design.

For example, the Clarke Pivotal Mechanism (CPM) is a hybrid election/auction. Each voter declares a monetary 'price' for each candidate (which we interpret as 'utility'). If a candidate wins by only a small margin, the voter might have to *pay* this price, in the form of a 'Clarke tax'.

Thus, it is *never* optimal to exaggerate her preferences in the CPM (you can mathematically prove this, if you assume each voter is 'risk neutral').

Even if we can identify the 'Will of the People' (e.g. via a social choice function), how can we measure it, without being misled by strategic voting?

For example: suppose we implement Bentham's Utilitarianism by asking each voter to assign a 'utility' to each candidate. Then each voter will exaggerate her preferences (e.g. *overstate* the utility of her favourite candidates, and *understate* the utility of her least prefered candidates).

Each voting system is like a 'game', and sometimes a voter's best 'strategy' is to be dishonest. We want to design a 'voting game' where each voter's best strategy is always to be honest. This is the subject of a branch of mathematical economics called mechanism design.

For example, the Clarke Pivotal Mechanism (CPM) is a hybrid election/auction. Each voter declares a monetary 'price' for each candidate (which we interpret as 'utility'). If a candidate wins by only a small margin, the voter might have to *pay* this price, in the form of a 'Clarke tax'.

Thus, it is *never* optimal to exaggerate her preferences in the CPM (you can mathematically prove this, if you assume each voter is 'risk neutral'). Problem: People *aren't* 'risk neutral'. Also, CPM favours rich voters.

Sac

Some other topics we haven't even touched upon:

May's Theorem says that, if there are only two candidates, then simple Majority Vote really is the 'best' way to aggregate preferences.

Sac

Some other topics we haven't even touched upon:

May's Theorem says that, if there are only two candidates, then simple Majority Vote really is the 'best' way to aggregate preferences.

Condorcet's Jury Theorem says, under certain conditions, that Majority Vote is highly likely to correctly answer objective factual questions.

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Some other topics we haven't even touched upon:

May's Theorem says that, if there are only two candidates, then simple Majority Vote really is the 'best' way to aggregate preferences.

Condorcet's Jury Theorem says, under certain conditions, that Majority Vote is highly likely to correctly answer objective factual questions.

Weighted voting is clearly present in shareholder meetings. Surprisingly, it also 'hides' inside many systems with vetos or multiple quota criteria.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Some other topics we haven't even touched upon:

May's Theorem says that, if there are only two candidates, then simple Majority Vote really is the 'best' way to aggregate preferences.

Condorcet's Jury Theorem says, under certain conditions, that Majority Vote is highly likely to correctly answer objective factual questions.

Weighted voting is clearly present in shareholder meetings. Surprisingly, it also 'hides' inside many systems with vetos or multiple quota criteria.

Other forms of collective decision making include *bargaining*, *arbitration*, *fair division* (i.e. 'cake cutting'), *auctions*, and *cooperative games*. Each of these has a rich mathematical theory.

Some other topics we haven't even touched upon:

May's Theorem says that, if there are only two candidates, then simple Majority Vote really is the 'best' way to aggregate preferences.

Condorcet's Jury Theorem says, under certain conditions, that Majority Vote is highly likely to correctly answer objective factual questions.

Weighted voting is clearly present in shareholder meetings. Surprisingly, it also 'hides' inside many systems with vetos or multiple quota criteria.

Other forms of collective decision making include *bargaining*, *arbitration*, *fair division* (i.e. 'cake cutting'), *auctions*, and *cooperative games*. Each of these has a rich mathematical theory.

Public choice theory applies methods of economics to political science; e.g. the role of campaign finance in elections and policy formation; the corruption of legislators and bureaucrats by special interests, etc. Democracy is more complicated than you think.

Democracy is more complicated than you think.

The commonly used 'plurality vote' often produces outcomes that are incoherent, counterintuitive, unfair, or just plain wrong.

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Democracy is more complicated than you think.

The commonly used 'plurality vote' often produces outcomes that are incoherent, counterintuitive, unfair, or just plain wrong.

It exhibits 'voting paradoxes', it encourages 'strategic voting', and it can unleash political instability through 'Condorcet cycles'.

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Democracy is more complicated than you think.

The commonly used 'plurality vote' often produces outcomes that are incoherent, counterintuitive, unfair, or just plain wrong.

It exhibits 'voting paradoxes', it encourages 'strategic voting', and it can unleash political instability through 'Condorcet cycles'.

Howevever, so does almost any other voting system.

We can never eliminate these pathologies. Instead, we must find voting systems which minimize their frequency and severity.

Democracy is more complicated than you think.

The commonly used 'plurality vote' often produces outcomes that are incoherent, counterintuitive, unfair, or just plain wrong.

It exhibits 'voting paradoxes', it encourages 'strategic voting', and it can unleash political instability through 'Condorcet cycles'.

Howevever, so does almost any other voting system.

We can never eliminate these pathologies. Instead, we must find voting systems which minimize their frequency and severity.

Distrust ideologues who say 'more democracy' is the solution to every political problem.

Democracy is more complicated than you think.

The commonly used 'plurality vote' often produces outcomes that are incoherent, counterintuitive, unfair, or just plain wrong.

It exhibits 'voting paradoxes', it encourages 'strategic voting', and it can unleash political instability through 'Condorcet cycles'.

Howevever, so does almost any other voting system.

We can never eliminate these pathologies. Instead, we must find voting systems which minimize their frequency and severity.

Distrust ideologues who say 'more democracy' is the solution to every political problem.

Distrust politicians and pundits who cite the 'Will of the People' as if such a thing could be ascertained through an simple election.

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Democracy is more complicated than you think.

The commonly used 'plurality vote' often produces outcomes that are incoherent, counterintuitive, unfair, or just plain wrong.

It exhibits 'voting paradoxes', it encourages 'strategic voting', and it can unleash political instability through 'Condorcet cycles'.

Howevever, so does almost any other voting system.

We can never eliminate these pathologies. Instead, we must find voting systems which minimize their frequency and severity.

Distrust ideologues who say 'more democracy' is the solution to every political problem.

Distrust politicians and pundits who cite the 'Will of the People' as if such a thing could be ascertained through an simple election.

< ロ > < 回 > < 言 > < 言 > 三 の < で

There are no simple solutions to these problems.

But mathematical analysis can help us to identify and mitigate them.

All slides for this lecture are available at http://xaravve.trentu.ca/voting.pdf

Further Reading Basic Voting Theory (general audience)

- William Poundstone Gaming the vote: Why elections aren't fair (and what we can do about it). Hill & Wang, New York, 2008. 338 pages. ISBN:978-0-8090-4893-9
- Ya-Ping Yee's colour 'visualizations' of various voting methods: http://zesty.ca/voting/sim/
- Electorama website: http://wiki.electorama.com/wiki/Main_Page
- Basic Voting Theory (middle school level)
 - Saari, Donald G. Chaotic elections! A mathematician looks at voting. American Mathematical Society, Providence, RI, 2001. 159 pages. ISBN: 0-8218-2847-991-01

- ロ > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 4 目 > - 9 9 9 9

Nurmi, Hannu. Voting paradoxes and how to deal with them. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1999. 153 pages. ISBN: 3-540-66236-791B12

Voting Theory (highschool or intro college level)
Further Reading II

- Taylor, Alan D. Mathematics and politics. Strategy, voting, power and proof. Springer-Verlag, New York, 1995. 284 pages. ISBN: 0-387-94500-8
- Hodge, Jonathan K. and Klima, Richard E. The mathematics of voting and elections: a hands-on approach. American Mathematical Society, Providence, RI, 2005. 226 pages. ISBN: 0-8218-3798-2
- Riker, William H. Liberalism against Populism, Waveland Press, Prospect Heights, IL, 1982. 311 pages. ISBN: 0-88133-367-0.

Advanced Voting Theory

 Saari, Donald G. Geometry of voting. Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1994. 372 pages. ISBN: 3-540-57199-X

Social Choice Theory

Moulin, Hervé. Axioms of cooperative decision making. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, U.K. 1988. 332 pages. ISBN: 0-521-36055-2

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Roemer, John E. Theories of Distributive Justice. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA. 1996, 342 pages. ISBN: 0-674-87920-1

Special Topics

Approval Voting.

- Steven J. Brams and Peter C. Fishburn *Approval voting* (2nd edition). Springer-Verlag, 2007. 198 pages. ISBN: 978-387-49895-9.
- Citizens for Approval Voting: http://www.approvalvoting.org
- Americans for Approval Voting: http://www.approvalvoting.com

Range Voting. (a.k.a. 'relative utilitarianism')

Centre for Range Voting website: http://rangevoting.org/

Proportional Representation v.s. Single Transferable Vote.

- FairVote: http://www.fairvote.org
- Electoral Reform Society http://www.electoral-reform.org.uk

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Full Table of Contents I

Introduction

Elections An election gone wrong... Splitting the opposition A run-off election An agenda of pairwise votes Instant Runoff Vote for 2, vote for 3 Borda Count Positional Voting Systems Which is fairest?

Borda vs. Condorcet

Jean Charles de Borda Condorcet's Criterion Condorcet's Paradox: Definition; Condorcet Cycles Agenda Manipulation Political Instability & Condorcet Spirals

= √Q(~

Irrelevant Alternatives

Borda fails Condorcet Criterion

Full Table of Contents II

Plurality vote and 'spoiler' candidates Collective Irrationality Electioneering

Arrovian Voting Theory

Definition: Preference ordering, Profile Definition: Ordinal Voting Procedure The Axiom of Unanimity Axiom: Independency of Irrelevant Alternatives Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

Digression: What is mathematics?

What's a theorem? Proof of Pythagoras Theorem

Proof of Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

Setup: Defeating thresholds Neutrality Monotonicity Condorcet Property Conclusion: Reduction to Condorcet Paradox Questions and Extensions

(ロ) (同) (三) (三) (三) (0) (0)

Non-ordinal systems

Full Table of Contents III

Approval voting Cumulative Voting Relative Utilitarianism

Strategic voting

Plurality vote Gibbard-Satterthwaite Theorem Saari: Borda Count is least susceptible

Voting Paradoxes

Representative Democracy Regional Representation Single-Party Domination Referendum Paradox Ostrogorski's Paradox Anscombe's Paradox

Voting Power Indices

Some animals are more equal than others. Being Pivotal The Shapley-Shubik Index Power in coalition governments Other applications

(ロ) (月) (三) (三) (三) (0)

Full Table of Contents IV

Concluding Remarks

Riker: Liberalism vs. Populism Social Choice Functions Social Welfare Functions Mechanism Design Other topics Conclusion

(ㅁ) (귀) (흔) (흔)

Further Reading