

Elections with information frictions and distributive uncertainty ^{*}

Carl Heese [†]

January 23, 2022

Abstract

This paper studies binary majority elections with information frictions. Voters can acquire private information about policy consequences before the election and this requires costly effort. Voters have heterogeneous, private prior beliefs, state-dependent preferences, and information cost. We show that information frictions alter the power relations between opposed political interests by turning the election into a contest-like process: There is an equilibrium in which the policy preferred by the interest group with the higher aggregate information acquisition effort is elected. In this equilibrium, outcomes represent voters with a minority interest if they have comparably high utilities at stake. In this setting, with exogenous information, outcomes are full-information equivalent (Bhattacharya, 2013). We also provide novel results for common interest voting: the Condorcet Jury Theorem does not hold when the voters' information is endogenous.

In many collective choices, there are information frictions. It is costly to pay attention to, filter, and process all the relevant information. In particular, when policies have distributive consequences and there is uncertainty about who benefits and loses, voters oftentimes engage in effortful activities in order to become better informed, cast an informed ballot, and thereby advance their interests. For

^{*}I am grateful for helpful discussions with Nageeb Ali, Johannes Hörner, Daniel Krähmer, Stephan Lauermaann, Philipp Strack, Karl Schlag, and Thomas Tröger as well as comments from audiences at Bonn, Yale, the CRC TR 224 Conferences 2018 and 2019, CED 2019, SAET 2019, Stony Brook 2019, CMID 20, the World Congress of the Econometric Society 2020, the Young Economist Symposium 2020, and the World Congress of the Game Theory Society 2021. The author gratefully acknowledges financial support from the German Research Foundation (DFG) through CRC TR224 (Project B03) and financial support from the European Research Council (ERC 638115).

[†]University of Vienna, Department of Economics, carl.heese@univie.ac.at

example, in general elections, millions watch the presidential debates and make use of information websites that provide information about the candidates' positions.¹ Members of administrative committees—legislative committees, hiring committees—invest substantial time and effort to evaluate policy positions and candidates.

This paper asks if and how such information frictions and informational efforts affect whose interests find representation through the collective choice. Our focus is on simple majority elections.

Our baseline model modifies the canonical voting setting by Feddersen and Pesendorfer (1997) to include information frictions. We follow the standard approach to modeling information frictions, as in Martinelli (2006). There is a simple majority election with two policies, A and B . Before the election, voters choose the precision of a private, binary signal about a pay-off relevant state, α or β . An uninformative signal is costless and a more precise signal is more costly. Voter types may differ in their state-dependent preferences in a general way. In the leading scenario, in expectation, a majority of the voters prefers A only in α , and a minority prefers A only in β . That is, there are two *interest groups* which favor opposite policies. The types and signals are drawn independently across voters and are each voter's private information.

The seminal finding in the setting of Feddersen and Pesendorfer (1997) without information frictions is that the outcome in *all* equilibria of a large election is “as if” the state is known. Feddersen and Pesendorfer (1997) and later Bhattacharya (2013) have shown this full-information equivalence result for the broad class of “monotone preferences” and when citizens receive *exogenous* noisy information about the state in the form of conditionally i.i.d. signals. Full-information equivalence means that majority-preferred outcomes are elected state-by-state.

The main insight of this paper is that information frictions alter the power relations between political interests fundamentally, by turning the election into a contest-like process. Precisely, in a large election, there is a “tug-of-war”-equilibrium in which the policy preferred by the interest group with the higher aggregate precision is elected. The equilibrium is robust. It exists for all prior beliefs. This result may be surprising: One may think that a group of voters with a majority interest could always exert its dominance since the one-person-one-vote

¹Popular sites from the 2020 US elections include <https://www.isidewith.com/elections/> and <https://2020election.procon.org/2020-election-quiz.php>. An example from Europe (Germany) is <https://www.bpb.de/politik/wahlen/wahl-o-mat/>.

principle grants them more formal voting power (and there are no voting cost). One feature that matters for the result is that there is distributive uncertainty. The majority voters are uncertain about which policy benefits them. Without distributive uncertainty, they would coordinate perfectly on voting for the policy that benefits them and enforce this policy as outcome.

The contest-like structure of the equilibrium yields several insights about *how* information frictions shape the power relations between opposed political interests. We develop these insights within the baseline model and within a generalized version that allows for heterogeneity in the prior beliefs and information cost (Section 6). First, power shifts into the direction of the voters with high preference intensities. Outcomes represent the interests of a minority of the voters in all states if they have comparably high intensities. This speaks to the concern that majority elections may not be able to reflect preference intensities and may always lead to majority-preferred outcomes, even when this would entail large welfare losses. Several other streams of the literature have provided complementary arguments for how elections may be able to reflect intensities; see, e.g., the literature on turnout and voting cost (see, e.g., Ledyard, 1984; Palfrey and Rosenthal, 1985; Krishna and Morgan, 2011, 2015).² Second, the information frictions shift power into the direction of the voters with comparably low information cost. If voters of an interest group face sufficiently low cost, *ceteris paribus*, the group’s preferred policy is elected in the tug-of-war equilibrium. In light of the applications, this shows that there are “insider advantages” in collective decisions of committee and that information websites in general elections may play a crucial role in “leveling the playing field”. Third, for a class of type distributions, we illustrate that information frictions shift power into the direction of the interest group with more homogeneous prior beliefs. If voters of an interest group have sufficiently dispersed prior beliefs, *ceteris paribus*, the group’s preferred policy is not elected. This result matches the intuition that political groups with (more) internal conflicts of opinion are less powerful. All these insights are implications of a deeper structural result that characterizes which interest group dominates the informational contest: We provide an explicit formula for the ratio of the aggregate precision of the minority and majority types as the electorate grows large, in terms of primitives.

The second main insight of this paper is that the information frictions create strategic complementarities. The complementarities act in a way, so that there

²See also the literature on public good provision. For example, Ledyard and Palfrey (2002) show that public good provision through simple majority voting schemes is approximately utilitarian efficient when there are many agents.

are three equilibria, ordered by the aggregate precision (or “effort”) of the voter types.³ The tug-of-war equilibrium is effort-maximal. While it is well-known that the possibility to “free-ride” on others reduces the incentives of the voters to acquire costly information, the observation of complementarities is novel. What matters is that how severely the incentives are impacted by the free-riding motive depends on the voters’ expectations about the closeness of the election. The closer the voters expect the election to be, the more likely they believe their individual votes to affect the outcome. Then, information about policy consequences is more valuable to the voters. Critically, when the other citizens acquire information and vote in an informed manner, this may change a voter’s belief about the closeness of the election. We describe how this may spur the information acquisition of the given voter. That is, information acquisition can be complementary.

We characterize all equilibria of large elections. In the low and medium effort equilibrium, outcomes are less strongly shaped by the competitive forces. In the low effort equilibrium, outcomes are given by the prior beliefs and are “as if” information cost would be infinite. In the medium effort equilibrium, outcomes depend both on the prior beliefs and on which interest group’s voters acquire a higher precision, in the aggregate.

The paper is related to two bodies of work. First, the paper relates to the literature on information aggregation in elections. This literature has shown that elections effectively aggregate *exogenous* information that is dispersed among many voters, so that outcomes in all equilibria are “as if” there is no uncertainty about the state (Austen-Smith and Banks, 1996; Feddersen and Pesendorfer, 1997).⁴ Our analysis provides a crisp comparison by modifying a setting as in Bhattacharya (2013), in which information aggregates, to account for the voters’ information being endogenous.⁵ We show that information fails in the low and medium effort equilibrium and that it can even fail in all equilibria. The previous literature has identified other reasons for a failure of information aggregation, which are not present in our model.⁶

³We use the terms “precision” and “effort” interchangeably.

⁴See also Myerson (1998), Wit (1998), and Duggan and Martinelli (2001).

⁵To be precise, Bhattacharya (2013) shows that a sufficient and necessary condition for information aggregation is that preferences are “monotone”. See also Acharya (2016) and Bhattacharya (2018). We maintain the appropriate monotonicity conditions for all results. We discuss the effect of non-monotonicities in our setting in Section 6.

⁶Several failures due to an “invertibility problem” have been observed in settings in which the effective state is multi-dimensional (Feddersen and Pesendorfer, 1997; Mandler, 2012; Barelli *et al.*, 2017). Other mechanisms that lead to a failure are signalling motives (Razin, 2003), policy uncertainty (Gul and Pesendorfer, 2009), divided majorities (Bouton and Castanheira,

In situations of common interest, information aggregation means that outcomes are utilitarian efficient. An open question is if this efficiency result—widely known as the “Condorcet Jury Theorem”—also holds when the voters’ information is endogenous. Previous work on this question has studied subcases of our model and found that information aggregates (Martinelli, 2006; Oliveros, 2013).⁷ The analysis in these papers assumes symmetry conditions for the distribution of voter types. In this paper, we analyze the question for all voter type distributions—possibly asymmetric. We show that the Condorcet Jury Theorem does not hold. The low and medium effort equilibrium are inefficient and exist for almost all type distributions. This shows that the symmetry conditions employed by the previous work are not innocuous.

The paper also makes a technical contribution. Handling the small pivot probabilities that arise in large elections is a significant challenge when information is endogenous—as standard techniques do not apply. In the mentioned previous work, the symmetry conditions make the analysis of equilibrium outcomes tractable. Instead of relying on symmetry conditions, we get a handle on the pivot probabilities through the local central limit theorem (Gnedenko, 1948). Besides, we develop a suite of techniques to deal effectively with the multidimensional types (priors, state-dependent utilities, cost).

Second, the paper contributes to the understanding of the competition between opposed political interests. Previous work has analyzed a large variety of factors and forms of competition, see, e.g., the review in Grossman and Helpman (2001). Our results uncover—potentially surprising—parallels between costly information acquisition on the one hand and costly participation (Palfrey and Rosenthal, 1985; Krishna and Morgan, 2011, 2015) and vote-buying (Lalley and Weyl, 2018; Eguia and Xefteris, 2018) on the other hand. A priori, these economic forces seem not alike at all. In the mentioned settings, opposing groups compete in costly actions to advance their interests. There is an *exogenous* mapping from action profiles to outcomes that renders the competition a contest: the group with the higher aggregate action wins—or is at least more likely to win. Models with a similar flavour appear in the literature on lobbying and similar applications, (see, e.g., Dixit *et al.*, 1997; Kang, 2016). In our model, the cost of information acquisition

2012), and adverse selection problems (Ali *et al.*, 2018). A recent stream of literature considers “extended” election games in which biased third-parties inflict the failure (Bond and Eraslan, 2010; Ekmekci and Lauermaann, 2020; Heese and Lauermaann, 2017).

⁷Precisely, see Theorem 6 in Martinelli (2006) and Proposition 5 in Oliveros (2013). Information aggregation has also been established in similar models. See, e.g., Theorem 3 in Martinelli (2007) and Theorem 3 in Triossi (2013).

endogenously turn the election into a contest-like process: The interest group with the higher aggregate precision wins in the tug-of-war equilibrium. In our setting, existence of this equilibrium may be surprising. In particular, since the voters who do not acquire costly information seem not to matter for outcomes—although they also vote.

This paper is one of the first to study how the competition between political interest channels through information acquisition efforts. Complementary to our paper is work from the literature on electoral competition. There the question is, how the electoral competition between politicians is affected by the voters’ limited attention to politics (Matějka and Tabellini, 2021; Yuksel, 2021).⁸ In contrast, we focus on the competition between interest groups of voters. Our analysis is driven by the strategic interdependencies of the voter behaviour and the large heterogeneity of voters, including differences in prior beliefs and cost. These features are not present in the electoral competition models. In Section 6, we discuss a central result from this literature and explain how predictions differ in our model.

2 Example

There are $2n + 1 \geq 3$ voters (or citizens). With probability $1 > \lambda > \frac{1}{2}$, a voter is *aligned* and prefers a reform A over the status quo B in α and B over A in β . With probability $1 - \lambda$, a voter is *contrarian* and prefers A in β and B in α .

Aligned and contrarian voters are of three types: an “unbiased” type, a “reform leaning” type, and a “reform skeptical” type. These types differ in their willingness to pay for being able to change the outcome in a given state. The unbiased types have a willingness to pay of $2k_g$ to change the outcome in any state. The reform-leaning are willing to pay more to change the outcome in the state when they prefer the reform ($3k_g$), and less in the other state (k_g). Conversely, the reform-skeptical are willing to pay less to change the outcome in the state when they prefer the reform (k_g), and more in the other state ($3k_g$). Conditional on being an aligned type, each voter is equally likely to be a reform-leaning or reform-skeptical. The same holds for the contrarian types. The voters hold a common, uniform prior about the state. Each voter receives a private, binary signal $s \in \{a, b\}$ about the state. Types are denoted by t and drawn from a commonly known distribution

⁸See also the work in Grossman and Helpman (2001) on how differential *exogenous* knowledge of citizens affects policy choices.

H , independently across voters and independently of the signals.

The timing is as follows: each voter chooses the precision $x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$ of her signal, that is $\frac{1}{2} + x = \Pr(a|\alpha) = \Pr(b|\beta)$. When choosing precision x , the voter bears a cost $c(x) = \frac{x^d}{d}$, with $d > 1$ so that $c'(0) = 0$. The state and private signals realize. After observing the private signals, all citizens vote simultaneously. Finally, the outcome is decided by simple majority rule.

The setup is deliberately symmetric across types and states. Hence, it is immediate to show that there are strategy profiles in which the outcomes are symmetric across states. In particular, given such a symmetric profile, the probability that a given citizen's vote affects the election outcome has the same likelihood in both states.⁹ So, if a type votes A , she expects to tip the election outcome from B to A with the same probability in both states. Doing so benefits her in one state and comes with a utility loss in the other. Similarly, voting B tips the election outcome from A to B with the same probability in both states. In one state, the type gains from tipping the outcome from B to A , and in the other she loses from it. What matters for the voter's decision is the utility (willingness to pay) she attaches to these two events.

The following illustrates two points that will be also be central in the later analysis of the general model. First, each interest group faces internal conflicts of opinion; different types of the same interest group vote for opposed policies. Second, how strongly the voters of a group coordinate on voting the their preferred policy is determined by their informational efforts. This renders the election an “informational contest”.

Conflicts of opinion. Take, for example, the aligned. For the skepticals, the utility gain from tipping the outcome from the reform A to the status quo B in β is higher than the utility loss from doing so in α . The skepticals thus strictly prefer to vote for the status quo without additional information about the state. Analogously, the reform-leaning strictly prefer to vote for the reform without additional information. Any signal that could turn around these types' strict preference would have to have a sufficiently high precision $x > \bar{x}$ for some $\bar{x} > 0$. When the electorate size $2n + 1$ is large, the benefit from more information is small because a single citizen expects that her vote affects the outcome only with a probability close to zero. So, benefits do not outweigh the cost of a precision $x > \bar{x}$. Any in-

⁹A single citizen's vote is decisive for the election outcome only in the event in which the votes of the other citizens split into n votes for A and n votes for B .

formative signal with a smaller precision does not affect the type's voting decision, hence, is not worth the cost either. The reform-leaning and reform-skeptical types choose to receive an uninformative signal, that is, $x = 0$. Since the reform-leaning and reform-skeptical types are equally likely, their votes split 50–50 between both policies in expectation, effectively canceling out each other.

Coordination through information. In contrast to the other types, for an unbiased type t , it will be optimal to choose a non-zero precision $x(t) > 0$. Essentially, this is because they are indifferent without further information about the state, given the symmetric prior and the symmetry of their willingness to pay across states.¹⁰ So, an unbiased type t receives the “correct” signal with probability $\frac{1}{2} + x(t)$ and follows it, voting for the preferred policy with probability $\frac{1}{2} + x(t)$ in each state.

Aggregating the behaviour of all aligned and contrarian types, in each state, the expected vote shares of A and B differ by

$$\int_{t \text{ aligned}} x(t) dH(t) - \int_{t \text{ contrarian}} x(t) dH(t) \quad (1)$$

where $x(t)$ is the optimal precision chosen by a type t . Thus, the policy that is preferred by the interest group with the higher aggregate precision receives more votes in expectation.

The endogenous precision choices vary with the preferences intensities and information cost. Figure 1 illustrates how varying these parameters translates into equilibrium outcomes. For the other parameters, we make a fixed choice.¹¹ Going down the rows, the intensity k_C of the contrarians increases, and so does the likelihood of their preferred policy being elected. Comparing the column for $d = 2$ and for $d = 3$, we see that the contrarians dominate the election with high intensities $k_C = 4$ when $d = 2$, but not when $d = 3$. This illustrates how intensities matter more when information is less “cheap”—as measured by the cost elasticity d .¹²

¹⁰Formally, given the indifference, the benefit of choosing a precision x is linear in x . Hence, for sufficiently small precision levels x , the marginal benefit outweighs the marginal cost $c'(x) \approx 0$.

¹¹There is a unique (non-trivial) Bayes-Nash equilibrium in this example. This has to do with the symmetry between the reform-leaning and reform-skeptical types. Generically, there are multiple equilibria given the relevant conditions on the cost function.

¹²Here, for $k_C > 2$, the contrarian types acquire full information, which explains why outcomes are the same for $k_C = 3$ and $k_C = 4$.

| k_C | $d = 2$ | $d = 3$ |
|-------|---------|---------|
| 0 | 0.79 | 0.94 |
| 1 | 0.65 | 0.86 |
| 2 | 0.5 | 0.77 |
| 3 | 0.35 | 0.75 |
| 4 | 0.21 | 0.75 |

Figure 1: The table shows the likelihood of outcome A in α and B in β in equilibrium for different cost elasticities d and intensities k_C . We fix $2n + 1 = 31$, $k_L = 1$, $\lambda = \frac{1}{3}$, and the likelihood of the unbiased type to be 1 for both the aligned and contrarians.

3 Model

The model generalizes the example from Section 2 by allowing for general type distributions. Besides that, the voting game is as in the example.

A voter type $t = (v, r, t_\alpha, t_\beta)$ is given by a prior belief, specifying the subjective likelihood $q \in (0, 1)$ of the state being α is, a cost type $r > 0$, and a preference type (t_α, t_β) , where $t_\omega \in \mathbb{R}$ is the utility of A in ω . The utility of B is normalized to zero, so that t_ω is the difference between the utilities of A and B in ω . The types are identically distributed across voters according to a commonly known cumulative distribution function $H : [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, 1]$. A voter's type is her private information.

A strategy $\sigma = (x, \mu)$ of a voter consists of a function $x : [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow [0, \frac{1}{2}]$ mapping types to signal precisions and of a function $\mu : [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}_{>0} \times \mathbb{R}^2 \times \{a, b\} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ mapping types and signals to probabilities to vote A , that is, $\mu(t, s)$ is the probability that a voter of type t with signal s votes for A . We only consider non-degenerate strategies.¹³ We analyze the Bayes-Nash equilibria of the Bayesian game of voters in symmetric strategies, henceforth called *equilibria*.

When choosing precision x , a voter with cost type r bears a cost $c(x) = \frac{r}{d}x^d$ for some $d > 0$. The cost type captures idiosyncratic differences. The parameter d is the common elasticity of the cost function. We think of the elasticity of the

¹³A strategy σ is *degenerate* if $\mu(t, s) = 1$ for all (t, s) or if $\mu(t, s) = 0$ for all (s, t) . When all voters follow the same degenerate strategy and there are at least three voters, if one voter deviates to any other strategy, then the outcome is the same. Therefore, the degenerate strategies with $x(t) = 0$ for all t are trivial equilibria.

cost function as varying the regime of how costly information is (up to idiosyncratic differences captured by r), where a higher d means that information of low precision is “cheaper”.¹⁴

4 Baseline setting

For the main part of the analysis, we consider the setting in which all citizens share a common prior belief type $v = \Pr(\alpha) \in (0, 1)$ and a common cost type $r = 1$. This isolates the effect of heterogeneity in preference intensities, making results particularly comparable to existing work. In Section 6, we turn to the general setting.

Preference types. Slightly abusing the notation, we denote by H the distribution of (t_α, t_β) . We assume in the following that H has a continuous density on its support. The support is the Cartesian product of $K_\alpha \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $K_\beta \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, which are connected, compact and have non-empty interior. Figure 2 shows the area of the possible preference types. Voters having types t in the north-east quadrant prefer A for all beliefs and voters having types t in the south-west quadrant always prefer B (*partisans*). Voters having types t in the south-east quadrant prefer A in state α and B in β (*aligned voters*), and voters having types t in the north-west quadrant prefer B in state α and A in β (*contrarian voters*). We assume that $(0, 0)$ is in the interior of the support. This ensures that there are two interest groups. All of the analysis also goes through when all voters share common interests, that is, $K_\alpha \times K_\beta \subseteq \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}^2$.

To simplify the exposition, in the rest of the paper, we only consider strategies σ where the partisans use the (weakly) dominant strategy to vote for their preferred policy.¹⁵

Monotone preferences. A central object of the analysis is the *aggregate preference function*

$$\Psi(p) = \Pr_H(\{t : p \cdot t_\alpha + (1 - p) \cdot t_\beta \geq 0\}), \quad (2)$$

¹⁴For illustration, take e.g. $c_d(x) = x^d$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{c_d(x)}{c_{d'}(x)} = \infty$ if $d' > d$.

¹⁵In fact, for any non-degenerate strategy, the likelihood of the pivotal event is non-zero (see Section 4.1.1) such that not acquiring any information and voting for the preferred policy is the unique best response for all partisans.

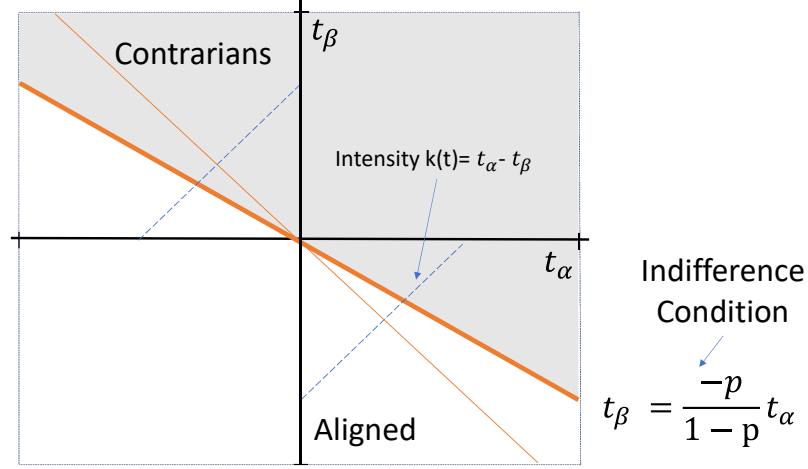


Figure 2: For any given belief $p = \Pr(\alpha) \in (0, 1)$, the set of types t that are indifferent given p is given by $t_\beta = \frac{-p}{1-p} t_\alpha$. Voter types north-east of the indifference line (shaded area) prefer A given p . Contrarian and aligned types are uniquely identified by their *(total) intensity* $k(t) = |t_\alpha - t_\beta|$ (dashed lines) and their *threshold of doubt* $y(t) = \frac{-t_\beta}{t_\alpha - t_\beta}$ (straight lines).

which maps a belief $p \in [0, 1]$ about the state to the probability that a random type t prefers A given p . Figure 2 illustrates Ψ . The (bold straight) line corresponds to the set of types $t = (t_\alpha, t_\beta)$ that are indifferent between policy A and policy B when holding the belief p . Voters having types to the north-east prefer A given p (shaded area); these types have mass $\Psi(p)$. The indifference set has a slope of $\frac{-p}{1-p}$ and an increase in p corresponds to a clockwise rotation of it. Given that H has a continuous density, Ψ is continuously differentiable in p .

We assume that

$$\Psi(0) < \frac{1}{2}, \text{ and } \Psi(1) > \frac{1}{2} \quad (3)$$

such that the median-voter preferred outcome is A in α and B in β . In particular, this excludes the (trivial) cases when there is a majority of partisans for one policy in expectation. We also assume that Ψ is strictly monotone.¹⁶ The non-monotone case is discussed in Section 6. Henceforth, I will call distributions H for which Ψ

¹⁶The monotone case is the case for which the literature has established that equilibrium outcomes are full-information equivalent when information of the citizens is exogenous and conditionally i.i.d. (see Bhattacharya, 2013).

satisfies (3) and is strictly increasing *monotone* preference distributions. The set of the aligned types is $L = \{t : t_\alpha > 0, t_\beta < 0\}$ and the set of the contrarian types is $C = \{t : t_\alpha < 0, t_\beta > 0\}$. Throughout, I use $g \in \{L, C\}$ as the generic symbol for a voter group, aligned or contrarians.

Threshold of doubt and total intensity. For the aligned and contrarians, it is useful to view types as information about, first, the relative preference intensities across states,

$$y(t) = \frac{-t_\beta}{t_\alpha - t_\beta}, \quad (4)$$

and, second, the *total intensity*,

$$k(t) = |t_\alpha - t_\beta|. \quad (5)$$

We call $y(t)$ the *threshold of doubt*. As Figure 2 illustrates, for any aligned type t , $y(t)$ and $k(t)$ together uniquely pin down t . Formally, $-y(t)k(t) = t_\beta$, and $(1 - y(t))k(t) = t_\alpha$. Similarly, for any contrarian type t , $y(t)$ and $k(t)$ together uniquely pin down t .

4.1 Best response

4.1.1 Threshold of doubt pins down vote

Take any strategy $\sigma = (x, \mu)$ of the voters. The probability that a voter of random type votes for A in state $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$ is denoted $q(\omega; \sigma)$. A simple calculation shows that

$$q(\alpha; \sigma) = \int_{t \in K_\alpha \times K_\beta} \left(\frac{1}{2} + x(t)\right) \mu(t, a) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - x(t)\right) \mu(t, b) dHt,$$

and

$$q(\beta; \sigma) = \int_{t \in K_\alpha \times K_\beta} \left(\frac{1}{2} - x(t)\right) \mu(t, a) + \left(\frac{1}{2} + x(t)\right) \mu(t, b) dHt.$$

I also refer to $q(\omega; \sigma)$ as the (*expected*) *vote share* of A in ω .

Pivotal voting. Take a single citizen, and fix a strategy σ' of the other voters. The given citizen's vote determines the outcome only in the event when the votes of the other citizens tie, denoted *piv*. Thus, a strategy is optimal if and only if it is optimal conditional on the pivotal event *piv*. The probability that the votes of the other citizens tie in ω is

$$\Pr(\text{piv}|\omega; \sigma', n) = \binom{2n}{n} (q(\omega; \sigma'))^n (1 - q(\omega'; \sigma))^n. \quad (6)$$

since conditional on the state, the type and the signal of any voter is independent of the types and the signals of the other voters. For any type t of the given citizen, and given the precision choice $x(t)$, let $\Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n)$ be the posterior probability of α conditional on having received the private signal s and conditional on *being pivotal* when the other voters use σ' . We conclude that, μ is part of a best response $\sigma = (x, \mu)$ if and only if for all $t = (t_\alpha, t_\beta)$ and for the signal precision $x(t)$,

$$\Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n) \cdot t_\alpha + (1 - \Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n)) \cdot t_\beta > 0 \Rightarrow \mu(s, t) = 1, \quad (7)$$

$$\Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n) \cdot t_\alpha + (1 - \Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n)) \cdot t_\beta < 0 \Rightarrow \mu(s, t) = 0. \quad (8)$$

That is, a voter supports A if the expected value of A conditional on being pivotal and s is strictly positive and otherwise supports B . Note that for each aligned type $t \in L$, (7) and (8) are equivalent to

$$\Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n) > y(t) \Rightarrow \mu(t, s) = 1, \quad (9)$$

$$\Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n) < y(t) \Rightarrow \mu(t, s) = 0. \quad (10)$$

For all contrarian types $t \in C$, (7) and (8) are equivalent to

$$\Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n) > y(t) \Rightarrow \mu(t, s) = 0, \quad (11)$$

$$\Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n) < y(t) \Rightarrow \mu(t, s) = 1. \quad (12)$$

We see that $y(t)$ is the unique belief that a makes a voter of type t indifferent, thereby qualifying the name threshold of doubt.

4.1.2 Total intensity pins down signal precision

What is the marginal value of information to a citizen? Take an aligned voter, and fix the likelihood $x > 0$ of her receiving a “correct” signal about the state. At the end of this section, we establish that she votes A after a and B after b (Lemma 1), that is, she votes for her preferred policy in each state whenever receiving a “correct” signal. When she is not pivotal, the policy elected is independent of her vote. In the pivotal event, when she chooses precision x , her expected utility from the elected policy is

$$\Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma', n) \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma) \left(\frac{1}{2} + x\right) t_\alpha \quad (13)$$

in state α , and

$$\Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma', n) \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}; \sigma) \left(\frac{1}{2} - x\right) t_\beta \quad (14)$$

in state β . Here, we used Lemma 1 and that the utility from B is normalized to zero.¹⁷ Therefore, summing (13) and (14) and taking the derivative, the marginal benefit of a higher precision x is

$$\begin{aligned} & MB[\sigma', n] \\ &= \Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma', n) (\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma) t_\alpha - \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}; \sigma) t_\beta) \\ &= \Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma', n) k(t) e(y(t)) \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

for $e(y(t)) = \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma)(1 - y(t)) + \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}; \sigma)y(t)$. Here, we used that $t_\alpha = k(t)(1 - y(t))$ and $t_\beta = k(t)y(t)$ for the last equation. We see that the total intensity $k(t)$ is decisive. Finally, for any type t for which it is optimal to acquire some information, the precision is pinned down by equating marginal benefits and marginal cost,

$$c'(x) = MB[\sigma', n]. \quad (16)$$

The unique solution is

$$x^*(t; \sigma, n) = MB[\sigma', n]^{\frac{1}{d-1}}. \quad (17)$$

¹⁷Similarly, in the pivotal event, a contrarian’s expected utility when choosing x is $\Pr(\text{piv}; \sigma', n) \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma) (\frac{1}{2} - x) t_\alpha$ in state α , and $\Pr(\text{piv}; \sigma', n) \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}; \sigma) (\frac{1}{2} + x) t_\beta$ in state β .

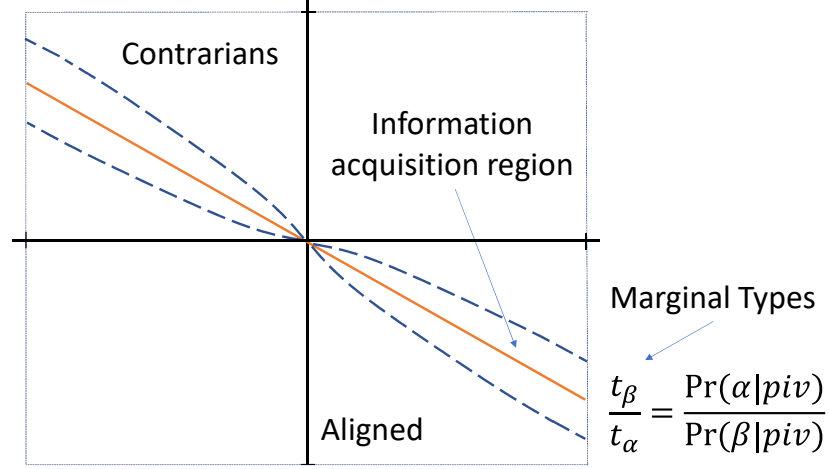


Figure 3: Types in the area between the dashed lines acquire information. Types outside that area stay uninformed.

Here, we used that $c(x) = \frac{x^d}{d}$.

Lemma 1 *Take any strategy σ' . The function μ is part of a best response $\sigma = (x, \mu)$ if and only if*

$$\forall t \in L : x(t) > 0 \Rightarrow \mu(t, a) = 1 \text{ and } \mu(t, b) = 0, \quad (18)$$

$$\forall t \in C : x(t) > 0 \Rightarrow \mu(t, a) = 0 \text{ and } \mu(t, b) = 1. \quad (19)$$

The proof is in the Appendix A.

4.1.3 Who acquires additional information?

The types t with $y(t) = \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma', n)$ are indifferent between A and B without further information, given (9) - (12), and called the *marginal types*. Lemma 2 shows that, for each total intensity $k = k(t)$, only types in a certain interval around the marginal types acquire information.

Lemma 2 *Let σ' be a strategy with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma', n) \in (0, 1)$. Let $d > 1$. When n is large enough, for any $k \in (0, \max_t (k(t))$ and any $g \in \{L, C\}$ there are $y_g^-(k) < \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma', n) < y_g^+(k)$ such that for any best response $\sigma = (x, \mu)$ to σ'*

and any type $t \in g$ with $k(t) = k$,

$$x(t) > 0 \Rightarrow y(t) \in [y_g^-(k), y_g^+(k)], \quad (20)$$

$$y(t) \notin [y_g^-(k), y_g^+(k)] \Rightarrow x(t) = 0. \quad (21)$$

Note that for $d \leq 1$ marginal cost are bounded away from zero, $c'(0) > 0$. Thus, (16) has no solution when n is large and all types stay uninformed.

To get more intuition for the result, take, for example, the aligned boundary type t with $y(t) = y_L^-(k)$. We show that the type's indifference condition can be rewritten as

$$\chi(y(t)) + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{(d-1)}{d} x^*(t; \sigma, n) \quad (22)$$

where $\chi(y) = \frac{-\Pr(\beta|\text{piv}; \sigma, n)y(t)}{\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma, n)(1-y(t)) - \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}; \sigma, n)y(t)}$. Details of the algebra are in Appendix A.

The function on the right hand side converges uniformly to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This is because $x^*(t; \sigma, n)$ is proportional to the pivotal likelihood, given (15) and (17). The left hand side captures the bias towards policy A without additional information. The bias is zero at the indifferent type's threshold $\bar{y} = \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma, n)$, as a simple calculation verifies. Intuitively, for an aligned type, the lower the threshold of doubt $y(t)$, the higher the bias towards policy A . In fact, the left hand side strictly increases in the distance of $y(t) < \bar{y}$ to \bar{y} .¹⁸ Altogether, we see that the left hand side crosses the right hand side exactly once when n is large. Thus, the indifference equation has a unique solution $y_L^-(k) < \bar{y}$.

Figure 3 illustrates the functions y_g^- and y_g^+ . It suggests that types with a larger total intensity are more likely to acquire information, ceteris paribus. In fact, (22) shows that the likelihood that a type acquires information increases in the total intensity in the same way that the precision $x^*(t)$ increases in it; compare to (17).

The following studies the equilibria of the election as the number of citizens $2n + 1$ grows without bound. Considering a large number, allows for a precise analysis.

¹⁸For the calculation of the derivative, see Appendix B. The condition $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma', n) \in (0, 1)$ of the lemma ensures that the derivative stays bounded away from zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

4.2 Informative equilibrium sequences

4.2.1 Informativeness

For any sequence of strategies $(\sigma_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and any n , let

$$\delta_n(\omega; \sigma_n) = \frac{q(\omega; \sigma_n) - \frac{n}{2n+1}}{s(\omega; \sigma_n)}. \quad (23)$$

This measures the distance between the expected vote share and the majority threshold in multiples of the standard deviation $s(\omega; \sigma_n)$ of the vote share distribution for $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$, where $s(\omega; \sigma_n)^{-1} = \sqrt{\frac{(2n+1)}{q(\omega; \sigma_n)(1-q(\omega; \sigma_n))}}$.¹⁹ Figure 4) illustrates a normal approximation of the distribution of the number of A -votes. This approximation shows that, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the probability that A gets elected in ω converges to²⁰

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(A|\omega; \sigma_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 - \Phi(-\delta_n(\omega; \sigma_n)). \quad (24)$$

Here, $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the cumulative distribution of the standard normal distribution. So, the asymptotic distribution of the outcome policy only depends on $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(\omega; \sigma_n) \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty, -\infty\}$.

An equilibrium sequence is *informative* if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n) \neq 0$. Informativeness captures that the aggregate effect of the voters' information acquisition on vote shares is large enough as to impact outcomes. Given (24), it is a necessary condition for the outcome distribution to be different in the two states.

4.2.2 Close elections: An equilibrium outcome

For any informative equilibrium sequence, the outcome is close to being tied in *all* states ω ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q(\omega; \sigma_n) = \frac{1}{2} \quad (25)$$

¹⁹Let $q_n = q(\omega; \sigma_n)$. The number v_n of A -votes follows a Binomial distribution with variance $(2n+1)q_n(1-q_n)$. So, the vote share $\frac{v_n}{2n+1}$ of A follows a distribution with standard deviation $s(\omega; \sigma_n)$.

²⁰Let $q_n = q(\omega; \sigma_n)$. Take the normal approximation $\mathcal{B}(2n+1, q_n) \simeq \mathcal{N}((2n+1)q_n, (2n+1)q_n(1-q_n))$ of the distribution of the number of A -votes. It shows that the probability that there are more A -votes than B -votes converges to $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{(2n+1)(\frac{n}{2n+1} - q_n)}{((2n+1)q_n(1-q_n))^{\frac{1}{2}}}\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1 - \Phi(-\delta_n(\omega; \sigma_n))$.

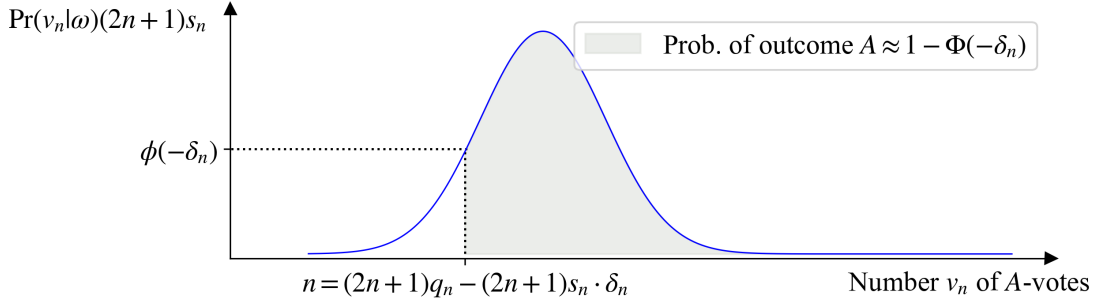


Figure 4: Illustration of the Normal approximation of the Binomial distribution of the number of A -votes v_n . The Binomial has mean $(2n+1)q_n$ for $q_n = q(\omega; \sigma_n)$ and standard deviation $(2n+1)s_n = ((2n+1)(q_n(1-q_n)))^{\frac{1}{2}}$ for $s_n = s(\omega; \sigma_n)$. The outcome is A if there are more than n votes for A .

Intuitively, the election must be close in at least *some* state since otherwise the incentives to acquire costly information are too small.²¹

Formally, a voters' individual incentives to acquire information depend on the pivotal likelihood; recall e.g. the cost-benefit analysis for the optimal (interior) precision, (15). A Stirling approximation of the pivotal likelihood yields²²

$$\Pr(\text{piv}|\omega; n) \approx 4^n (n\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left[q(\omega; \sigma_n)(1 - q(\omega; \sigma_n)) \right]^n. \quad (26)$$

This implies that the pivotal likelihood is exponentially small unless (25) holds for at least some state. This is because the function $q(1-q)$ takes the maximum $\frac{1}{4}$ at $q = \frac{1}{2}$ only. Therefore, if (25) does not hold in *any* state, voters acquire exponentially little information under the best response, given (15). Consequently, the difference of the vote shares in the two states—measured in standard deviations—goes to zero, i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n) = 0$. In other words, the equilibrium sequence is not informative.

The reason why the election is close in all and not just in one state (i.e. (25)) is that the likelihood that a random citizen votes A is asymptotically the same

²¹This observation may be viewed as a rationalization of the frequent occurrence of close elections as an informational phenomenon. Notoriously close elections include the 2000 US presidential election: Bush won the electoral college with 271 votes to Gore's 266 and lost the popular vote by some 500,000. Similarly, the 1960 election between Kennedy and Nixon was an extremely tight race, with the candidates tied at 47 percent in the Gallup polls. Kennedy won the popular vote by less than 120,000 votes. In Germany, chancellor Schröder won the 2002 federal election by a mere 6,000 out of more than 48 million votes.

²² Stirling's formula yields $(2n)! \approx (2\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} 2^{2n+\frac{1}{2}} n^{2n+\frac{1}{2}} e^{-2n}$ and $(n!)^2 \approx (2\pi)n^{2n+1}e^{-2n}$. Consequently, $\binom{2n}{n} \approx (2\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}} 2^{2n+\frac{1}{2}} n^{-\frac{1}{2}} = 4^n (n\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Plugging this expression for the binomial coefficient into (6) yields $\Pr(\text{piv}|\omega; n) \approx 4^n (n\pi)^{-\frac{1}{2}} (q(1-q))^n$ for $q = q(\omega; \sigma_n)$.

across states. This is because, for any strategy sequence, the signal precision of a random voter is of an order weakly smaller than $n^{-\frac{1}{2(d-1)}}$, given (15), (17), and (26). So, the definition (2) together with (7) and (8) implies

$$q(\omega; \sigma_n^*) \rightarrow \Psi(\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n, n)) \quad (27)$$

for both states $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$.

4.2.3 Limit marginal types

The closeness of elections, (25) pins down the marginal types as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This is because the threshold of doubt $y(t) = \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n^*, n)$ of the marginal types necessarily satisfies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Psi(\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n^*, n)) = \frac{1}{2},$$

given (27). Since Ψ is continuous, this entails $\Psi(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n^*, n)) = \frac{1}{2}$. Since Ψ is strictly increasing, this entails $\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n^*, n) \rightarrow \bar{y} \in (0, 1)$ where \bar{y} is the unique belief for which $\Psi(\bar{y}) = \frac{1}{2}$.

5 Main result: Baseline setting

The literature on information aggregation in elections has established under fairly general conditions that large elections lead to full-information equivalent outcomes, that is, the policy preferred by the majority under full information is elected state-by-state.²³ This result has been established, in particular, for a setting identical to that of Section 4, but assuming that citizens receive an exogenous (costless) i.i.d. signal about the state (see Theorem 1 in Bhattacharya, 2013). In other words, with costless information, the competition between the interest groups (aligned and contrarians) is decided by the *size* of the interest groups. The majority group wins.

We show that the information frictions alter the power relations between the opposed groups fundamentally. Outcomes may not align with the majoritarian principle. They are driven by the endogenous informational efforts of the competing interest groups.

²³See e.g. Feddersen and Pesendorfer (1997) and Austen-Smith and Banks (1996).

Theorem 1 characterizes when informative equilibrium exist. Further, it characterizes *all* informative equilibrium sequences, based on a measure of the type distribution (the index) that we will show to be proportional to the aggregate precision of the interest groups (Lemma 3).

Recall that d is the elasticity of the cost function, t_ω is the type's utility from policy A in ω . In the following, we denote by $E(-|g)$ and $f(-|g)$ the conditional expectation and the conditional likelihood when conditioning on the set of types $\{t : t \in g\}$ of an interest group. Similarly, we use $f(g)$ for the unconditional likelihood and $E(-|y)$ and $f(-|y)$ when conditioning on the set of types with threshold of doubt $y(t) = y$, et cetera. The κ -index of an interest group g in ω is

$$W(\kappa, g, \omega) = \underbrace{f(g)f(\bar{y}|g)}_{\text{likelihood of limit marginal types}} \underbrace{E(|t_\omega|^\kappa|g, \bar{y}, \omega)}_{\kappa\text{-measured intensity}}, \quad (28)$$

for any $\kappa > 0$. Since all limit marginal types have the same *relative* intensities across the states, i.e., $\frac{t_\alpha}{t_\beta} = -\frac{1-\bar{y}}{\bar{y}}$, the index differs only by a scalar across states, $W(\kappa, g, \alpha) = -\frac{1-\bar{y}}{\bar{y}}W(\kappa, g, \beta)$.

Theorem 1 *Let $d = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{c'(x)x}{c(x)} > 3$ and $\kappa = \frac{2}{d-1}$. Take any preference distribution H such that Ψ is strictly monotone and the richness condition (3) holds:*

1. *There is an equilibrium sequence in which the policy preferred by the interest group (aligned or contrarians) with the higher κ -index is elected with probability converging to 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*
2. *If $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) \neq \frac{1}{2}$, there is an equilibrium sequence in which the outcome that is preferred by the majority of the citizens given the prior beliefs is elected with probability converging to 1 if the κ -index of aligned is larger than that of the contrarians, and with probability converging to 0 if the κ -index of aligned is smaller than that of the contrarians*

Welfare. The index W has a compelling interpretation in terms of welfare. A type's intensity t_ω is her willingness to pay for having the collective choice changed to the preferred policy. The index takes the willingness to pay of each type to the power $\kappa = \frac{2}{d-1}$ and then averages over the marginal types of the interest group. Hence, it interpolates between two extremes: When $\kappa = 0$, the index is purely ordinal. It is proportional to the likelihood of the marginal types. If $\kappa = 1$, the index is proportional to the utilitarian welfare of the marginal types. In general,

preference intensities matter more when information of low precision is “cheaper”, that is, when d is lower and κ is higher.²⁴

Full-Information Outcomes. Since Theorem 1 characterizes *all* informative equilibrium sequences, it implies that, when the contrarians have a higher index, there is no equilibrium sequence in which the full-information outcome (A in α , B in β) is chosen in both states as the electorate grows large.

Factors of political power. In the equilibrium of the first item of Theorem 1, the political interests of the group with the higher index are represented by the election outcomes. Here, the parameter κ captures exactly how intensities substitute with the mass of the (marginal) types of a group in determining which group’s interests are represented.

An informational tug-of-war. Lemma 3 shows that the κ -index of an interest group is proportional to the aggregate precision (or effort) of the interest group, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This result holds for the best response to any sequence of strategies with interior limit marginal types.

Lemma 3 *For any strategy sequence $(\sigma'_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ for which $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha | \text{piv}; \sigma'_n, n) = \bar{y} \in (0, 1)$ and any interest group $g \in \{L, C\}$, the best response $\sigma_n = (x_n, \mu_n)$ satisfies*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_{t \in g} x_n(t) dH(t)}{\Pr(\text{piv} | \sigma'_n, n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}} e(\bar{y}, d)} = W(g, \kappa, \alpha). \quad (29)$$

for a constant $e(\bar{y}, d) > 0$ that only depends on the threshold of doubt \bar{y} of the limit marginal types and the cost elasticity $d > 0$.

Lemma 3 implies that the equilibrium of the first item of Theorem 1 resembles an informational tug-of war: The interest group with the higher aggregate precision wins the election. A sketch of the proof follows momentarily in Section 5.2 and the proof is in Appendix C.

²⁴For $c_d(x) = \frac{x^d}{d}$, we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{c_d(x)}{c_{d'}(x)} = \infty$ if $d' > d$.

5.1 Intuition for Theorem 1: Social inference and mis-coordination of the uninformed

Surprising about the tug-of-war-equilibrium is that the voters who exert no informational effort seem to play no role—although they also vote. To understand the logic of this equilibrium, recall the example of Section 2. In the example, the types that stay uninformed mis-coordinate in an extreme way. Their votes cancel out each other completely. All other types t vote for their preferred policy with probability $\frac{1}{2} + x(t)$; compare to Lemma 1. As a consequence, the policy that is preferred by the interest group with the higher aggregate precision $\int_{t \in g} x(t) dH(t)$ receives more votes in expectation.

In the example, the mis-coordination of the uninformed is driven by symmetry assumptions: All types hold a symmetric prior, and the reform-leaning and reform-skeptical types have the same likelihood. In general, the votes of the uninformed do *not* split 50 – 50 given their *prior beliefs*. However, we show that they *do* split close to 50 – 50 given their *equilibrium beliefs*. This will be true in any informative equilibrium sequence.

Such mis-coordination is necessary in any informative equilibrium sequence. This is because the share of the uninformed goes to 1 and the election has to be close to 50 – 50 when the electorate grows large, as observed in Section 4.2.2. Only this closeness creates enough incentives for the voter types to costly acquire information so that the equilibrium is informative.

Such mis-coordination is possible since the citizens do not only take into account their prior information when voting, but make an equilibrium inference from the behaviour of the other voters. Namely, they update their beliefs conditional on the pivotal event. We will show that this “social inference” can be such that the votes of the uninformed split *close* to 50 – 50 under the best response. Based on this, we construct the two equilibria of Theorem 1. They differ in how strongly the uninformed mis-coordinate. In the first equilibrium of Theorem 1, mis-coordination is stronger and the outcomes are given by which group’s κ -index is higher. In the second equilibrium, the asymmetry of the the preferences given the prior beliefs, $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) \neq \frac{1}{2}$, creates a bias towards one of the policies and the same policy is elected in both states.

An outline: In Section 5.2, we sketch the proof of Lemma 3. In Section 5.3, we explain the relevant condition on the information cost from Theorem 1 ($d > 3$)

that is necessary for the existence of informative equilibria.²⁵ In Section 5.4, we analyze the social inference of the voters. There, we will also illustrate how the information acquisition of the voters can be complementary, which gives an intuition for the equilibrium multiplicity. In Section 5.5, we prove Theorem 1.

5.2 The endogenous information of the interest groups

Sketch of the proof of Lemma 3. Details are in Appendix C. Recall the analysis of the best response. The precision of each type t acquiring information is pinned down by the total intensity $k(t)$. Combining (15) and (17),

$$\frac{x(t)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma_n, n)^{\frac{1}{d-1}}} = \left[k(t)e(y(t)) \right]^{\frac{1}{d-1}}. \quad (30)$$

This suggests that the parametrisation of the types of an interest group g through the threshold of doubt y and the total intensity k will be useful.²⁶ In the following, we evaluate the integral $E(x_n(t)|g) = \frac{\int_{t \in g} x_n(t) dH(t)}{f(g)}$ iteratively, first along the y -dimension, then along the k -dimension. We write $t(y, k)$ for the unique type of an interest group with threshold of doubt y and total intensity k .

Fix k . Recall that only types close to the indifferent marginal types have enough incentives to acquire information in a large election (see Section 4.1.3). We use Taylor approximations around the marginal type with intensity k to show: the precision of any type $t(y, k)$ acquiring information under the best response is asymptotically equivalent to the precision of the marginal type.²⁷ That is,

$$x_n(t(y, k)) \approx x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k)), \quad (31)$$

for $\bar{y}_n = \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n, n)$.

Then, we claim that the likelihood that a type with intensity k acquires information is asymptotically proportional to the product of likelihood and precision of the marginal type,

$$\Pr(x_n(t) > 0|g, k) \approx f(t(\bar{y}_n, k)|g, k)x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k))e(\bar{y}, d). \quad (32)$$

²⁵This condition is similar to a condition ($c'''(0) = 0$) identified by Martinelli (2007). For the power cost functions $c(x) = kx^d$, the conditions are equivalent.

²⁶Recall that there is a one-to-one relation between types t and pairs of thresholds of doubt $y(t)$ and total intensities $k(t)$. For example, for the aligned types, $t_\alpha = k(t)(1 - y(t))$ and $t_\beta = -k(t)y(t)$, given (4) and (5).

²⁷Two sequences $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are asymptotically equivalent if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 1$.

Here, f is the conditional density of the type and e is a constant that only depends on the limit marginal type $\bar{y} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bar{y}_n$ and d . To show (32), we evaluate the interval of types with intensity k that acquire information. A Taylor approximation shows that the mass of types in the interval is asymptotically proportional to the likelihood of the marginal type times the interval length. In the relevant step, we leverage that the precision of each boundary type of this interval enters *linearly* into the boundary conditions that define the length of the interval (see (22)). This way, we show that the interval length is asymptotically proportional to the precision of the boundary type. Finally, we use that this precision is asymptotically equivalent to the marginal type's precision, given (31), and establish (32).

Using first (31) and then (32),

$$\begin{aligned} E(x_n(t(y, k)) | g, k) &\approx \Pr(x_n(t) > 0 | g, k) x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) \\ &\approx f(t(\bar{y}_n, k) | g, k) x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k))^2 e(\bar{y}, d). \end{aligned}$$

Next, we plug in the expression (30) for the precision of the marginal type $t = t(\bar{y}_n, k)$. It states that the marginal type's precision is proportional to a power of the pivotal likelihood and the power $k^{\frac{1}{d-1}}$ of the total intensity, so that

$$\frac{E(x_n(t(y, k)) | g, k)}{\Pr(\text{piv} | \sigma_n, n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}}} \approx \left[f(t(\bar{y}_n, k) | g, k) k^{\frac{2}{d-1}} \right] e_2(\bar{y}, d). \quad (33)$$

for $e_2(\bar{y}, d) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e(\bar{y}, d) e(\bar{y}_n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}}$. Note that the state-dependent intensity of the marginal types $t(\bar{y}_n, k)$ is linear in the total intensity, $t_\alpha = k(1 - \bar{y}_n)$, compare to (4) and (5). So, (33) implies that, fixing k , the mean precision of a type in the interest group is proportional to the likelihood of the marginal type and the power $t_\alpha^{\frac{2}{d-1}}$ of the state-dependent intensity. Finally, integrating over k , we show that the analogous observation holds. That is, the mean precision of a type in the interest group is proportional to likelihood of the marginal types and the conditional mean of $t_\alpha^{\frac{2}{d-1}}$,

$$\frac{E(x_n(t) | g)}{\Pr(\text{piv} | \sigma_n, n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}}} \approx f(\bar{y}_n | g) E(k^{\frac{2}{d-1}} | g, \bar{y}_n) e_3(\bar{y}, d). \quad (34)$$

Finally, (34) implies that $f(g)E(x_n(t) | g) = \int_{t \in g} x_n(t) dH(t)$ is proportional to the κ -index (28). In particular, (29) holds.

5.3 Existence: Free-riding and information cost

The voters face a free-rider problem. If a voter acquires information, she is bearing the cost privately, while all voters with the same interest benefit from her tipping the election into her preferred direction. In the following, we explain why the condition $d > 3$ from Theorem 1 is the critical condition for the severity of the free-rider problem in a large electorate. In particular, we sketch an argument based on two observations, showing that, if $d < 3$, no informative equilibrium sequence exists.

Take a candidate informative equilibrium sequence. The election is necessarily close in both states, i.e., (25) holds. Given (24), what matters for the “informativeness” of the aggregate voting behaviour is the distance between the expected vote share in the two states in terms of standard deviations,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q(\alpha; \sigma_n) - q(\beta; \sigma_n)}{s(\alpha; \sigma_n)} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 \int_{t \in L} x(t) dH(t) - \int_{t \in C} x(t) dH(t)}{s(\alpha; \sigma_n)}. \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

Here, we used the definition (23) and that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{s(\alpha; \sigma_n)}{s(\beta; \sigma_n)} = 1$, given (25). Hence, the relevant comparison is how fast the aggregate precision $\int_t x(t) dH(t)$ decreases relative to how fast the standard deviation of the vote share increases.

We make two observations. The first observation is that, depending on if $d < 3$ or $d > 3$, the aggregate precision acquired by the voters of any given interest group is of an order smaller or larger than the pivotal likelihood. This is a direct consequence of Lemma 3; see (29).

The second observation is that the normal approximation (24) also holds locally²⁸,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\text{piv} | \omega; \sigma_n) (2n+1) s(\omega; \mathbf{q}(\sigma_n)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi(\delta_n(\omega; \sigma_n)), \quad (36)$$

where ϕ the density of the standard normal distribution. This approximation is illustrated in Figure 4. Let $s_n = s(\omega; \mathbf{q}(\sigma_n))$ and $q_n = q(\omega_n; \sigma_n)$. Given (36), the pivotal likelihood is a finite multiple of $((2n+1)s_n)^{-1} = s_n(q_n(1-q_n))^{-1}$. So, it is

²⁸The local central limit theorem is due to Gnedenko (1948). The version that we apply is the one for triangular arrays of integer-valued variables as in Davis and McDonald (1995), Theorem 1.2. Compare also to the equation (11) therein.

a finite multiple of the standard deviation.²⁹ Combining both observations, (29) and (36), we see that the aggregate precision vanishes relative to the standard deviation if $d < 3$. Hence, the candidate sequence cannot be informative, given (35).

5.4 Existence: Social Inference and Information complementarities

What drives the existence of the two informative equilibrium sequences of Theorem 1—besides information of low precision being sufficiently cheap ($d > 3$)—is that the voters’ information acquisition exhibits complementarities. Below, we sketch how these complementarities act.

Fix a vote share $q(\alpha) < \frac{1}{2}$. We can vary the informativeness of a voter strategy σ_n with $q(\alpha; \sigma_n) = q(\alpha)$ by varying $q_n(\beta) = q(\beta; \sigma_n)$; see Section 4.2.1. Figure 5 shows the limit vote share for policy A under the best response σ'_n , as a function of $q(\beta) > \frac{1}{2}$ and as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The limit vote share only depends on the prior belief and the inference from the pivotal event given the behaviour of the others (the “social inference”). It is given by $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q(\omega; \sigma'_n) = \Psi(\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n))$; compare to (27).

As more people vote A in β , the vote share in β is less close to the majority threshold. Then, voters believe the state α to be more likely conditional on the election being tied. The support for A increases since preferences are “monotone”, i.e., Ψ is strictly increasing. Importantly, as we will show, there are vote shares in β so that the election becomes close to being tied under the best response, $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n)) \approx \frac{1}{2}$. Hence, certain levels of informative voting induce a close election and thereby high incentives to acquire information. This way, information acquisition can be complementary.

5.5 Proof of Theorem 1

We represent informative equilibrium sequences in a compact way as sequences of roots of one-dimensional auxiliary maps. First, we show that equilibrium can be

²⁹Recall that $((2n+1)s_n)^{-1}$ the standard deviation of the Binomial distribution of the number of vote shares. Note that $((2n+1)s_n)^{-1} = \left[(2n+1)(q_n(1-q_n)) \right]^{-\frac{1}{2}} = s_n(q_n(1-q_n))^{-1}$ since $s_n = \left(\frac{(2n+1)}{q_n(1-q_n)} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$; see (23) and thereafter.

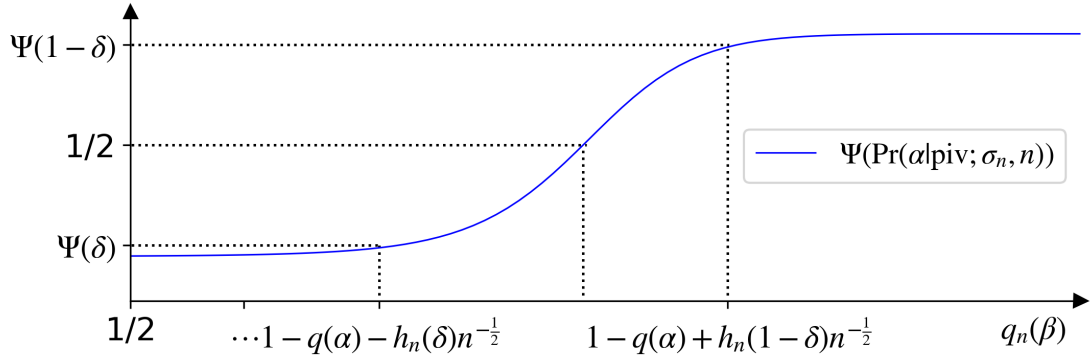


Figure 5: Fix $q(\alpha) < \frac{1}{2}$. The figure shows the limit vote share for policy A under the best response as $n \rightarrow \infty$, i.e. $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n, n))$, as a function of the expected vote share in β , for $q_n(\beta) > \frac{1}{2}$. The function $h_n(x)$ is so that, given $(q_n(\beta) - \frac{1}{2}) - (\frac{1}{2} - q(\alpha)) = h_n(x)n^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, the limit vote share is x .

alternatively characterized in terms of the vector of the expected vote shares of the reform in state α and β , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{q}(\sigma) = (q(\alpha; \sigma), q(\beta; \sigma)).$$

Note that for any σ and any $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$, the vote share $q(\omega; \sigma)$ pins down the likelihood of the pivotal event conditional on ω , given (6). Given (9)-(12), (17), and (20), the vector of the pivotal likelihoods is a sufficient statistic for the best response. Thus, $\mathbf{q}(\sigma)$ is a sufficient statistic as well. Given some vector of expected vote shares $\mathbf{q} = (q(\alpha), q(\beta)) \in (0, 1)$, let $\sigma^{\mathbf{q}}$ be the best response, given \mathbf{q} . Then, σ^* is an equilibrium, if and only if, $\sigma^* = \sigma^{\mathbf{q}(\sigma^*)}$. Conversely, an equilibrium can be described by a vector of vote shares $\mathbf{q}^* = (q^*(\alpha), q^*(\beta))$ that is a fixed point of $\mathbf{q}(\sigma^-)$, i.e.,

$$q^*(\alpha) = q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}^*}), \quad (37)$$

$$q^*(\beta) = q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}^*}), \quad (38)$$

5.5.1 The one-dimensional auxiliary maps

We use the insights from Section 5.4 to select a curve of vote share pairs that solve (38). We show that, for either state, we can pick the vote share to be either above or below the majority threshold. For example, take any $\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon < q(\alpha) < \frac{1}{2}$ with $\epsilon > 0$. Figure 5 shows the limit vote share $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q(\beta; \sigma^{(q(\alpha), q(\beta))}) = \Psi(\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma^{(q(\alpha), q(\beta))}))$ as a function of $q(\beta)$. It is smaller than $\frac{1}{2}$ for $q(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} + 2\epsilon$

and it is close to $\Psi(1) > \frac{1}{2}$ for $q(\beta) = \frac{1}{2}$. An application of the intermediate value theorem yields that for any n large enough, there are vote shares $q_n(\beta)$ so that $\mathbf{q}_n = (q_n(\alpha), q_n(\beta))$ solves (38). In Appendix D, we provide a topological argument to make a continuous selection of such vote shares. Formally, we prove the following lemma.

Lemma 4 *For any $(x(\alpha), x(\beta)) \in \{0, 1\}^2$, there are $\epsilon > 0, \Delta > 0, \bar{n} \in \mathbb{N}$ so that for all $n \geq \bar{n}$, there is a continuous map*

$$\begin{aligned} v_n : [0, 1] &\rightarrow [\Psi(0) + \epsilon, \Psi(1) - \epsilon]^2 \\ t &\mapsto \mathbf{q}_n^t = (q_n^t(\alpha), q_n^t(\beta)), \end{aligned}$$

so that \mathbf{q}_n^t solves (38), $\text{sgn}(q^t(\omega) - \frac{1}{2}) = x(\omega)$ for all $t \in [0, 1]$ and $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$, $(q^0(\alpha), q^1(\alpha)) = (\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon, \frac{1}{2} - \Delta n^{-\frac{1}{2}})$ if $x(\alpha) = 0$, and $(q^0(\alpha), q^1(\alpha)) = (\frac{1}{2} + \Delta n^{-\frac{1}{2}}, \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon)$ if $x(\alpha) = 1$.

The vote shares pairs of the Lemma are “similarly” far away from the majority threshold. Precisely, we claim that the distance only differs by finitely many standard deviations of the vote share,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t) - |\delta_n(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n^t)| = \frac{|q_n^t(\alpha) - \frac{1}{2}| - |q_n^t(\beta) - \frac{1}{2}|}{s(\omega; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} \in (0, \infty). \quad (39)$$

Note that we slightly abuse the previous notation here by treating the vote share pair \mathbf{q}_n^t as a strategy. If (39) would not hold, the inference from conditioning on the election being tied would be unbounded. That is, the posteriors $\Pr(\alpha | \text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n^t)$ would converge to 0 or 1, and, thus, the vote shares of the best response to $\Phi(0)$ and $\Phi(1)$.³⁰ However, the vote share $q_n^t(\beta)$ from the lemma solves (38), that is, it is a fixed point under the best response. Further, it is bounded away from $\Phi(0)$ and $\Phi(1)$. We arrive at a contradiction.

It follows from Lemma 4 that any root of the map

$$\hat{v}_n : t \mapsto q_n^t(\alpha) - q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t}), \quad (40)$$

with $\mathbf{q}_n^t = (q_n^t(\alpha), q_n^t(\beta)) = v_n(t)$, satisfies (37) - (38). So, such a vote share pair corresponds to an equilibrium of the voting game. Note that we omit the

³⁰Formally, this follows since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\phi(\delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t))}{\phi(\delta_n(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n^t))} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Pr(\text{piv} | \alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t, n)}{\Pr(\text{piv} | \beta; \mathbf{q}_n^t, n)}$, given (36). So, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t) - |\delta_n(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n^t)| \notin (0, \infty)$ implies $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha | \text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n^t) \in \{0, 1\}$.

dependence of \hat{v}_n on $(x(\alpha), x(\beta))$ in the notation. In Section 5.5.2, we construct the informative equilibrium sequences of Theorem 1 as roots of the maps \hat{v}_n .

5.5.2 Proof: Minority-preferred outcomes in all states

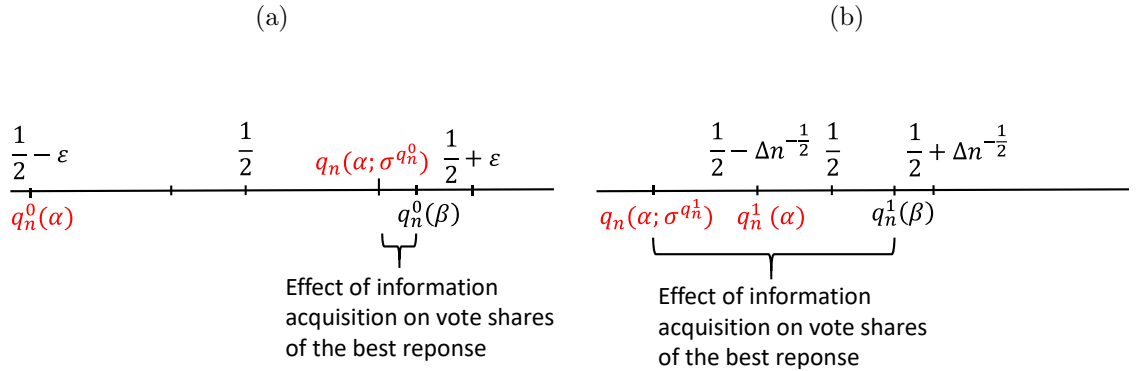
In the following, we provide the fixed point argument for the equilibrium of the first item of Theorem 1. In the main text, we consider the case in which the contrarians have a higher index, $W(L, \kappa, \alpha) < W(C, \kappa, \alpha)$ for $\kappa = \frac{2}{d-1}$. In this case, the equilibrium leads to the outcomes preferred by the contrarians, which are a minority in expectation. The argument for the other cases and the equilibrium of the second item is analogous and provided in Appendix F.

The argument relies on a precise analysis of the voters' incentives to acquire costly information. Further, we will use the observation that if $W(L, \kappa, \alpha) < W(C, \kappa, \alpha)$, Lemma 3 and (35) together imply that for any \mathbf{q}_n and n large enough, the vote shares of the best response are ordered as

$$q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}) < q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}). \quad (41)$$

Take the function \hat{v}_n and consider the case $(x(\alpha), x(\beta)) = (0, 1)$ so that the function maps to vote shares $q_n^t(\alpha) < \frac{1}{2}$ and $q_n^t(\beta) > \frac{1}{2}$. Figures 6a and 6b illustrate the fixed point argument, which establishes that \hat{v}_n has a root when n is large enough.

Figure 6: Fixed point argument



Panel (b) illustrates $\hat{v}_n(t)$ for $t = 1$. Recall from Lemma 4 that $q_n^1(\alpha)$ is finitely many standard deviations away from the majority threshold. Given (39), $q_n^1(\beta)$ is as well finitely many standard deviations above the majority threshold

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then, the expectation of a close election in α and β creates relative large incentives to acquire information. Lemma 5 at the end of this section shows that, given the condition on the information cost, $d > 3$, these incentives are large enough so that the vote shares of the best response to \mathbf{q}_n^1 differ by arbitrarily many standard deviations in the two states when n grows large. Given (41), and since $q_n^1(\beta) = q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^1})$,

$$\hat{v}_n(1) = q_n^1(\alpha) - q_n(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^1}) > 0 \quad (42)$$

for n large enough.

Panel (a) shows the map $\hat{v}_n(t)$ for $t = 0$. Recall from Lemma 4 that $q_n^0(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} - \epsilon$. Hence, $q_n^0(\alpha)$ is bounded away from $\frac{1}{2}$ by some constant. Given (39), the same is true for $q_n^0(\beta)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. As a consequence, the incentives to acquire information are small. In fact, the pivotal likelihood is exponentially small for large n , given (26), and so is the precision of any voter type under the best response, see (17). Given exponentially little information acquisition, the vote shares of the best response do not differ by a standard deviation, as $n \rightarrow \infty$.³¹ Since $q_n^0(\beta) = q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0})$ and $q_n^0(\beta) > \frac{1}{2}$ by construction,

$$\hat{v}_n(0) = q_n^0(\alpha) - q_n(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0}) < 0 \quad (43)$$

for n large enough.

Finally, using (42), (43), and that \hat{v}_n is continuous, an application of Kakutani's fixed point theorem shows that there is $t \in (0, 1)$ so that $\mathbf{q}_n^t = (q_n^t(\alpha), q_n^t(\beta))$ solves (37) and (38).

Further, it must be that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{2} - q_n^t(\alpha)}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty$ since otherwise (43) holds by the same argument as just given when discussing panel (a). Hence, also $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q_n^t(\beta) - \frac{1}{2}}{s(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty$, given (39). The distance of the vote shares to the majority threshold becomes arbitrarily large in terms of standard deviations. This implies that B gets elected in α and A in β as $n \rightarrow \infty$, given (24).

Lemma 5 *Take $(\mathbf{q}_n^t)_{t \in [0,1]}$ as in Lemma 4, for some $t \in [0, 1]$. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|q_n^t(\alpha) - \frac{1}{2}|}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} \in \mathbb{R}$, then,*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t}) - q_n^t(\beta)|}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty. \quad (44)$$

³¹Here, recall that the standard deviation of the vote share is of the order \sqrt{n} , $s(\omega; \mathbf{q}_n) = (2n+1)^{\frac{1}{2}}(q_n(\omega)(1-q_n(\omega)))$.

The proof of Lemma 5 is in Appendix E.

6 Additional results and discussion

General setting: How differences in cost and priors affect outcomes.

We return to the setting of Section 3 in which types are heterogeneous not only in the state-dependent intensities t_ω , but also in the cost type and the prior belief. In the working paper, we show that a generalization of Theorem 1 holds for this setting (Theorem 3).³²

The proof is based on one main insight: We show that for any joint distribution of types, there is an auxiliary distribution which only admits heterogeneity in the state-dependent intensities and is *outcome-equivalent*, that is, it leads to the same set of equilibrium outcome distributions. This insight allows to leverage the previous analysis. Two observations lead to the auxiliary distribution. First, as in the baseline setting, equilibrium can be characterized as an *equilibrium vote share pair* $\mathbf{q} = (q(\alpha), q(\beta))$ that is a fixed point of the best response mapping on the level of vote shares, compare to (37)-(38). Second, we show that, for any type $t = (v, r, t_\alpha, t_\beta)$, the type $\zeta(t) = (\frac{1}{2}, 1, 2t'_\alpha, 2t'_\beta)$ with

$$t'_\alpha = \frac{vt_\alpha}{r}, \text{ and} \tag{45}$$

$$t'_\beta = \frac{(1-v)t_\beta}{r} \tag{46}$$

best responds in the same way to any given vote share pair \mathbf{q} . As a consequence, for any type distribution H , the push-forward distribution $\zeta^*(H)$ has the same equilibrium vote share pairs, but does not exhibit heterogeneity in priors and cost types.

The formal statement of Theorem 3 is almost identical to Theorem 1, just that Ψ and W are replaced by their generalizations $\mathcal{X}(p) = \Pr_H(\{t : pt'_\alpha + (1-p)t'_\beta \geq 0\})$ and $I(\kappa, g, \omega) = f(M^g)E(\|t'_\omega\|^\kappa \mid M^g, \omega)$, in which t'_ω takes the role of t_ω . Here, M^g is the set of limit marginal types of interest group $g \in \{L, C\}$ and $f(M^g)$ their likelihood.³³

³²The working paper is available here: <https://www.crctr224.de/en/research-output/discussion-papers/archive/2020/DP209>.

³³In the working paper, we derive the set M^g in terms of primitives, in a similar way as in the baseline setting; compare to Section 4.2.3.

Theorem 3 yields important insights about the effect of differences in cost and prior beliefs on outcomes. Before we explain this, it is useful to note that the analogue of Lemma 3 holds, that is, the ratio of the indices $\frac{I(\kappa, L, \omega)}{I(\kappa, C, \omega)}$ is proportional to the ratio of the aggregate precision chosen by the aligned and contrarian types as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Hence, it is a relative measure of information acquisition. First, consider the situations when the types of an interest group have comparably high cost r . Intuitively, this will depress their information acquisition. Formally, the “weights” t'_ω become small when r is large; see (45)-(46). So, the index $I(\kappa, g, \omega)$ of the group will be smaller than the other interest group’s index if r is sufficiently high, ceteris paribus. Then, Theorem 3 states that there is an equilibrium in which the group’s preferred policy is not elected in any state. Second, if an interest group has more dispersed prior beliefs, this may depress information acquisition similarly. We illustrate this for a class of symmetric distributions in the working paper. We show that the likelihood of the marginal types decreases with the dispersion. Based on this, we show that if an interest group has sufficiently dispersed prior beliefs, there is an equilibrium in which the group’s preferred policy is not elected in any state.

Non-informative equilibrium sequences. Generically, there exist equilibrium sequences that are not informative, and in any non-informative limit equilibrium, all voters vote according to their prior belief. Thus, the policy that is preferred by a majority given the prior beliefs will be elected: the outcome is A if $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) > \frac{1}{2}$ and B if $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) < \frac{1}{2}$. The proof of Theorem 2 is in Appendix G.

Theorem 2 *Let $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) \neq \frac{1}{2}$.*

1. *There exists an equilibrium sequence that is not informative.*
2. *All equilibrium sequences $(\sigma_n^*)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ that are not informative satisfy $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q(\omega; \sigma_n^*) = \Psi(\Pr(\alpha))$ for all states $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$. Hence, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(A|\sigma_n^*, n) = 1$ if $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) > \frac{1}{2}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(B|\sigma_n^*, n) = 1$ if $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) < \frac{1}{2}$.*

Ordering the equilibrium sequences along the informativeness. Theorem 1 and Theorem 2 show that there exist three types of equilibrium sequences

when $d > 3$ and $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) \neq \frac{1}{2}$. We show that the three types of equilibrium sequences can be ordered by their (absolute) informativeness, that is, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n)|$.

In any non-informative equilibrium sequence, by definition,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n) = 0.$$

For the “tug-of-war” equilibrium sequence in which the policy preferred by the interest group with the higher index is elected as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the distribution of the limit outcomes is degenerate and varies with the state. Thus, (24) implies that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n)| = \infty.$$

Take the other informative equilibrium sequence of Theorem 1 in which the limit outcome is the same in both states. This implies that the sign of $\delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n)$ and $\delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n)$ is the same for n large enough, given (24). Therefore, (39) implies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n)| \in (0, \infty).$$

We conclude that the informativeness lies in between that of the other two types of equilibrium sequences.

We can also think of these results as an ordering by the aggregate precision $\int_t x(t) dH(t)$ of the voters. This is because the informativeness is proportional to the aggregate precision. In the baseline, this can be seen as follows: Given Lemma 3, the aggregate precision of the types of an interest group $g \in \{L, C\}$ compares as follows to the aggregate precision of all citizens, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_{t \in g} x(t) dH(t)}{\int_t x(t) dH(t)} = \frac{W(g, \kappa, \alpha)}{W(L, \kappa, \alpha) + W(C, \kappa, \alpha)}$. Combining this with (35),

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n)| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{|2(W(L, \kappa, \alpha) - W(C, \kappa, \alpha))|}{W(L) + W(C)} \int_t x(t) dH(t)}{s(\alpha; \sigma_n)}.$$

Non-monotone type distributions. So far, we provided the analysis for the setting in which preferences are “monotone”. When Ψ is non-monotone, there may be multiple $\bar{p} \in (0, 1)$ for which $\Psi(\bar{p}) = \frac{1}{2}$. This motivates the definition of a *local* κ -index, defined in the same way as $W(\kappa, g, \omega)$ in (28), but which depends on the selection of \bar{p} satisfying $\Psi(\bar{p}) = \frac{1}{2}$.

One can show that, for any such \bar{p} with $\Psi(\bar{p}) = \frac{1}{2}$ and $\Psi'(\bar{p}) \neq 0$, the statements analogous to those of Theorem 1 hold, where we simply substitute the κ -index $W(\kappa, g, \omega)$ with the local index $W(\kappa, g, \omega, \bar{p})$:³⁴ Precisely, if $d > 3$, $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) \neq \frac{1}{2}$, and $W(\kappa, L, \omega, \bar{p}) \neq W(\kappa, C, \omega, \bar{p})$, there are two informative equilibrium sequences for which $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Pr(\text{piv}|\alpha; \sigma_n, n)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\beta; \sigma_n, n)} = \frac{\bar{p}}{1-\bar{p}}$. There is one informative equilibrium sequence for which the outcome preferred by the group with the larger local index $W(g, \kappa, \omega, \bar{p})$ is elected, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. There is another informative equilibrium sequence for which the outcome that is preferred by the majority of the citizens given the prior beliefs is elected with probability converging to 1 if the *local* index $W(g, \kappa, \omega, \bar{p})$ of the aligned ($g = L$) is larger than that of the contrarians ($g = C$), and it is elected with probability converging to 0 if the *local* index $W(g, \kappa, \omega, \bar{p})$ of the aligned ($g = L$) is smaller than that of the contrarians ($g = C$).

One important implication of this generalization is that it may happen that the *order* of the local index of the interest groups varies with \bar{p} . Then, there are informative equilibrium sequences for which one interest group wins the election with probability converging to 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, but also other informative equilibrium sequences in which the other group wins.³⁵

Literature: Asymmetric information in electoral competition models.

Several papers have analyzed how the electoral competition between politicians is affected by the voters' limited attention to politics (see e.g. Matějka and Tabellini, 2021; Yuksel, 2021). A central finding in Matějka and Tabellini (2021) is that politicians cater more to the voters with more extreme ideal policies. The intuition is that these voters will pay more attention and be more responsive to marginal changes in the equilibrium policy since these changes will affect them more strongly (e.g. because of utilities with quadratic loss). The analysis of the model in this paper brings forward a rival intuition: Voters with extreme prior beliefs, or with preferences that are extremely biased towards one policy, have low incentives to get informed since information is unlikely to change their opinion about which policy (or candidate) to vote for. However, election outcomes in the informative

³⁴We omit the proof since it is completely analogous to the proof of Theorem 1.

³⁵These results are reminiscent of known results about equilibrium multiplicity for the model with exogenous information: Take the baseline setting from Section 4. If citizens were to receive a costless, binary, conditionally i.i.d. signal about the state with precision $0 < x < \frac{1}{2}$ and if Ψ is non-monotone and not constant on any open interval, it is known that there is a multiplicity of equilibrium sequences, some of which do not aggregate information (Bhattacharya, 2013).

equilibria are driven by the costly informational efforts of the citizens (compare to Theorem 1). In this sense, extreme voter types matter little for outcomes in our model. As is apparent, the difference in observations is due to policies being endogenous, continuous choices of politicians on the one hand, and coarse and exogenous primitives on the other hand.

7 Conclusion

The Condorcet Jury Theorem and modern versions of it show that elections effectively aggregate information that is dispersed among many voters, so that outcomes in all equilibria are full-information equivalent (Austen-Smith and Banks, 1996; Feddersen and Pesendorfer, 1997). We have analyzed the robustness of this result with respect to information frictions: Voters can acquire private information about policy consequences before the election and this requires costly effort.

Two main insights emerge. First, the information frictions alter the power relations between opposed interest groups fundamentally, by turning the election into a contest-like process. There is a “tug-of-war” equilibrium in which the policy preferred by the interest group with the higher aggregate informational effort is elected. This equilibrium is cardinal in the sense that outcomes represent voters with a minority interest if they have sufficiently high utilities at stake. Second, the information frictions create strategic complementarities. As a consequence, there are three equilibria, ordered by the aggregate informational effort of the electorate. Information aggregation fails in the low and medium effort equilibrium.

Our model provokes to think in new ways about the competition of opposed political interest groups. It is one of the first to analyze the competition channels through information acquisition efforts. We have provided some discussion and initial observations on similarities and differences to classical models from the literature, such as Palfrey and Rosenthal (1985), Krishna and Morgan (2011, 2015) and more recent contributions (Lalley and Weyl, 2018; Eguia and Xefteris, 2018). We believe that several features of our model may lead to interesting observations when integrated into these models. For example, the policy uncertainty plays a crucial role in our setting and implies that changes in the prior belief distribution can upset the election outcome.

Our results speak to a variety of public and academic debates that center around the political informedness of citizens:

- *Populism and voter ignorance.* Voter ignorance has been brought forward as an explanation for the rise in populism in numerous Western democracies and electoral choices like the Brexit.³⁶ Some even argue that voter ignorance is *the* major problem for democracy, see e.g. Brennan (2016). In our model, the non-informative equilibrium—which exists for all levels of information cost—is consistent with this pessimistic view on voter informedness. However, we also show that the electorate may coordinate on other, more informative equilibria (Theorem 1). In our theory, the closeness of the election correlates with the informativeness of the equilibrium. The frequent occurrence of close elections in practice is, in this respect, an indicator of intense, but functioning electoral processes. More work is needed to study which circumstances lead to coordination on the informative equilibria.
- *Voter information campaigns and websites.* Civil society groups advocate using voter information campaigns to improve democratic representation and the fairness of elections.³⁷ Similarly, websites that try to help voters compare their own political positions with those of the candidates of an upcoming election have gained popularity in the recent decade.³⁸ In the context of our model, such websites and campaigns may be understood as lowering the information cost. Our results suggest that their effects are ambiguous: when information cost are lower overall, this may hinder the representation of minority interests. However, if the information cost of demographic groups with otherwise comparably high cost are lowered in particular, this may “level the playing field” and lead to a better representation of these groups’ interests through election outcomes.
- *Social Media.* There is considerable concern about the role that social media, such as Facebook and Twitter, play in promoting misinformation. Recent empirical work attempts to clarify the effects of social media on the political knowledge and misperceptions of citizens, for example in the context of the Covid-19 pandemic; see, e.g., Bridgman *et al.* (2020)) and Allcott *et al.* (2020). In the context of our model, misinformation may be viewed as

³⁶See, e.g., <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/volokh-conspiracy/wp/2016/06/26/brexit-regrexit-and-the-impact-of-political-ignorance/> and <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/volokh-conspiracy/wp/2016/06/14/brexit-and-political-ignorance/>

³⁷See, e.g., <https://www.vote411.org/>.

³⁸Popular sites from the 2020 US elections include <https://www.isidewith.com/elections/> and <https://2020election.procon.org/2020-election-quiz.php>. An example from Europe (Germany) is <https://www.bpb.de/politik/wahlen/wahl-o-mat/>.

altering the cost of obtaining correct information since its presence requires filtering and more cross-checking across sources. Our results show that if participation varies across demographic groups, the interests of particularly active groups may be less well reflected by election outcomes.

Appendix

A Proof of Lemma 1

Since signal a is indicative of α and b of β , voters with a signal a believe state α to be more likely than voters with a signal b . In fact, given any $x > 0$, we show below that the posteriors are ordered as

$$\Pr(\alpha|b, \text{piv}; \sigma', n) < \Pr(\alpha|a, \text{piv}; \sigma', n). \quad (47)$$

We argue that the choice $x(t) > 0$ implies

$$\Pr(\alpha|b, \text{piv}, \sigma', n) < y(t) < \Pr(\alpha|b, \text{piv}, \sigma', n). \quad (48)$$

Otherwise, given (9)-(12), there is a policy $z \in \{A, B\}$ that the voter weakly prefers, independent of her private signal $s \in \{a, b\}$. But then, she would be strictly better off by not paying for the information $x(t) > 0$ and simply voting the same after both signals. Finally, (9)-(12), and (48) together imply (18) and (19)

Proof of (47). Note that the posterior likelihood ratio of the states conditional on a signal $s \in \{a, b\}$ with precision $x(t)$ and conditional on the event that the voter is pivotal is

$$\frac{\Pr(\alpha|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n)}{\Pr(\beta|s, \text{piv}; \sigma', n)} = \frac{\Pr(\alpha) \Pr(\text{piv}|\alpha; \sigma', n) \Pr(s|\alpha; \sigma)}{\Pr(\beta) \Pr(\text{piv}|\beta; \sigma', n) \Pr(s|\beta; \sigma)}, \quad (49)$$

if $\Pr(\text{piv}|\beta; \sigma', n) > 0$, where I used the conditional independence of the types and signals of the other voters from the signal of the given voter. Then, the order of the likelihood ratios in (47) follows from $\Pr(a|\alpha; \sigma) = \frac{1}{2} + x$ and $\Pr(a|\beta; \sigma) = \frac{1}{2} - x$, and the analogous formula for $s = b$.

B Proof of Lemma 2

In the following, for the ease of presentation, we drop the dependence on n and σ' in the notation. Fix a total intensity $k \in (0, \max_t(k(t))]$. The lemma claims that for each interest group $g \in \{L, C\}$, there is an information acquisition interval, given by the boundary types $y_g^-(k)$ and $y_g^+(k)$. We start with the argument for the type $y_L^-(k)$.

First, we characterize when a type t is indifferent between voting A without further infor-

mation on the one hand and choosing the precision $x = x^*(t; \sigma', n)$ on the other hand. When choosing $x = x^*(t; \sigma', n)$ the expected utility from the policy elected in the pivotal event is given by (13) in α and by (14) in β . Hence, the indifference condition is

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr(\text{piv}) \left[\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}) \left(\frac{1}{2} + x \right) t_\alpha + \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}) \left(\frac{1}{2} - x \right) t_\beta \right] - c(x) \\ &= \Pr(\text{piv}) \left[\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}) t_\alpha + \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}) t_\beta \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (50)$$

Rearranging,

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr(\text{piv}) \left[\left(\frac{1}{2} + x \right) \left[\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}) t_\alpha - \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}) t_\beta \right] + \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}) t_\beta \right] - c(x) \\ &= \Pr(\text{piv}) \left[\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}) t_\alpha - \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}) t_\beta + 2 \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}) t_\beta \right] \end{aligned} \quad (51)$$

Plugging (15) and (16) into (51),

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(\frac{1}{2} + x \right) c'(x) - c(x) + \Pr(\text{piv}) \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}) t_\beta \\ &= c'(x) + 2 \Pr(\text{piv}) \Pr(\beta|\text{piv};) t_\beta. \end{aligned} \quad (52)$$

We divide by $c'(x)$, rearrange, and use (15) and (16) again,

$$\left(\frac{1}{2} + x \right) - \frac{c(x)}{c'(x)} = 1 + \frac{\Pr(\beta|\text{piv}) t_\beta}{\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}) t_\alpha + \Pr(\beta|\text{piv}) (-t_\beta)}. \quad (53)$$

Using $t_\alpha = k(t)(1 - y(t))$ and $t_\beta = -k(t)y(t)$,

$$\left(\frac{1}{2} + x \right) - \frac{c(x)}{c'(x)} = 1 + \frac{-\Pr(\beta|\text{piv})y(t)}{\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv})(1 - y(t)) + \Pr(\beta|\text{piv})y(t)}. \quad (54)$$

Since $c(x) = \frac{x^d}{d}$, we have $\frac{c(x)}{c'(x)} = \frac{1}{d}$ and $x(1 - \frac{c(x)}{c'(x)}) = x \frac{d-1}{d}$. Plugging this into (54) and rearranging gives (22), i.e.,

$$\frac{1}{2} + \chi(y(t)) = x \frac{d-1}{d} \quad (55)$$

for $\chi(y) = \frac{-\Pr(\beta|\text{piv})y}{\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv})(1-y) + \Pr(\beta|\text{piv})y}$.

Second, the argument from the main text shows that, when n is sufficiently large, there is a unique solution to the indifference equation (55), denoted $y_L^-(k)$ and satisfying $y_g^-(k) < \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv})$. Here, we just fill in the left out algebra. We show that the derivative $\frac{\chi(y_n)}{\partial y_n}$ at $y_n = \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma', n)$ stays bounded away from zero, as $n \rightarrow \infty$:

$$\frac{\chi(y_n)}{\partial y_n} \Big|_{y_n = \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv})} = -\frac{1 - y_n}{2y_n(1 - y_n)} - \frac{2y_n^2(1 - y_n)}{(2y_n(1 - y_n))^2} \quad (56)$$

$$= \frac{-1}{2y_n(1 - y_n)}. \quad (57)$$

The assumption $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma', n) \in (0, 1)$ of Lemma 2 implies that the derivative (56) stays indeed bounded away from zero.

Third, the argument analogous to the first two steps shows that there is a unique type $y_L^+(k) > \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv})$ that is indifferent between voting B without further information on the one hand and acquiring information on the other hand, when n is large enough. Putting things together, we see that the types $y_L^-(k)$ and $y_L^+(k)$ mark the boundaries of the interval of all the aligned types with intensity k that acquire information under the best response. The argument for the contrarian types is analogous.

C Proof of Lemma 3

Take the interest group of the aligned types, that is, fix $g = L$ in the following. The proof for the group of contrarian types is analogous. We use that, for the aligned types, there is a one-to-one relation between types t and pairs of thresholds $y(t)$ and total intensities $k(t)$: $t_\alpha = k(t)(1 - y(t))$ and $t_\beta = -k(t)y(t)$, given (4) and (5). In the following, we write $t(y, k)$ for the type with $y(t) = y$ and $k(t) = k$, $H(y, k)$ for the joint distribution of y and k , and $H(y)$ and $H(k)$ for the marginal distributions. We evaluate the mean precision

$$E(x_n(t)|g) = E(E(x_n(t)|g, k)|g) \quad (58)$$

iteratively. We start by analysing $E(x_n(t)|g, k)$ for a fixed intensity $k = k(t)$.

First, we consider the “intensive margin”. Take a type $t = t(y', k)$ who chooses a non-zero precision $x > 0$ under the best response. We show that the type must be arbitrarily close to the marginal type $\bar{y}_n = \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma, n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Step 1 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y' - \bar{y}_n = 0$.

Proof. Take the interval of types with intensity k that acquire information, $[y_g^-(k), y_g^+(k)]$. It is sufficient to show that the boundary types with $y(t) \in \{y_g^-(k), y_g^+(k)\}$ converge to \bar{y}_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Take the indifference condition (53) that pins down the threshold of doubt of the boundary type, $y_g^-(k)$. The proof for the other boundary type is analogous. It follows from (15) and (17) that the right hand side of (53) goes to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This implies that $\chi(y_g^-(k)) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$ for the threshold of doubt $y(t)$ of the boundary type and for $\chi(y) = \frac{-(1-\bar{y}_n)y}{\bar{y}_n(1-y) - (1-\bar{y}_n)y}$. However, this is equivalent to $y_g^-(k) \rightarrow \bar{y}_n$. ■

Next, we show that the precision of $t(y', k)$ is asymptotically equivalent to that of the marginal type with the same total intensity k .

Step 2 $x(t(y', k)) \approx x(t(\bar{y}_n, k))$.

Proof. Recall that all types that choose a non-zero precision $x_n(t(y', k)) > 0$, choose the precision $x_n(t(y', k)) = x^*(t(y', k); \sigma_n, n)$ that solves the first-order condition (17). Using a Taylor approximation of $x^*(t(y', k); \sigma_n, n)$,

$$x_n(t(y', k)) - x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) = (\bar{y}_n - y') \frac{d}{dy} \bigg|_{y=\hat{y}_n(y')} x^*(t(y, k); \sigma_n, n) \quad (59)$$

for some $\hat{y}_n(y') \in [y', \bar{y}_n]$. Given (15) and (17),

$$\frac{d}{dy}|_{y=\hat{y}_n(y')} x^*(t(y, k); \sigma_n, n) = x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) M_n(y') \quad (60)$$

for $M_n(y') = \frac{\frac{d}{dy}|_{y=\hat{y}_n(y')} [e(y)]^{\frac{1}{d-1}}}{e(\hat{y}_n(y'))^{\frac{1}{d-1}}}$ and $e(y) = \bar{y}_n(1 - y) + (1 - \bar{y}_n)y$. By the chain rule of differentiation, $\frac{d}{dy}|_{y=\hat{y}_n(y')} [e(y)]^{\frac{1}{d-1}} = (1 - 2\bar{y}_n)e(\hat{y}_n(y'))^{\frac{1}{d-1}-1}$. Hence,

$$M_n(y') = \frac{(1 - 2\bar{y}_n)}{e(\hat{y}_n(y'))}. \quad (61)$$

It follows from Step 1 that $\hat{y}_n(y') \rightarrow \bar{y}_n$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for all y' . Thus,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_{y': x(t(y', k)) > 0} |M_n(y')| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(1 - 2\bar{y}_n)}{e(\bar{y}_n)} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(1 - 2\bar{y}_n)}{2\bar{y}_n(1 - \bar{y}_n)} \right|. \quad (62)$$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \bar{y}_n = \bar{y} \in (0, 1)$ by assumption, we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n(y') \in \mathbb{R}$ for all y' . Combining (59) and (60),

$$\begin{aligned} x(t(y', k)) &= x(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) + x(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) M_n(y') (\bar{y}_n - y), \\ &\Leftrightarrow \frac{x(t(y', k))}{x(t(\bar{y}_n, k))} = 1 + M_n(y') (\bar{y}_n - y'). \end{aligned} \quad (63)$$

Finally, (63), the observation that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n(y') \in \mathbb{R}$, and Step 1 together imply Step 2. ■

Second, we consider the “extensive margin”. We show that the likelihood that a random type with intensity k acquires some information $x > 0$ is asymptotically proportional to the product of precision and likelihood of the marginal type. Denote by $f(t|g, k)$ the density of a type t conditional on $t \in g$ and $k(t) = k$.

Step 3

$$\Pr(\{t : x_n(t) > 0\} | g, k) \approx f(t(\bar{y}_n, k) | g, k) x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) e_2(\bar{y}_n, d)$$

for $e_2(y, d) = \frac{4(d-1)}{d}(1 - y)y$.

Proof. Using Taylor approximations of the conditional distribution of the threshold of doubt at the threshold \bar{y}_n of the marginal type,

$$\Pr(\{t : x_n(t) > 0\} | g, k) \approx f(t(\bar{y}_n, k) | g, k) (y_g^+(k) - y_g^-(k)), \quad (64)$$

where the types with threshold of doubt $y(t) \in \{y_g^-(k), y_g^+(k)\}$ are the boundary types that are indifferent between no information and choosing the precision $x^*(t; \sigma'_n, n)$ that solves the first-order condition (17). Recall the indifference conditions

$$\frac{1}{2} + \chi(y_g^-(k)) = x^*(t(y_g^-(k), k); \sigma'_n, n) \frac{d-1}{d}, \quad (65)$$

$$\frac{1}{2} + \chi(y_g^+(k)) = -x^*(t(y_g^+(k), k); \sigma'_n, n) \frac{d-1}{d}; \quad (66)$$

see, e.g., (22). Taylor approximations of the function χ yield $\chi(y) \approx \chi(\bar{y}_n) + \chi'(\bar{y}_n)(y - \bar{y})$ for $y \in \{y_g^-(k), y_g^+(k)\}$. Since $\chi(\bar{y}_n) = -\frac{1}{2}$, these approximations together with the indifference conditions yield

$$\chi'(\bar{y}_n)[y_g^-(k) - \bar{y}_n] \approx \frac{(d-1)}{d} x^*(t(y_g^-(k), k); \sigma'_n, n), \quad (67)$$

$$\chi'(\bar{y}_n)[\bar{y}_n - y_g^+(k)] \approx \frac{(d-1)}{d} x^*(t(y_g^+(k), k); \sigma'_n, n). \quad (68)$$

Recall (56), that is, $\chi'(\bar{y}_n) = -\frac{1}{4(1-\bar{y}_n)^2}$. Hence, (64)-(68) and Step 2 together imply Step 3. ■

We combine Step 2 and Step 3 to prove the next step.

Step 4 $E(x_n(t(y, k))|g, k) \approx f(t(\bar{y}_n, k)|g, k)x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k))^2 e_2(\bar{y}, d)$.

Proof. We rewrite the conditional expectation in integral form,

$$E(x_n(t(y, k))|g, k) = \int_{t: x_n(t) > 0} x_n(t) dH(t|g, k). \quad (69)$$

Given Step 2, we have $x_n(t) = (1 + \epsilon_n(t))x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k))$ for some sequence $\epsilon_n(t)$ that converges to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} & E(x_n(t(y, k))|g, k) \\ &= x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) \Pr(\{t : x_n(t) > 0\}|g, k) + x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) \int_{t: x_n(t) > 0} \epsilon_n(t) dH(t|g, k). \end{aligned} \quad (70)$$

Further,

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \int_{t: x_n(t) > 0} \epsilon_n(t) dH(t|g, k) \right| \\ & \leq \int_{t: x_n(t) > 0} |\epsilon_n(t)| dH(t|g, k) \\ & \leq \Pr(\{t : x(t) > 0\}|g, k) M_n(y_g^+(k) - y_g^-(k)), \end{aligned} \quad (71)$$

for $M_n = \max_{y' \in [y_g^-(k), y_g^+(k)]} |M_n(y')|$. The first inequality follows from an application of the triangle inequality. For the second inequality, we use that $\epsilon_n(t) = M_n(y')(\bar{y}_n - y')$ given (63). Further, we use that y' and \bar{y}_n lie in the interval $[y_g^-(k), y_g^+(k)]$ of types that choose to acquire information. Step 1 implies $y^+(k) - y^-(k) \rightarrow 0$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n \in \mathbb{R}$ (recall (62) and the observation thereafter), $M_n(y_g^+(k) - y_g^-(k)) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. So, $\left| \int_{t: x_n(t) > 0} \epsilon_n(t) dH(t|g, k) \right| \rightarrow 0$, given (71). Combining this with (70),

$$E(x_n(t(y, k))|g, k) \approx x_n(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) \Pr(\{t : x(t) > 0\}|g, k). \quad (72)$$

Using Step 3,

$$E(x_n(t(y, k))|g, k) \approx x_n^2(t(\bar{y}_n, k)) f(t(\bar{y}_n, k)|g, k) e_2(\bar{y}_n, d). \quad (73)$$

Step 4 follows since e_2 is continuous so that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e_2(\bar{y}_n, d) = e_2(\bar{y}, d)$. ■

Recall (30) for $t = t(\bar{y}_n, k)$, which states that the marginal type's precision is proportional

to a power of the pivotal likelihood and the power $k^{\frac{1}{d-1}}$ of the total intensity. Combining (30) and Step 4,

$$\frac{E(x_n(t(y, k))|g, k)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma_n, n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}}} \approx \left[f(t(\bar{y}_n, k)|g, k)k^{\frac{2}{d-1}} \right] e_3(\bar{y}, d). \quad (74)$$

for $e_3(\bar{y}, d) = e_2(\bar{y}, d)e(\bar{y})^{\frac{2}{d-1}}$. In other words, fixing k , the mean precision of a type in the interest group is proportional to the likelihood of the marginal type and the intensity to the power $\kappa = \frac{2}{d-1}$. We integrate over k :

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E(x_n(t(y, k))|g)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma_n, n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}}} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{E(E(x_n(t(y, k))|g, k)|g)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma_n, n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_k \frac{f(k|g)E(x_n(t(y, k))|g, k)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma_n, n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}}} dk \\ &= \int_k \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(k|g)E(x_n(t(y, k))|g, k)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\sigma_n, n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}}} dk \\ &= \int_k \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(k|g)f(t(\bar{y}_n, k)|g, k)k^{\frac{2}{d-1}} e_3(\bar{y}_n, d) dk \\ &= e_3(\bar{y}, d) \int_k f(k|g)f(t(\bar{y}, k)|g, k)k^{\frac{2}{d-1}} dk \\ &= e_3(\bar{y}, d) \int_k f(\bar{y}|g)f(t(\bar{y}, k)|g, \bar{y})k^{\frac{2}{d-1}} dk \\ &= e_3(\bar{y}, d)f(\bar{y}|g)E(k^{\frac{2}{d-1}}|g, \bar{y}) \end{aligned} \quad (75)$$

for $e(\bar{y}_n, d) = e(d)e(\bar{y}_n)^{\frac{2}{d-1}}$. The first equality follows from the iterated law of expectations. The second equality restates the conditional expectation as an integral. The third equality follows from an application of the dominated convergence theorem. For the fourth equality, we use (74). The fifth equality follows from $\bar{y}_n \rightarrow \bar{y}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and since $f(-|g, k)$ is continuous. The sixth equality follows since Bayes law implies $f(k|g)f(t(\bar{y}, k)|g, k) = f(t(\bar{y}, k)|g, \bar{y})f(\bar{y}|g)$. The last inequality rewrites the integral as a conditional expectation.

Finally, the state-dependent intensity of the limit marginal types $t(\bar{y}, k)$ is linear in the total intensity, $t_\alpha = k(1 - \bar{y})$; compare to (4) and (5). So, $E(k^{\frac{2}{d-1}}|g, \bar{y}) = E(t_\alpha^{\frac{2}{d-1}}|g, \bar{y})(1 - \bar{y})^{\frac{2}{d-1}}$. Together with (75) and $E(x_n(t(y, k))|g) = \frac{1}{f(\bar{y})} \int_{t \in g} x_n(t) dH(t)$, this shows (29).

D Proof of Lemma 4

Lemma 6 *There are $\Delta, \epsilon > 0$, and $\bar{n} \in \mathbb{N}$, so that for any $q_n(\alpha) \in D_n$ with $D_n = [\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon, \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{n}}] \cup [\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\Delta}{\sqrt{n}}, \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon]$ and for any $n \geq \bar{n}$,*

$$q(\beta; \sigma^{(q(\alpha), q(\beta))}) - q(\beta) > 0 \quad \text{for} \quad q(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} + 2\epsilon, \quad (76)$$

$$q(\beta; \sigma^{(q(\alpha), q(\beta))}) - q(\beta) < 0 \quad \text{for} \quad q(\beta) = \frac{1}{2}. \quad (77)$$

Proof. First, we analyze the voter's posteriors about the state when conditioning on the pivotal

event, given a strategy with vote shares $q_n(\beta) = \frac{1}{2}$ or $q_n(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} + 2\epsilon$, and $q_n(\alpha) \in D_n$. We slightly abuse the notation by identifying vote share pairs \mathbf{q}_n with strategies.

Take $q_n(\beta) = \frac{1}{2}$. Take $\Delta' > 0$. When the distance of the vote share in α to $\frac{1}{2}$ is at least Δ' multiples of the standard deviation $\frac{\sqrt{2n+1}}{q_n(\alpha)(1-q_n(\alpha))}$ of the (empirical) vote share distribution, it follows from (36) that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Pr(\text{piv}|\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n, n)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\beta; \mathbf{q}_n, n)} \leq \frac{\phi(\Delta')}{\phi(0)}$. Hence, for any prior $\Pr(\alpha) \in (0, 1)$, there is $\Delta > 0$ large enough, so that for any $q_n(\alpha) \in D_n$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n, n) < \Phi^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right). \quad (78)$$

Take $q_n(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} + 2\epsilon$. For any $q_n(\alpha) \in D_n$, the election is more close to being tied in α , and, given (36), voters become convinced that the state is α , i.e.,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n, n) = 1. \quad (79)$$

Now, we analyze the vote share in β under the best response, and establish (76) and (77). Recall (27), which states that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q(\beta_n; \sigma_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Phi(\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n, n)). \quad (80)$$

We see that (78) and (80) imply that for $q_n(\beta) = \frac{1}{2}$,

$$q_n(\beta) > q(\beta_n; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}) \quad (81)$$

when n is large enough. That is (76) holds. Recall the richness condition (3). Let $\epsilon > 0$ be small enough so that $\Phi(1) > \frac{1}{2} + 2\epsilon$. Then, (79) and (80) imply that for $q_n(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$,

$$q_n(\beta) < q(\beta_n; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}) \quad (82)$$

when n is large enough. That is (77) holds. ■

Now, we state an analogue of the implicit function theorem that does not require any assumptions on partial derivatives.

Lemma 7 *Suppose $h : [0, 1] \times [0, 1] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ is a continuous function with*

$$h(r, 0) < 0 \quad \text{for all } r, \quad (83)$$

$$h(r, 1) > 0 \quad \text{for all } r. \quad (84)$$

Then, there exist continuous functions $\hat{r}, \hat{x} : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that $\hat{r}(0) = 0$, $\hat{r}(1) = 1$, and

$$h(\hat{x}(t), \hat{r}(t)) = 0 \quad \text{for all } t. \quad (85)$$

A proof can be found in Ekmekci *et al.* (2022).

Now, we prove Lemma 4 by an application of Lemma 7. We provide the proof for the case $(x(\alpha), x(\beta)) = (0, 1)$. The other cases are analogous.

Consider the function $g_n : \hat{D}_n \rightarrow [0, 1]$ for $\hat{D}_n = [\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon, \frac{1}{2} - \Delta n^{-\frac{1}{2}}] \times [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} + 2\epsilon]$ which maps pairs of vote shares $\mathbf{q}_n = (q_n(\alpha), q_n(\beta))$ to $q_n(\beta) - q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n})$. Take a homeomorphism $f_n : [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \hat{D}_n$ that maps the left edge to the left edge, that is, $f_n(\{0\} \times [0, 1]) = \{\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon\} \times [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} + 2\epsilon]$. Further, it maps the lower edge to the lower edge, etc..

Lemma 6 implies that the functions $h_n = g_n \circ f_n$ satisfy the conditions of Lemma 7; precisely, the conditions (76) and (77) correspond to (83) and (84). Hence, applying the lemma yields continuous functions $\hat{x}_n, \hat{r}_n : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ so that $h_n(\hat{x}_n, \hat{r}_n) = 0$. In other words, $v_n = f_n \circ (\hat{x}_n, \hat{r}_n)$ maps $t \in [0, 1]$ to vote share pairs $\mathbf{q}_n^t \in \hat{D}_n$ that solve (38). Note that $\text{sgn}(q_n^t(\omega) - \frac{1}{2}) = x(\omega)$ for $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$ and $t \in [0, 1]$ since $\mathbf{q}_n^t \in \hat{D}_n$. Further, v_n is continuous as the composition of continuous maps. Finally, note that $q_n^0(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} - \epsilon$ since $\hat{r}(0) = 0$ and since f_n maps the edge $\{0\} \times [0, 1]$ to the edge $\{\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon\} \times [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} + 2\epsilon]$. Similarly, $q_n^1(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} - \Delta n^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Taken together, this observations finish the proof of Lemma 4 for the case $(x(\alpha), x(\beta)) = (0, 1)$.

E Proof of Lemma 5

Fix $t \in [0, 1]$. First, we note that the sequence of vote share pairs $\mathbf{q}_n^t = (q_n^t(\alpha), q_n^t(\beta))$ satisfies the condition $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha | \text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n^t, n) \in (0, 1)$ of Lemma 3: This is because, by construction, the implied vote share under the best response, $q(\beta; \sigma_n^{\mathbf{q}_n^t})$, lies in $[\Psi(0) + \epsilon, \Psi(1) - \epsilon]$, see Lemma 4. Given (27), $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q(\beta; \sigma_n^{\mathbf{q}_n^t}) = \Psi(\Pr(\alpha | \text{piv}; \sigma_n^{\mathbf{q}_n^t}, n))$. The continuity and monotonicity of Ψ imply $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha | \text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n^t, n) \in (0, 1)$.

The remainder of the proof follows arguments similar to those in Section 5.3. There, we discussed why the condition $d > 3$ is the critical condition for the severity of the free-rider problem in a large electorate. Most of the proof restates the observations from Section 5.3.

The first observation is that, if $d > 3$, the average precision of a random voter of the interest group is of an order larger than the pivotal likelihood,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathbb{E}(x(t) | g)}{\Pr(\text{piv} | \mathbf{q}_n^t, n)} = \infty. \quad (86)$$

for $g \in \{L, C\}$. To see why, recall from Lemma 3 that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathbb{E}(x(t) | g)}{\Pr(\text{piv} | \mathbf{q}_n^t, n)^{\frac{1}{d-1}}} \in \mathbb{R}$. For $d > 3$, this implies (86) since the pivotal likelihood converges to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

The second observation is that the approximation (24) also holds locally,³⁹

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\text{piv} | \omega; \mathbf{q}_n^t) (2n+1) s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi(\delta_n(\omega; \mathbf{q}_n)), \quad (87)$$

where ϕ the density of the standard normal distribution and $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$. This local approximation is illustrated in Figure 4.

The assumption $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|q_n^t(\alpha) - \frac{1}{2}|}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} \in \mathbb{R}$ of Lemma 5 implies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi(\delta_n(\omega; \mathbf{q}_n^t)) \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (88)$$

³⁹The local central limit theorem is due to Gnedenko (1948). The version that we apply is the one for triangular arrays of integer-valued variables as in Davis and McDonald (1995), Theorem 1.2.

Let $s_n = s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)$ and $q_n = q_n^t(\alpha)$. Note that $((2n+1)s_n)^{-1} = s_n(q_n(1-q_n))^{-1}$ ⁴⁰ Consequently, (87) together with (88) yields $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Pr(\text{piv}|\omega; \mathbf{q}_n^t)}{s_n} \in \mathbb{R}$. Combining this with (86),

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathbb{E}(x_n(t)|g)}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty. \quad (89)$$

Recall (35),

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}) - q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t})}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2(\Pr(L)\mathbb{E}(x_n(t)|L) - \Pr(C)\mathbb{E}(x_n(t)|C))}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)}. \end{aligned} \quad (90)$$

Lemma 3 implies that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Pr(L)\mathbb{E}(x_n(t)|L)}{\Pr(C)\mathbb{E}(x_n(t)|C)} = \frac{W(L, \kappa, \alpha)}{W(C, \kappa, \alpha)}$. The genericity condition $W(L, \kappa, \alpha) \neq W(C, \kappa, \alpha)$ together with (89) and (90) shows

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t}) - q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t})}{s(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t})} \in \{\infty, -\infty\}, \quad (91)$$

which is equivalent to (44). Finally, the claim (44) of Lemma 5 follows from (91) since $q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t}) = q_n^t(\beta)$, by construction of $q_n^t(\beta)$; see Lemma 4.

References

- ACHARYA, A. (2016). Information aggregation failure in a model of social mobility. *Games and Economic Behavior*, **100**, 257–272.
- ALI, S. N., MIHM, M. and SIGA, L. (2018). *Adverse Selection in Distributive Politics*. Tech. rep., Working paper, Penn State University.
- ALLCOTT, H., BRAGHERI, L., EICHMEYER, S. and GENTZKOW, M. (2020). The welfare effects of social media. *American Economic Review*, **110** (3), 629–76.
- AUSTEN-SMITH, D. and BANKS, J. S. (1996). Information aggregation, rationality, and the condorcet jury theorem. *American political science review*, **90** (1), 34–45.
- BARELLI, P., BHATTACHARYA, S. and SIGA, L. (2017). On the possibility of information aggregation in large elections. In *Working Paper*.
- BHATTACHARYA, S. (2013). Preference monotonicity and information aggregation in elections. *Econometrica*, **81** (3), 1229–1247.
- (2018). Condorcet jury theorem in a spatial model of elections. *Available at SSRN 3245949*.
- BOND, P. and ERASLAN, H. (2010). Strategic voting over strategic proposals. *The Review of Economic Studies*, **77** (2), 459–490.
- BOUTON, L. and CASTANHEIRA, M. (2012). One person, many votes: Divided majority and information aggregation. *Econometrica*, **80** (1), 43–87.

⁴⁰Recall that $((2n+1)s_n)^{-1}$ the standard deviation of the Binomial distribution of the number of vote shares. Note that $((2n+1)s_n)^{-1} = \left[(2n+1)(q_n(1-q_n)) \right]^{-\frac{1}{2}} = s_n(q_n(1-q_n))^{-1}$ since $s_n = \left(\frac{(2n+1)}{q_n(1-q_n)} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$; see (23) and thereafter.

- BRENNAN, J. (2016). *Against democracy*. Princeton University Press.
- BRIDGMAN, A., MERKLEY, E., LOEWEN, P. J., OWEN, T., RUTHS, D., TEICHMANN, L. and ZHILIN, O. (2020). The causes and consequences of covid-19 misperceptions: Understanding the role of news and social media. *Harvard Kennedy School Misinformation Review*, **1** (3).
- DAVIS, B. and McDONALD, D. (1995). An elementary proof of the local central limit theorem. *Journal of Theoretical Probability*, **8** (3), 693–702.
- DIXIT, A., GROSSMAN, G. M. and HELPMAN, E. (1997). Common agency and coordination: General theory and application to government policy making. *Journal of political economy*, **105** (4), 752–769.
- DUGGAN, J. and MARTINELLI, C. (2001). A bayesian model of voting in juries. *Games and Economic Behavior*, **37** (2), 259–294.
- EGUIA, J. X. and XEFTERIS, D. (2018). Implementation by vote-buying mechanisms.
- EKMEKCI, M., HEESE, C. and LAUERMANN, S. (2022). *A Generalized Intermediate Value Theorem*. Tech. rep., Working Paper.
- and LAUERMANN, S. (2020). Manipulated electorates and information aggregation. *The Review of Economic Studies*, **87** (2), 997–1033.
- FEDDERSEN, T. and PESENDORFER, W. (1997). Voting behavior and information aggregation in elections with private information. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society*, pp. 1029–1058.
- GNEDENKO, B. V. (1948). On a local limit theorem of the theory of probability. *Uspekhi Matematicheskikh Nauk*, **3** (3), 187–194.
- GROSSMAN, G. M. and HELPMAN, E. (2001). *Special interest politics*. MIT press.
- GUL, F. and PESENDORFER, W. (2009). Partisan politics and election failure with ignorant voters. *Journal of Economic Theory*, **144** (1), 146–174.
- HEESE, C. and LAUERMANN, S. (2017). *Persuasion and Information Aggregation in Elections*. Tech. rep., Working Paper.
- KANG, K. (2016). Policy influence and private returns from lobbying in the energy sector. *The Review of Economic Studies*, **83** (1), 269–305.
- KRISHNA, V. and MORGAN, J. (2011). Overcoming ideological bias in elections. *Journal of Political Economy*, **119** (2), 183–211.
- and — (2015). Majority rule and utilitarian welfare. *American Economic Journal: Microeconomics*, **7** (4), 339–375.
- LALLEY, S. and WEYL, E. G. (2018). Nash equilibria for quadratic voting. *Available at SSRN 2488763*.
- LEDYARD, J. O. (1984). The pure theory of large two-candidate elections. *Public choice*, **44** (1), 7–41.
- and PALFREY, T. R. (2002). The approximation of efficient public good mechanisms by simple voting schemes. *Journal of Public Economics*, **83** (2), 153–171.
- MANDLER, M. (2012). The fragility of information aggregation in large elections. *Games and Economic Behavior*, **74** (1), 257–268.

- MARTINELLI, C. (2006). Would rational voters acquire costly information? *Journal of Economic Theory*, **129** (1), 225–251.
- (2007). Rational ignorance and voting behavior. *International Journal of Game Theory*, **35** (3), 315–335.
- MATĚJKA, F. and TABELLINI, G. (2021). Electoral competition with rationally inattentive voters. *Journal of the European Economic Association*.
- MYERSON, R. B. (1998). Extended poisson games and the condorcet jury theorem. *Games and Economic Behavior*, **25** (1), 111–131.
- OLIVEROS, S. (2013). Aggregation of endogenous information in large elections.
- PALFREY, T. R. and ROSENTHAL, H. (1985). Voter participation and strategic uncertainty. *American political science review*, **79** (1), 62–78.
- RAZIN, R. (2003). Signaling and election motivations in a voting model with common values and responsive candidates. *Econometrica*, **71** (4), 1083–1119.
- TRIOSSI, M. (2013). Costly information acquisition. is it better to toss a coin? *Games and Economic Behavior*, **82**, 169–191.
- WIT, J. (1998). Rational choice and the condorcet jury theorem. *Games and Economic Behavior*, **22** (2), 364–376.
- YUKSEL, S. (2021). Specialized learning and political polarization. *International Economic Review*.

Online appendix

F Proof of Theorem 1: Remaining cases

In the main text, we have provided the proof of the first item of Theorem 1 for the case when $W(\kappa, L, \alpha) < W(\kappa, C, \alpha)$.

Here, we finish the proof of Theorem 1. First, an auxiliary result. This auxiliary result generalizes the observation illustrated in Figure 6b.

Lemma 8 Take $(\mathbf{q}_n^t)_{t \in [0,1]}$ as in Lemma 4, for some $t \in [0, 1]$. If $|q_n^t(\alpha) - \frac{1}{2}| \geq \epsilon$ for all n , then,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t}) - q_n^t(\beta)|}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = 0. \quad (92)$$

Proof. Suppose that the vote share of A in α , $q_n^t(\alpha)$, is bounded away from $\frac{1}{2}$ by some constant. Given (39), the same is true for $q_n^t(\beta)$. As a consequence, the incentives to acquire information are small. In fact, the pivotal likelihood becomes exponentially small, given (26), and so the precision of any voter type under the best response, see (17). Given so little information acquisition, the

vote shares of the best response do not differ by a standard deviation, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. That is, (92) holds.⁴¹ ■

In the following, let $d > 3$.

F.1 First item of Theorem 1

The following case is left:

Case 2 $W(\kappa, L, \alpha) > W(\kappa, C, \alpha)$.

Let the electorate be sufficiently large so that the map v_n and the vote share pairs \mathbf{q}_n^t are defined for the case $(x(\alpha), x(\beta)) = (1, 0)$.

Recall from Lemma 4 that $q_n^0(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} + \Delta_n n^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Thus, (39) implies $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{2} - q_n^t(\beta)}{s(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t})} \in \mathbb{R}$. Since \mathbf{q}_n^0 solves (38), it holds $q_n^0(\beta) = q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0})$. Hence,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q_n^0(\alpha) - q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0})}{s(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0})} \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (93)$$

The condition of Lemma 5 is satisfied, so that Lemma 5 yields

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t}) - q_n^t(\beta)|}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty. \quad (94)$$

Note that if $W(L, \kappa, \alpha) > W(C, \kappa, \alpha)$, Lemma 3 and (35) together imply that for any \mathbf{q}_n and n large enough,

$$q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}) > q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}). \quad (95)$$

Together, (98) - (100) imply that

$$\hat{v}_n(0) = q_n^0(\alpha) - q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0}) < 0 \quad (96)$$

for n large enough. Recall from Lemma 4 that $q_n^1(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$. Given (39), $q_n^1(\beta) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} - \epsilon$ and, given Lemma 8, $q_n(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^1}) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} - \epsilon$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Together,

$$\hat{v}_n(1) = q_n^1(\alpha) - q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^1}) > 0 \quad (97)$$

for n large enough.

Finally, using (96)- (97), an application of the intermediate value theorem shows that there is $t \in (0, 1)$ so that \mathbf{q}_n^t solves (37) and (38). Further, it must be that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q_n^t(\alpha) - \frac{1}{2}}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty$ since otherwise (96) holds as we just argued. Hence, also $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{2} - q_n^t(\beta)}{s(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty$, given (39). So, the distance of the vote shares to the majority threshold becomes arbitrarily large in terms of standard deviations, which implies that B gets elected in β and A in α as $n \rightarrow \infty$, given (24).

⁴¹Here, recall that the standard deviation of the vote share is of the order \sqrt{n} , $s(\omega; \mathbf{q}_n) = (2n+1)^{\frac{1}{2}}(q_n(\omega)(1 - q_n(\omega)))$.

Thus, the outcome preferred by the contrarians is elected in all states, as claimed in the first item of Theorem 1.

F.2 Second item of Theorem 1

We present the proof for one case only. In the case presented, the outcome that is preferred by the minority given the prior beliefs is elected in all states. For the other cases, the proof is completely analogous.

Case 1 $W(\kappa, L, \alpha) < W(\kappa, C, \alpha)$ and $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) < \frac{1}{2}$.

Let the electorate be sufficiently large so that the map $\hat{\eta}_n$ and the vote share pairs \mathbf{q}_n^t are defined for the case $(x(\alpha), x(\beta)) = (1, 1)$.

Recall from Lemma 4 that $q_n^0(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} + \Delta_n n^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Thus, (39) implies $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{2} - q_n^t(\beta)}{s(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t})} \in \mathbb{R}$. Since \mathbf{q}_n^0 solves (38), it holds $q_n^0(\beta) = q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0})$. Hence,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q_n^0(\alpha) - q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0})}{s(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0})} \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (98)$$

The condition of Lemma 5 is satisfied, so that Lemma 5 yields

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t}) - q_n^t(\beta)|}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty. \quad (99)$$

Note that if $W(L, \kappa, \alpha) < W(C, \kappa, \alpha)$, Lemma 3 and (35) together imply that for any \mathbf{q}_n and n large enough,

$$q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}) < q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}). \quad (100)$$

Together, (98) - (100) imply that

$$\hat{v}_n(0) = q_n^0(\alpha) - q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^0}) > 0 \quad (101)$$

for n large enough.

Recall from Lemma 4 that $q_n^1(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$. We claim that $q_n^1(\beta)$ is multiple standard deviations larger than $q_n^1(\alpha)$ when n is large, i.e.,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q_n^1(\beta) - q_n^1(\alpha)}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^1)} > 0. \quad (102)$$

Note that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q_n^t(\beta) = \frac{1}{2}$ since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{2} - q_n^t(\beta)}{s(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^t})} \in \mathbb{R}$. Given (27), it must therefore hold that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha | \text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n^1) = \Psi^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right). \quad (103)$$

Given (36), $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Pr(\alpha | \text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n^1, n)}{\Pr(\beta | \text{piv}; \mathbf{q}_n^1, n)} = \frac{\Pr(\alpha)}{\Pr(\beta)} \frac{\phi(\delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^1))}{\phi(\delta_n(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n^1))}$. Thus, (103), the assumption $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) < \frac{1}{2}$

and that Ψ is strictly increasing together imply that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\phi(\delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^1))}{\phi(\delta_n(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n^1))} > 1. \quad (104)$$

This is equivalent to

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^1)| < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\delta_n(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n^1)|, \quad (105)$$

because of the properties of the density ϕ of the standard normal. Since, given $(x(\alpha), x(\beta)) = (1, 1)$, by construction $q_n^1(\alpha), q_n^1(\beta) > \frac{1}{2}$, (105) is equivalent to (102). Since the conditions of Lemma 8 are satisfied for $t = 1$, it implies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^1}) - q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^1})}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^1)} = 0. \quad (106)$$

Then, (102), (106), and the property $q_n^1(\beta) = q(\beta; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^1})$ of $q_n^1(\beta)$ together imply

$$\hat{v}_n(1) = q_n^1(\alpha) - q(\alpha; \sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n^1}) < 0 \quad (107)$$

for n large enough.

Finally, using (101) and (107), an application of the intermediate value theorem shows that there is $t \in (0, 1)$ so that \mathbf{q}_n^t solves (37) and (38). Further, it must be that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q_n^t(\alpha) - \frac{1}{2}}{s(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty$ since otherwise (101) holds as we just argued. Hence, also $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q_n^t(\beta) - \frac{1}{2}}{s(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n^t)} = \infty$, given (39). So, the distance of the vote shares to the majority threshold becomes arbitrarily large in terms of standard deviations, which implies that A gets elected in both states as $n \rightarrow \infty$, given (24). Since $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) < \frac{1}{2}$, this is the outcome that is preferred by a minority given the prior beliefs. Hence, outcomes are as claimed in the second item of Theorem 1.

G Proof of Theorem 2

Existence of non-informative equilibrium sequences. Recall that equilibrium can be alternatively characterized in terms of the vector of the expected vote shares of outcome A in state α and β ; see (37) and (38). Let $\mathbf{Q}_{\epsilon, n}$ be the set of vote share pairs $\mathbf{q}_n = (q_n(\alpha), q_n(\beta))$ satisfying

$$|q_n(\alpha) - q_n(\beta)| \leq \frac{1}{n^2}, \quad (108)$$

and

$$|q_n(\omega) - \frac{1}{2}| > \epsilon \quad (109)$$

for $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$. We claim that when $\epsilon > 0$ is small enough and $n \in \mathbb{N}$ large enough, the best response is a self-map on $\mathbf{Q}_{\epsilon, n}$,

$$\mathbf{q}_n \in \mathbf{Q}_{\epsilon, n} \Rightarrow \mathbf{q}(\sigma^{\mathbf{q}_n}) \in \mathbf{Q}_{\epsilon, n}. \quad (110)$$

Take a sequence of candidate equilibrium vote shares $\mathbf{q}_n \in \mathbf{Q}_{\epsilon,n}$. The first condition (108) implies that the voters do not learn anything about the state from conditioning on being pivotal,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Pr(\text{piv}|\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n, n)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\beta; \mathbf{q}_n, n)} = 1. \quad (111)$$

To see why, note that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Pr(\text{piv}|\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n, n)}{\Pr(\text{piv}|\beta; \mathbf{q}_n, n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\phi(\delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n))}{\phi(\delta_n(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n))}$, given (36). Further, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n) = 0$, given that $\mathbf{q}_n \in \mathbf{Q}_{\epsilon,n}$ satisfy (108).⁴² Thus, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\phi(\delta_n(\alpha; \mathbf{q}_n))}{\phi(\delta_n(\beta; \mathbf{q}_n))} = 1$ since the density ϕ of the standard normal is continuous.

The second condition (109) implies that the pivotal likelihood becomes exponentially small as $n \rightarrow \infty$, as can be seen from (26). Hence, also the precision of any voter type under the best response becomes exponentially small, given (17), and, further, the distance of the best response's vote share in α to the vote share in β , given (35). We see that the vote shares of the best response again satisfy (108) when n is large. Further, they converge to

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q_n(\omega) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Psi(\Pr(\text{piv}|\mathbf{q}_n, n)), \quad (112)$$

given (27). Since Ψ is continuous, (111) and (112) imply $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q_n(\omega) = \Psi(\Pr(\alpha))$ for $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$. Given the assumption $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) \neq \frac{1}{2}$ of Theorem 2, there is $\epsilon > 0$ small enough so that (109) holds when n is large enough. We conclude that the best response is a self-map on the set $\mathbf{Q}_{\epsilon,n}$ of vote shares satisfying (108) and (109), when n is sufficiently large and $\epsilon > 0$ sufficiently small.

An application of Kakutani's fixed point theorem yields a sequence of equilibrium vote shares in $\mathbf{Q}_{\epsilon,n}$, and any such equilibrium sequence must satisfy (112): As we have just shown, this is a property of the best response to vote shares in $\mathbf{Q}_{\epsilon,n}$. Since any informative equilibrium sequence must, however, satisfy (25), we conclude, that the sequence of equilibrium vote shares corresponds to a non-informative equilibrium sequence.

Properties of non-informative equilibrium sequences. Suppose that an equilibrium sequence is not informative, which means that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n) = 0$, given the definition of informativeness in Section 4.2.1. The non-informativeness implies that the voters do not learn anything about the state from conditioning on being pivotal,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n, n) = \Pr(\alpha). \quad (113)$$

This is because $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Pr(\alpha|\text{piv}; \sigma_n, n)}{\Pr(\beta|\text{piv}; \sigma_n, n)} = \frac{\phi(\delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n))}{\phi(\delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n))}$, given (36), and since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n) - \delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n) = 0$ implies $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\phi(\delta_n(\alpha; \sigma_n))}{\phi(\delta_n(\beta; \sigma_n))} = 1$ since the density of the standard normal is continuous. Then, it follows from (27) that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q_n(\omega) = \Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) \quad (114)$$

⁴²Here, recall that $\delta_n(\omega; \sigma_n)$ is the distance of the vote share to $\frac{n}{2n+1}$ in terms of standard deviations $s(\omega; \sigma_n) = \frac{q(\omega; \sigma_n)(1-q(\omega; \sigma_n))}{\sqrt{2n+1}}$, see (23).

for $\omega \in \{\alpha, \beta\}$. The weak law of large numbers implies that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(A|\sigma_n^*, n) = 1$ if $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) > \frac{1}{2}$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(B|\sigma_n^*, n) = 1$ if $\Psi(\Pr(\alpha)) < \frac{1}{2}$.