

# Introduction to Financial Models

## Lecture 03: Voting Theory

- 1 Introduction to Voting
- 2 Individual Preferences
- 3 Voting Paradox
- 4 Voting Systems: Majority Rule
- 5 Voting Systems: Positional Voting
- 6 Arrow's Impossibility Theorem
- 7 Single-Peaked Preferences
- 8 Voting as Information Aggregation
- 9 Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation
- 10 Sequential Voting and Information Cascades
- 11 Conclusion

# Introduction to Voting

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged



# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged
  - Voting choices often lack natural averaging methods (e.g., choosing between candidates)

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged
  - Voting choices often lack natural averaging methods (e.g., choosing between candidates)
- Types of voting applications:

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged
  - Voting choices often lack natural averaging methods (e.g., choosing between candidates)
- Types of voting applications:
  - Political elections (population choosing candidates)

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged
  - Voting choices often lack natural averaging methods (e.g., choosing between candidates)
- Types of voting applications:
  - Political elections (population choosing candidates)
  - Jury decisions (determining verdicts)

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged
  - Voting choices often lack natural averaging methods (e.g., choosing between candidates)
- Types of voting applications:
  - Political elections (population choosing candidates)
  - Jury decisions (determining verdicts)
  - Legislative votes (passing bills)

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged
  - Voting choices often lack natural averaging methods (e.g., choosing between candidates)
- Types of voting applications:
  - Political elections (population choosing candidates)
  - Jury decisions (determining verdicts)
  - Legislative votes (passing bills)
  - Prize committees (selecting award recipients)

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged
  - Voting choices often lack natural averaging methods (e.g., choosing between candidates)
- Types of voting applications:
  - Political elections (population choosing candidates)
  - Jury decisions (determining verdicts)
  - Legislative votes (passing bills)
  - Prize committees (selecting award recipients)
  - Critics' rankings (best movies, albums, etc.)

# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged
  - Voting choices often lack natural averaging methods (e.g., choosing between candidates)
- Types of voting applications:
  - Political elections (population choosing candidates)
  - Jury decisions (determining verdicts)
  - Legislative votes (passing bills)
  - Prize committees (selecting award recipients)
  - Critics' rankings (best movies, albums, etc.)
  - Online applications: meta-search engines, recommendation systems



# Voting for Group Decision-Making

- Voting: A method to aggregate information across a group
- Key differences between voting systems and markets:
  - Voting explicitly tries to reach a *single decision* that speaks for the group
  - Markets synthesize opinions indirectly through transactions
  - Market choices are often numerical and can be averaged
  - Voting choices often lack natural averaging methods (e.g., choosing between candidates)
- Types of voting applications:
  - Political elections (population choosing candidates)
  - Jury decisions (determining verdicts)
  - Legislative votes (passing bills)
  - Prize committees (selecting award recipients)
  - Critics' rankings (best movies, albums, etc.)
  - Online applications: meta-search engines, recommendation systems
- Voting can reflect genuine preference differences or different interpretations of information

## Individual Preferences

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
- Two key assumptions about rational preferences:

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
- Two key assumptions about rational preferences:
  - **Completeness:** For any two alternatives  $X$  and  $Y$ , either  $X \succ_i Y$  or  $Y \succ_i X$  (no abstention or indifference)

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
- Two key assumptions about rational preferences:
  - **Completeness:** For any two alternatives  $X$  and  $Y$ , either  $X \succ_i Y$  or  $Y \succ_i X$  (no abstention or indifference)
  - **Transitivity:** If  $X \succ_i Y$  and  $Y \succ_i Z$ , then  $X \succ_i Z$  (consistency across choices)

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
- Two key assumptions about rational preferences:
  - **Completeness:** For any two alternatives  $X$  and  $Y$ , either  $X \succ_i Y$  or  $Y \succ_i X$  (no abstention or indifference)
  - **Transitivity:** If  $X \succ_i Y$  and  $Y \succ_i Z$ , then  $X \succ_i Z$  (consistency across choices)
- Non-transitive preferences can be problematic:



# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
- Two key assumptions about rational preferences:
  - **Completeness:** For any two alternatives  $X$  and  $Y$ , either  $X \succ_i Y$  or  $Y \succ_i X$  (no abstention or indifference)
  - **Transitivity:** If  $X \succ_i Y$  and  $Y \succ_i Z$ , then  $X \succ_i Z$  (consistency across choices)
- Non-transitive preferences can be problematic:
  - Example: If Chocolate  $\succ_i$  Vanilla  $\succ_i$  Strawberry  $\succ_i$  Chocolate

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
- Two key assumptions about rational preferences:
  - **Completeness:** For any two alternatives  $X$  and  $Y$ , either  $X \succ_i Y$  or  $Y \succ_i X$  (no abstention or indifference)
  - **Transitivity:** If  $X \succ_i Y$  and  $Y \succ_i Z$ , then  $X \succ_i Z$  (consistency across choices)
- Non-transitive preferences can be problematic:
  - Example: If Chocolate  $\succ_i$  Vanilla  $\succ_i$  Strawberry  $\succ_i$  Chocolate
  - No “best” choice exists - each flavor is defeated by another

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
- Two key assumptions about rational preferences:
  - **Completeness:** For any two alternatives  $X$  and  $Y$ , either  $X \succ_i Y$  or  $Y \succ_i X$  (no abstention or indifference)
  - **Transitivity:** If  $X \succ_i Y$  and  $Y \succ_i Z$ , then  $X \succ_i Z$  (consistency across choices)
- Non-transitive preferences can be problematic:
  - Example: If Chocolate  $\succ_i$  Vanilla  $\succ_i$  Strawberry  $\succ_i$  Chocolate
  - No “best” choice exists - each flavor is defeated by another
  - Leads to indecision or exploitation in sequential choices

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
- Two key assumptions about rational preferences:
  - **Completeness:** For any two alternatives  $X$  and  $Y$ , either  $X \succ_i Y$  or  $Y \succ_i X$  (no abstention or indifference)
  - **Transitivity:** If  $X \succ_i Y$  and  $Y \succ_i Z$ , then  $X \succ_i Z$  (consistency across choices)
- Non-transitive preferences can be problematic:
  - Example: If Chocolate  $\succ_i$  Vanilla  $\succ_i$  Strawberry  $\succ_i$  Chocolate
  - No “best” choice exists - each flavor is defeated by another
  - Leads to indecision or exploitation in sequential choices
- If preferences are complete and transitive, they correspond to a ranked list

# Individual Preferences

- Each voter has a preference relation over alternatives
- Notation:  $X \succ_i Y$  means voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
- Two key assumptions about rational preferences:
  - **Completeness:** For any two alternatives  $X$  and  $Y$ , either  $X \succ_i Y$  or  $Y \succ_i X$  (no abstention or indifference)
  - **Transitivity:** If  $X \succ_i Y$  and  $Y \succ_i Z$ , then  $X \succ_i Z$  (consistency across choices)
- Non-transitive preferences can be problematic:
  - Example: If Chocolate  $\succ_i$  Vanilla  $\succ_i$  Strawberry  $\succ_i$  Chocolate
  - No “best” choice exists - each flavor is defeated by another
  - Leads to indecision or exploitation in sequential choices
- If preferences are complete and transitive, they correspond to a ranked list
- Mathematically provable: Any complete and transitive preferences can be represented as a ranked list, and vice versa

# Voting Paradox

# Voting Paradox (Condorcet Paradox)

- The Simplest Case: Three voters, three alternatives

<b>Voter</b>	<b>First preference</b>	<b>Second preference</b>	<b>Third preference</b>
Voter 1	A	B	C
Voter 2	B	C	A
Voter 3	C	A	B

- Each voter has rational (transitive) preferences
- Majority rule on pairs produces:
  - A beats B (voters 1 and 3)
  - B beats C (voters 1 and 2)
  - C beats A (voters 2 and 3)
- Result: Cyclic group preferences despite transitive individual preferences
- Paradox: Even with rational individuals, the group can be “irrational”
- This creates fundamental problems for democratic decision-making

# Voting Paradox in Social Contexts

- A More Complicated Situation: Party preferences over spending priorities

Party	First preference	Second preference	Third preference
Left (3)	education	health	security
Center (4)	health	security	education
Right (5)	security	education	health

- Individual vs. Multi-criteria decision making:
  - The paradox can arise even for a single individual deciding between options with multiple criteria
  - Example: College choice based on ranking, class size, and scholarship money

College	National Ranking	Average Class Size	Scholarship Money
A	4	40	\$3000
B	8	18	\$1000
C	12	24	\$8000

- When each option wins on different criteria, cycling can occur



## Voting Systems: Majority Rule

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)
  - Problem: Group preferences may not be transitive (Condorcet Paradox)



# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)
  - Problem: Group preferences may not be transitive (Condorcet Paradox)
  - Cannot simply produce a ranked list when cycles occur

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)
  - Problem: Group preferences may not be transitive (Condorcet Paradox)
  - Cannot simply produce a ranked list when cycles occur
- Elimination tournaments based on majority rule:

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)
  - Problem: Group preferences may not be transitive (Condorcet Paradox)
  - Cannot simply produce a ranked list when cycles occur
- Elimination tournaments based on majority rule:
  - Structure comparisons as sequential eliminations

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)
  - Problem: Group preferences may not be transitive (Condorcet Paradox)
  - Cannot simply produce a ranked list when cycles occur
- Elimination tournaments based on majority rule:
  - Structure comparisons as sequential eliminations
  - Arrange alternatives in pairs for voting

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)
  - Problem: Group preferences may not be transitive (Condorcet Paradox)
  - Cannot simply produce a ranked list when cycles occur
- Elimination tournaments based on majority rule:
  - Structure comparisons as sequential eliminations
  - Arrange alternatives in pairs for voting
  - The winner advances to face the next alternative

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)
  - Problem: Group preferences may not be transitive (Condorcet Paradox)
  - Cannot simply produce a ranked list when cycles occur
- Elimination tournaments based on majority rule:
  - Structure comparisons as sequential eliminations
  - Arrange alternatives in pairs for voting
  - The winner advances to face the next alternative
  - Continue until overall winner emerges

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)
  - Problem: Group preferences may not be transitive (Condorcet Paradox)
  - Cannot simply produce a ranked list when cycles occur
- Elimination tournaments based on majority rule:
  - Structure comparisons as sequential eliminations
  - Arrange alternatives in pairs for voting
  - The winner advances to face the next alternative
  - Continue until overall winner emerges
- Key insight: The ordering of the pairs (the “agenda”) affects the outcome

# Voting Systems: Majority Rule

- For two alternatives: the alternative preferred by majority wins
  - Natural, intuitive, and widely accepted
  - Treats all voters equally
  - Produces a complete, transitive ranking
- For three or more alternatives:
  - Create group preferences by majority vote on each pair (pairwise comparisons)
  - Problem: Group preferences may not be transitive (Condorcet Paradox)
  - Cannot simply produce a ranked list when cycles occur
- Elimination tournaments based on majority rule:
  - Structure comparisons as sequential eliminations
  - Arrange alternatives in pairs for voting
  - The winner advances to face the next alternative
  - Continue until overall winner emerges
- Key insight: The ordering of the pairs (the “agenda”) affects the outcome
- Raises concerns about fairness and manipulation



# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:
  - $X$  beats  $Y$  (voters 1 and 3)

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:
  - $X$  beats  $Y$  (voters 1 and 3)
  - $Y$  beats  $Z$  (voters 1 and 2)

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:
  - $X$  beats  $Y$  (voters 1 and 3)
  - $Y$  beats  $Z$  (voters 1 and 2)
  - $Z$  beats  $X$  (voters 2 and 3)



# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:
  - $X$  beats  $Y$  (voters 1 and 3)
  - $Y$  beats  $Z$  (voters 1 and 2)
  - $Z$  beats  $X$  (voters 2 and 3)
- Agenda manipulation through different tournament structures:

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:
  - $X$  beats  $Y$  (voters 1 and 3)
  - $Y$  beats  $Z$  (voters 1 and 2)
  - $Z$  beats  $X$  (voters 2 and 3)
- Agenda manipulation through different tournament structures:
  - Agenda 1:  $X$  vs  $Y$  first, then winner vs  $Z \implies Z$  wins

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:
  - $X$  beats  $Y$  (voters 1 and 3)
  - $Y$  beats  $Z$  (voters 1 and 2)
  - $Z$  beats  $X$  (voters 2 and 3)
- Agenda manipulation through different tournament structures:
  - Agenda 1:  $X$  vs  $Y$  first, then winner vs  $Z \implies Z$  wins
  - Agenda 2:  $Y$  vs  $Z$  first, then winner vs  $X \implies X$  wins

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:
  - $X$  beats  $Y$  (voters 1 and 3)
  - $Y$  beats  $Z$  (voters 1 and 2)
  - $Z$  beats  $X$  (voters 2 and 3)
- Agenda manipulation through different tournament structures:
  - Agenda 1:  $X$  vs  $Y$  first, then winner vs  $Z \implies Z$  wins
  - Agenda 2:  $Y$  vs  $Z$  first, then winner vs  $X \implies X$  wins
  - Agenda 3:  $X$  vs  $Z$  first, then winner vs  $Y \implies Y$  wins

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:
  - $X$  beats  $Y$  (voters 1 and 3)
  - $Y$  beats  $Z$  (voters 1 and 2)
  - $Z$  beats  $X$  (voters 2 and 3)
- Agenda manipulation through different tournament structures:
  - Agenda 1:  $X$  vs  $Y$  first, then winner vs  $Z \implies Z$  wins
  - Agenda 2:  $Y$  vs  $Z$  first, then winner vs  $X \implies X$  wins
  - Agenda 3:  $X$  vs  $Z$  first, then winner vs  $Y \implies Y$  wins
- Power of agenda-setting: The person who controls the order of voting can determine the outcome

# Example of Strategic Agenda-Setting

- Individual rankings:
  - Voter 1:  $X \succ Y \succ Z$
  - Voter 2:  $Y \succ Z \succ X$
  - Voter 3:  $Z \succ X \succ Y$
- Pairwise majority votes:
  - $X$  beats  $Y$  (voters 1 and 3)
  - $Y$  beats  $Z$  (voters 1 and 2)
  - $Z$  beats  $X$  (voters 2 and 3)
- Agenda manipulation through different tournament structures:
  - Agenda 1:  $X$  vs  $Y$  first, then winner vs  $Z \implies Z$  wins
  - Agenda 2:  $Y$  vs  $Z$  first, then winner vs  $X \implies X$  wins
  - Agenda 3:  $X$  vs  $Z$  first, then winner vs  $Y \implies Y$  wins
- Power of agenda-setting: The person who controls the order of voting can determine the outcome
- Real-world impact: Parliamentary procedure, committee votes, and meeting agendas all involve this kind of strategic sequencing

## Voting Systems: Positional Voting

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking



# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting



# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting
  - Used in: Most political elections, "first past the post" systems

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting
  - Used in: Most political elections, "first past the post" systems
- Advantages:

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting
  - Used in: Most political elections, "first past the post" systems
- Advantages:
  - Always produces a complete, transitive ranking

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting
  - Used in: Most political elections, "first past the post" systems
- Advantages:
  - Always produces a complete, transitive ranking
  - Considers all positions in rankings (Borda)

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting
  - Used in: Most political elections, "first past the post" systems
- Advantages:
  - Always produces a complete, transitive ranking
  - Considers all positions in rankings (Borda)
  - Simple to implement and understand

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting
  - Used in: Most political elections, "first past the post" systems
- Advantages:
  - Always produces a complete, transitive ranking
  - Considers all positions in rankings (Borda)
  - Simple to implement and understand
- Key problems:

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting
  - Used in: Most political elections, "first past the post" systems
- Advantages:
  - Always produces a complete, transitive ranking
  - Considers all positions in rankings (Borda)
  - Simple to implement and understand
- Key problems:
  - Results can be manipulated by strategic voting

# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting
  - Used in: Most political elections, "first past the post" systems
- Advantages:
  - Always produces a complete, transitive ranking
  - Considers all positions in rankings (Borda)
  - Simple to implement and understand
- Key problems:
  - Results can be manipulated by strategic voting
  - "Irrelevant" alternatives can change the outcome



# Positional Voting Systems

- Direct approach: Assign weights based on position in each voter's ranking
- Borda Count: Named after Jean-Charles de Borda (1770)
  - With  $k$  alternatives:  $k - 1$  points for first place,  $k - 2$  for second, etc.
  - Each alternative receives points based on its positions in all rankings
  - Alternatives ranked by total points received
  - Used in: Heisman Trophy, AP poll rankings, MLB MVP selection
- Plurality voting:
  - 1 point for first place, 0 for all others
  - Special case of positional voting
  - Used in: Most political elections, "first past the post" systems
- Advantages:
  - Always produces a complete, transitive ranking
  - Considers all positions in rankings (Borda)
  - Simple to implement and understand
- Key problems:
  - Results can be manipulated by strategic voting
  - "Irrelevant" alternatives can change the outcome
  - Vulnerable to strategic addition or removal of alternatives

# Example of Borda Count

- Example with 4 alternatives (A, B, C, D) and 2 voters:

Voter	Ranking
Voter 1	$A \succ_1 B \succ_1 C \succ_1 D$
Voter 2	$B \succ_2 C \succ_2 A \succ_2 D$

- Points assigned:
  - A receives: 3 (from voter 1) + 1 (from voter 2) = 4 points
  - B receives: 2 (from voter 1) + 3 (from voter 2) = 5 points
  - C receives: 1 (from voter 1) + 2 (from voter 2) = 3 points
  - D receives: 0 (from voter 1) + 0 (from voter 2) = 0 points
- Group ranking:  $B \succ A \succ C \succ D$
- Note that B wins even though neither voter places the same alternatives in the same positions
- The Borda Count attempts to account for “strength of preference” by including all positions

# Example of Strategic Manipulation in Borda Count

- True preferences of five film critics:

Critics	First	Second	Third
1,2,3	Citizen Kane	The Godfather	Pulp Fiction
4,5	The Godfather	Citizen Kane	Pulp Fiction

- Calculating the Borda Count:
  - Citizen Kane receives:  $3(2) + 2(1) = 8$  points
  - The Godfather receives:  $3(1) + 2(2) = 7$  points
  - Pulp Fiction receives:  $3(0) + 2(0) = 0$  points
- Strategic misrepresentation by critics 4,5:

Critics	First	Second	Third
1,2,3	Citizen Kane	The Godfather	Pulp Fiction
4,5	The Godfather	Pulp Fiction	Citizen Kane

- Citizen Kane receives:  $3(2) + 2(0) = 6$  points
  - The Godfather receives:  $3(1) + 2(2) = 7$  points
  - The Godfather now wins by strategically “burying” the main competitor
- Strategic voting is rational when voters understand the system
- This undermines the goal of having votes reflect true preferences

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)



# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)
  - **Non-dictatorship**: No single voter determines the outcome for all profiles

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)
  - **Non-dictatorship**: No single voter determines the outcome for all profiles
- Arrow's Theorem (Kenneth Arrow, 1950s):

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)
  - **Non-dictatorship**: No single voter determines the outcome for all profiles
- Arrow's Theorem (Kenneth Arrow, 1950s):
  - If there are at least three alternatives, then no voting system can satisfy all three properties simultaneously

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)
  - **Non-dictatorship**: No single voter determines the outcome for all profiles
- Arrow's Theorem (Kenneth Arrow, 1950s):
  - If there are at least three alternatives, then no voting system can satisfy all three properties simultaneously
  - Equivalent formulation: Any voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA must be a dictatorship

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)
  - **Non-dictatorship**: No single voter determines the outcome for all profiles
- Arrow's Theorem (Kenneth Arrow, 1950s):
  - If there are at least three alternatives, then no voting system can satisfy all three properties simultaneously
  - Equivalent formulation: Any voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA must be a dictatorship
- Consequences:

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)
  - **Non-dictatorship**: No single voter determines the outcome for all profiles
- Arrow's Theorem (Kenneth Arrow, 1950s):
  - If there are at least three alternatives, then no voting system can satisfy all three properties simultaneously
  - Equivalent formulation: Any voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA must be a dictatorship
- Consequences:
  - All voting systems must violate at least one of these reasonable properties

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)
  - **Non-dictatorship**: No single voter determines the outcome for all profiles
- Arrow's Theorem (Kenneth Arrow, 1950s):
  - If there are at least three alternatives, then no voting system can satisfy all three properties simultaneously
  - Equivalent formulation: Any voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA must be a dictatorship
- Consequences:
  - All voting systems must violate at least one of these reasonable properties
  - No "perfect" voting system exists

# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)
  - **Non-dictatorship**: No single voter determines the outcome for all profiles
- Arrow's Theorem (Kenneth Arrow, 1950s):
  - If there are at least three alternatives, then no voting system can satisfy all three properties simultaneously
  - Equivalent formulation: Any voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA must be a dictatorship
- Consequences:
  - All voting systems must violate at least one of these reasonable properties
  - No "perfect" voting system exists
  - Social choice involves fundamental trade-offs



# Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

- Question: Is there any voting system that avoids all pathologies we've seen?
- Consider voting systems that satisfy three reasonable properties:
  - **Unanimity (Pareto Principle)**: If all voters prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , then the group ranking puts  $X$  above  $Y$
  - **Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA)**: The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  depends only on how each voter ranks  $X$  and  $Y$  (not on other alternatives)
  - **Non-dictatorship**: No single voter determines the outcome for all profiles
- Arrow's Theorem (Kenneth Arrow, 1950s):
  - If there are at least three alternatives, then no voting system can satisfy all three properties simultaneously
  - Equivalent formulation: Any voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA must be a dictatorship
- Consequences:
  - All voting systems must violate at least one of these reasonable properties
  - No "perfect" voting system exists
  - Social choice involves fundamental trade-offs
  - Earned Arrow the Nobel Prize in Economics (1972)

# Understanding Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives

- Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA) is subtle but critical:
  - The group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  should depend only on how each individual ranks  $X$  and  $Y$
  - Changes in the ranking of other alternatives shouldn't affect  $X$  vs  $Y$  outcome
- Example: Two profiles with different rankings but same  $X$  vs  $Y$  preferences

Profile 1		Profile 2	
Individual	Ranking	Individual	Ranking
1	$W \succ X \succ Y \succ Z$	1	$X \succ Y \succ W \succ Z$
2	$W \succ Z \succ Y \succ X$	2	$Z \succ Y \succ X \succ W$
3	$X \succ W \succ Z \succ Y$	3	$W \succ X \succ Y \succ Z$

- In both profiles, individual 1 and 3 prefer  $X$  to  $Y$ , while individual 2 prefers  $Y$  to  $X$
- IIA requires the group ranking of  $X$  and  $Y$  to be the same in both profiles
- Violations of IIA:
  - The Borda Count violates IIA (as we saw in the film critics example)
  - Elimination tournaments violate IIA (through strategic agenda-setting)
- IIA prevents “irrelevant” alternatives from acting as spoilers

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:
  - $P$ : a profile of individual rankings (complete collection of all voters' rankings)

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:
  - $P$ : a profile of individual rankings (complete collection of all voters' rankings)
  - $F(P)$ : the group ranking produced by applying  $F$  to profile  $P$

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:
  - $P$ : a profile of individual rankings (complete collection of all voters' rankings)
  - $F(P)$ : the group ranking produced by applying  $F$  to profile  $P$
  - $X \succ_i Y$ : voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:
  - $P$ : a profile of individual rankings (complete collection of all voters' rankings)
  - $F(P)$ : the group ranking produced by applying  $F$  to profile  $P$
  - $X \succ_i Y$ : voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
  - $X \succ Y$ : the group ranking places  $X$  above  $Y$



# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:
  - $P$ : a profile of individual rankings (complete collection of all voters' rankings)
  - $F(P)$ : the group ranking produced by applying  $F$  to profile  $P$
  - $X \succ_i Y$ : voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
  - $X \succ Y$ : the group ranking places  $X$  above  $Y$
- Goal: Show that  $F$  must be a dictatorship (i.e., there exists a voter  $j$  such that for any profile, the group ranking always matches  $j$ 's individual ranking)

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:
  - $P$ : a profile of individual rankings (complete collection of all voters' rankings)
  - $F(P)$ : the group ranking produced by applying  $F$  to profile  $P$
  - $X \succ_i Y$ : voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
  - $X \succ Y$ : the group ranking places  $X$  above  $Y$
- Goal: Show that  $F$  must be a dictatorship (i.e., there exists a voter  $j$  such that for any profile, the group ranking always matches  $j$ 's individual ranking)
- Proof approach:

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:
  - $P$ : a profile of individual rankings (complete collection of all voters' rankings)
  - $F(P)$ : the group ranking produced by applying  $F$  to profile  $P$
  - $X \succ_i Y$ : voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
  - $X \succ Y$ : the group ranking places  $X$  above  $Y$
- Goal: Show that  $F$  must be a dictatorship (i.e., there exists a voter  $j$  such that for any profile, the group ranking always matches  $j$ 's individual ranking)
- Proof approach:
  - Step 1: Show that polarizing alternatives must be ranked first or last

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:
  - $P$ : a profile of individual rankings (complete collection of all voters' rankings)
  - $F(P)$ : the group ranking produced by applying  $F$  to profile  $P$
  - $X \succ_i Y$ : voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
  - $X \succ Y$ : the group ranking places  $X$  above  $Y$
- Goal: Show that  $F$  must be a dictatorship (i.e., there exists a voter  $j$  such that for any profile, the group ranking always matches  $j$ 's individual ranking)
- Proof approach:
  - Step 1: Show that polarizing alternatives must be ranked first or last
  - Step 2: Identify a voter with decisive power

# Complete Proof: Setting and Terminology

- Let  $F$  be a voting system satisfying Unanimity and IIA
- Notation:
  - $P$ : a profile of individual rankings (complete collection of all voters' rankings)
  - $F(P)$ : the group ranking produced by applying  $F$  to profile  $P$
  - $X \succ_i Y$ : voter  $i$  prefers  $X$  to  $Y$
  - $X \succ Y$ : the group ranking places  $X$  above  $Y$
- Goal: Show that  $F$  must be a dictatorship (i.e., there exists a voter  $j$  such that for any profile, the group ranking always matches  $j$ 's individual ranking)
- Proof approach:
  - Step 1: Show that polarizing alternatives must be ranked first or last
  - Step 2: Identify a voter with decisive power
  - Step 3: Prove this voter is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:



## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$
  - Then there exist alternatives  $Y, Z$  such that  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  in  $F(P)$

# Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$
  - Then there exist alternatives  $Y, Z$  such that  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  in  $F(P)$
  - Construct profile  $P'$  by moving  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$  in each ranking where  $Y$  was preferred to  $Z$

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$
  - Then there exist alternatives  $Y, Z$  such that  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  in  $F(P)$
  - Construct profile  $P'$  by moving  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$  in each ranking where  $Y$  was preferred to  $Z$
  - The relative positions of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  remain unchanged in each individual ranking

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$
  - Then there exist alternatives  $Y, Z$  such that  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  in  $F(P)$
  - Construct profile  $P'$  by moving  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$  in each ranking where  $Y$  was preferred to  $Z$
  - The relative positions of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  remain unchanged in each individual ranking
  - By IIA, the group ranking of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  must remain the same in  $F(P')$

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$
  - Then there exist alternatives  $Y, Z$  such that  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  in  $F(P)$
  - Construct profile  $P'$  by moving  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$  in each ranking where  $Y$  was preferred to  $Z$
  - The relative positions of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  remain unchanged in each individual ranking
  - By IIA, the group ranking of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  must remain the same in  $F(P')$
  - So  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  still holds in  $F(P')$

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$
  - Then there exist alternatives  $Y, Z$  such that  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  in  $F(P)$
  - Construct profile  $P'$  by moving  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$  in each ranking where  $Y$  was preferred to  $Z$
  - The relative positions of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  remain unchanged in each individual ranking
  - By IIA, the group ranking of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  must remain the same in  $F(P')$
  - So  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  still holds in  $F(P')$
  - But in  $P'$ , every voter ranks  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$
  - Then there exist alternatives  $Y, Z$  such that  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  in  $F(P)$
  - Construct profile  $P'$  by moving  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$  in each ranking where  $Y$  was preferred to  $Z$
  - The relative positions of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  remain unchanged in each individual ranking
  - By IIA, the group ranking of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  must remain the same in  $F(P')$
  - So  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  still holds in  $F(P')$
  - But in  $P'$ , every voter ranks  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$
  - By Unanimity,  $Z \succ Y$  must hold in  $F(P')$



## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$
  - Then there exist alternatives  $Y, Z$  such that  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  in  $F(P)$
  - Construct profile  $P'$  by moving  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$  in each ranking where  $Y$  was preferred to  $Z$
  - The relative positions of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  remain unchanged in each individual ranking
  - By IIA, the group ranking of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  must remain the same in  $F(P')$
  - So  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  still holds in  $F(P')$
  - But in  $P'$ , every voter ranks  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$
  - By Unanimity,  $Z \succ Y$  must hold in  $F(P')$
  - This creates a cycle:  $Y \succ X \succ Z \succ Y$ , contradicting transitivity

## Step 1: Polarizing Alternatives

- **Definition:** An alternative  $X$  is polarizing if every voter ranks it either first or last
- **Claim:** In any profile  $P$  where  $X$  is polarizing,  $F$  must place  $X$  either first or last in the group ranking  $F(P)$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose  $X$  is neither first nor last in  $F(P)$
  - Then there exist alternatives  $Y, Z$  such that  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  in  $F(P)$
  - Construct profile  $P'$  by moving  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$  in each ranking where  $Y$  was preferred to  $Z$
  - The relative positions of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  remain unchanged in each individual ranking
  - By IIA, the group ranking of  $X$  vs.  $Y$  and  $X$  vs.  $Z$  must remain the same in  $F(P')$
  - So  $Y \succ X \succ Z$  still holds in  $F(P')$
  - But in  $P'$ , every voter ranks  $Z$  ahead of  $Y$
  - By Unanimity,  $Z \succ Y$  must hold in  $F(P')$
  - This creates a cycle:  $Y \succ X \succ Z \succ Y$ , contradicting transitivity
- Therefore,  $X$  must be ranked either first or last in  $F(P)$

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last
  - $P_k$ : All voters rank  $X$  first

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last
  - $P_k$ : All voters rank  $X$  first
- By Unanimity:

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last
  - $P_k$ : All voters rank  $X$  first
- By Unanimity:
  - $X$  is ranked last in  $F(P_0)$



## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last
  - $P_k$ : All voters rank  $X$  first
- By Unanimity:
  - $X$  is ranked last in  $F(P_0)$
  - $X$  is ranked first in  $F(P_k)$

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last
  - $P_k$ : All voters rank  $X$  first
- By Unanimity:
  - $X$  is ranked last in  $F(P_0)$
  - $X$  is ranked first in  $F(P_k)$
- Therefore,  $X$  must change position from last to first at some point

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last
  - $P_k$ : All voters rank  $X$  first
- By Unanimity:
  - $X$  is ranked last in  $F(P_0)$
  - $X$  is ranked first in  $F(P_k)$
- Therefore,  $X$  must change position from last to first at some point
- Let  $j$  be the first index such that  $X$  is not last in  $F(P_j)$

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last
  - $P_k$ : All voters rank  $X$  first
- By Unanimity:
  - $X$  is ranked last in  $F(P_0)$
  - $X$  is ranked first in  $F(P_k)$
- Therefore,  $X$  must change position from last to first at some point
- Let  $j$  be the first index such that  $X$  is not last in  $F(P_j)$
- Since  $X$  is polarizing in  $P_j$ , and not last in  $F(P_j)$ , it must be first in  $F(P_j)$

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last
  - $P_k$ : All voters rank  $X$  first
- By Unanimity:
  - $X$  is ranked last in  $F(P_0)$
  - $X$  is ranked first in  $F(P_k)$
- Therefore,  $X$  must change position from last to first at some point
- Let  $j$  be the first index such that  $X$  is not last in  $F(P_j)$
- Since  $X$  is polarizing in  $P_j$ , and not last in  $F(P_j)$ , it must be first in  $F(P_j)$
- Voter  $j$  has decisive power: changing just  $j$ 's vote moves  $X$  from last to first in the group ranking

## Step 2: Identifying a Potential Dictator

- Construct a sequence of profiles  $P_0, P_1, \dots, P_k$  where:
  - $P_0$ : All voters rank alternative  $X$  last
  - $P_i$ : The first  $i$  voters rank  $X$  first, the rest rank  $X$  last
  - $P_k$ : All voters rank  $X$  first
- By Unanimity:
  - $X$  is ranked last in  $F(P_0)$
  - $X$  is ranked first in  $F(P_k)$
- Therefore,  $X$  must change position from last to first at some point
- Let  $j$  be the first index such that  $X$  is not last in  $F(P_j)$
- Since  $X$  is polarizing in  $P_j$ , and not last in  $F(P_j)$ , it must be first in  $F(P_j)$
- Voter  $j$  has decisive power: changing just  $j$ 's vote moves  $X$  from last to first in the group ranking
- This voter  $j$  is our candidate for being the dictator

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$



## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$
  - All other relative orderings remain the same as in  $P_j$

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$
  - All other relative orderings remain the same as in  $P_j$
- Observations:

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$
  - All other relative orderings remain the same as in  $P_j$
- Observations:
  - $Q'$  and  $P_j$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Z$ , so by IIA,  $X \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$
  - All other relative orderings remain the same as in  $P_j$
- Observations:
  - $Q'$  and  $P_j$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Z$ , so by IIA,  $X \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
  - $Q'$  and  $P_{j-1}$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Y$ , so by IIA,  $Y \succ X$  in  $F(Q')$

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$
  - All other relative orderings remain the same as in  $P_j$
- Observations:
  - $Q'$  and  $P_j$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Z$ , so by IIA,  $X \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
  - $Q'$  and  $P_{j-1}$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Y$ , so by IIA,  $Y \succ X$  in  $F(Q')$
  - By transitivity of the group ranking,  $Y \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$



## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$
  - All other relative orderings remain the same as in  $P_j$
- Observations:
  - $Q'$  and  $P_j$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Z$ , so by IIA,  $X \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
  - $Q'$  and  $P_{j-1}$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Y$ , so by IIA,  $Y \succ X$  in  $F(Q')$
  - By transitivity of the group ranking,  $Y \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
- For any profile  $Q$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$ :

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$
  - All other relative orderings remain the same as in  $P_j$
- Observations:
  - $Q'$  and  $P_j$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Z$ , so by IIA,  $X \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
  - $Q'$  and  $P_{j-1}$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Y$ , so by IIA,  $Y \succ X$  in  $F(Q')$
  - By transitivity of the group ranking,  $Y \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
- For any profile  $Q$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$ :
  - $Q$  and  $Q'$  are identical when restricted to  $Y$  and  $Z$

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$
  - All other relative orderings remain the same as in  $P_j$
- Observations:
  - $Q'$  and  $P_j$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Z$ , so by IIA,  $X \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
  - $Q'$  and  $P_{j-1}$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Y$ , so by IIA,  $Y \succ X$  in  $F(Q')$
  - By transitivity of the group ranking,  $Y \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
- For any profile  $Q$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$ :
  - $Q$  and  $Q'$  are identical when restricted to  $Y$  and  $Z$
  - By IIA,  $Y \succ Z$  in  $F(Q)$

## Step 3a: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- We must show  $j$  is a dictator for all pairs of alternatives
- First, consider any  $Y, Z \neq X$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$
- Construct a profile  $Q'$  where:
  - $X$  is ranked first by voters  $1, \dots, j$  and last by others
  - In  $j$ 's ranking,  $Y$  is placed just ahead of  $X$
  - All other relative orderings remain the same as in  $P_j$
- Observations:
  - $Q'$  and  $P_j$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Z$ , so by IIA,  $X \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
  - $Q'$  and  $P_{j-1}$  are identical when restricted to  $X$  and  $Y$ , so by IIA,  $Y \succ X$  in  $F(Q')$
  - By transitivity of the group ranking,  $Y \succ Z$  in  $F(Q')$
- For any profile  $Q$  where  $j$  ranks  $Y$  above  $Z$ :
  - $Q$  and  $Q'$  are identical when restricted to  $Y$  and  $Z$
  - By IIA,  $Y \succ Z$  in  $F(Q)$
- Therefore,  $j$  dictates the group ranking for all pairs not involving  $X$

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$



## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$
  - Consider  $X$  and some third alternative  $Y$  different from  $X$  and  $W$

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$
  - Consider  $X$  and some third alternative  $Y$  different from  $X$  and  $W$
  - For profiles  $P_{j-1}$  and  $P_j$ :

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$
  - Consider  $X$  and some third alternative  $Y$  different from  $X$  and  $W$
  - For profiles  $P_{j-1}$  and  $P_j$ :
    - These profiles differ only in  $j$ 's ranking

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$
  - Consider  $X$  and some third alternative  $Y$  different from  $X$  and  $W$
  - For profiles  $P_{j-1}$  and  $P_j$ :
    - These profiles differ only in  $j$ 's ranking
    - The ordering of  $X$  and  $Y$  changes in the group ranking

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$
  - Consider  $X$  and some third alternative  $Y$  different from  $X$  and  $W$
  - For profiles  $P_{j-1}$  and  $P_j$ :
    - These profiles differ only in  $j$ 's ranking
    - The ordering of  $X$  and  $Y$  changes in the group ranking
    - But this contradicts  $\ell$  being a dictator for this pair

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$
  - Consider  $X$  and some third alternative  $Y$  different from  $X$  and  $W$
  - For profiles  $P_{j-1}$  and  $P_j$ :
    - These profiles differ only in  $j$ 's ranking
    - The ordering of  $X$  and  $Y$  changes in the group ranking
    - But this contradicts  $\ell$  being a dictator for this pair
- Therefore:

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$
  - Consider  $X$  and some third alternative  $Y$  different from  $X$  and  $W$
  - For profiles  $P_{j-1}$  and  $P_j$ :
    - These profiles differ only in  $j$ 's ranking
    - The ordering of  $X$  and  $Y$  changes in the group ranking
    - But this contradicts  $\ell$  being a dictator for this pair
- Therefore:
  - Voter  $j$  must be the dictator for all pairs



## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$
  - Consider  $X$  and some third alternative  $Y$  different from  $X$  and  $W$
  - For profiles  $P_{j-1}$  and  $P_j$ :
    - These profiles differ only in  $j$ 's ranking
    - The ordering of  $X$  and  $Y$  changes in the group ranking
    - But this contradicts  $\ell$  being a dictator for this pair
- Therefore:
  - Voter  $j$  must be the dictator for all pairs
  - The only voting systems satisfying Unanimity and IIA are dictatorships

## Step 3b: Proving $j$ is a Dictator

- Now we must show  $j$  is also a dictator for pairs involving  $X$
- Proof by contradiction:
  - Suppose there exists another voter  $\ell \neq j$  who dictates some pair involving  $X$
  - Apply the same construction using a different alternative  $W$  instead of  $X$
  - This would establish  $\ell$  as a dictator for all pairs not involving  $W$
  - Consider  $X$  and some third alternative  $Y$  different from  $X$  and  $W$
  - For profiles  $P_{j-1}$  and  $P_j$ :
    - These profiles differ only in  $j$ 's ranking
    - The ordering of  $X$  and  $Y$  changes in the group ranking
    - But this contradicts  $\ell$  being a dictator for this pair
- Therefore:
  - Voter  $j$  must be the dictator for all pairs
  - The only voting systems satisfying Unanimity and IIA are dictatorships
  - This completes the proof of Arrow's Impossibility Theorem

## Single-Peaked Preferences

# Single-Peaked Preferences I

- Definition: A voter has single-peaked preferences if there is no alternative  $X_s$  for which both neighboring alternatives  $X_{s-1}$  and  $X_{s+1}$  are preferred to  $X_s$

# Single-Peaked Preferences I

- Definition: A voter has single-peaked preferences if there is no alternative  $X_s$  for which both neighboring alternatives  $X_{s-1}$  and  $X_{s+1}$  are preferred to  $X_s$
- Intuition: Alternatives are ordered along a spectrum, and each voter has a most preferred point

# Single-Peaked Preferences I

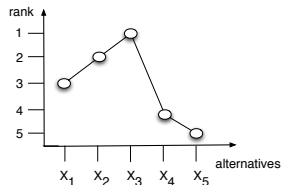
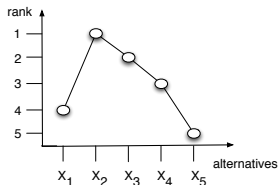
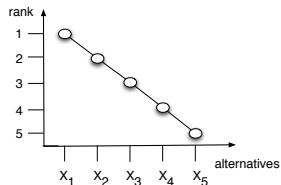
- Definition: A voter has single-peaked preferences if there is no alternative  $X_s$  for which both neighboring alternatives  $X_{s-1}$  and  $X_{s+1}$  are preferred to  $X_s$
- Intuition: Alternatives are ordered along a spectrum, and each voter has a most preferred point
  - Preferences decrease consistently moving away from that peak in either direction

# Single-Peaked Preferences I

- Definition: A voter has single-peaked preferences if there is no alternative  $X_s$  for which both neighboring alternatives  $X_{s-1}$  and  $X_{s+1}$  are preferred to  $X_s$
- Intuition: Alternatives are ordered along a spectrum, and each voter has a most preferred point
  - Preferences decrease consistently moving away from that peak in either direction
  - No “valleys” in the preference ranking

# Single-Peaked Preferences I

- Definition: A voter has single-peaked preferences if there is no alternative  $X_s$  for which both neighboring alternatives  $X_{s-1}$  and  $X_{s+1}$  are preferred to  $X_s$
- Intuition: Alternatives are ordered along a spectrum, and each voter has a most preferred point
  - Preferences decrease consistently moving away from that peak in either direction
  - No “valleys” in the preference ranking
- Visual representation examples:





# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)
  - Tax rates (optimal rate somewhere between 0% and 100%)

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)
  - Tax rates (optimal rate somewhere between 0% and 100%)
  - Environmental regulations (balance between economic and ecological concerns)

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)
  - Tax rates (optimal rate somewhere between 0% and 100%)
  - Environmental regulations (balance between economic and ecological concerns)
- Importance: Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences



# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)
  - Tax rates (optimal rate somewhere between 0% and 100%)
  - Environmental regulations (balance between economic and ecological concerns)
- Importance: Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences
- Example of non-single-peaked preferences: Preferring extremes to middle positions

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)
  - Tax rates (optimal rate somewhere between 0% and 100%)
  - Environmental regulations (balance between economic and ecological concerns)
- Importance: Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences
- Example of non-single-peaked preferences: Preferring extremes to middle positions
- Real-world implications:

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)
  - Tax rates (optimal rate somewhere between 0% and 100%)
  - Environmental regulations (balance between economic and ecological concerns)
- Importance: Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences
- Example of non-single-peaked preferences: Preferring extremes to middle positions
- Real-world implications:
  - Many political preferences naturally follow a single-peaked pattern

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)
  - Tax rates (optimal rate somewhere between 0% and 100%)
  - Environmental regulations (balance between economic and ecological concerns)
- Importance: Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences
- Example of non-single-peaked preferences: Preferring extremes to middle positions
- Real-world implications:
  - Many political preferences naturally follow a single-peaked pattern
  - Economic policy preferences often peak at a voter's ideal point on a spectrum

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)
  - Tax rates (optimal rate somewhere between 0% and 100%)
  - Environmental regulations (balance between economic and ecological concerns)
- Importance: Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences
- Example of non-single-peaked preferences: Preferring extremes to middle positions
- Real-world implications:
  - Many political preferences naturally follow a single-peaked pattern
  - Economic policy preferences often peak at a voter's ideal point on a spectrum
  - When preferences are single-peaked, voting cycles are less likely to occur

# Single-Peaked Preference II

- Natural settings for single-peaked preferences:
  - Political candidates (left to right spectrum)
  - Levels of spending (low to high amounts)
  - Temperature settings (cold to hot)
  - Geographic locations (distance from ideal point)
  - Tax rates (optimal rate somewhere between 0% and 100%)
  - Environmental regulations (balance between economic and ecological concerns)
- Importance: Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences
- Example of non-single-peaked preferences: Preferring extremes to middle positions
- Real-world implications:
  - Many political preferences naturally follow a single-peaked pattern
  - Economic policy preferences often peak at a voter's ideal point on a spectrum
  - When preferences are single-peaked, voting cycles are less likely to occur
  - This helps explain why many democratic systems work despite Arrow's theorem

# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:

# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:
  - Majority rule applied to pairs produces transitive group preferences



# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:
  - Majority rule applied to pairs produces transitive group preferences
  - The “median voter’s” favorite alternative defeats all others in pairwise majority votes

# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:
  - Majority rule applied to pairs produces transitive group preferences
  - The “median voter’s” favorite alternative defeats all others in pairwise majority votes
- Median voter: The voter whose favorite alternative is the median among all voters’ favorites

# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:
  - Majority rule applied to pairs produces transitive group preferences
  - The “median voter’s” favorite alternative defeats all others in pairwise majority votes
- Median voter: The voter whose favorite alternative is the median among all voters’ favorites
- Intuition: The median voter’s favorite position has majority support against any alternative

# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:
  - Majority rule applied to pairs produces transitive group preferences
  - The “median voter’s” favorite alternative defeats all others in pairwise majority votes
- Median voter: The voter whose favorite alternative is the median among all voters’ favorites
- Intuition: The median voter’s favorite position has majority support against any alternative
- Proof outline:

# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:
  - Majority rule applied to pairs produces transitive group preferences
  - The “median voter’s” favorite alternative defeats all others in pairwise majority votes
- Median voter: The voter whose favorite alternative is the median among all voters’ favorites
- Intuition: The median voter’s favorite position has majority support against any alternative
- Proof outline:
  - For any alternative to the right of the median, all voters with peaks at or left of the median prefer the median

# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:
  - Majority rule applied to pairs produces transitive group preferences
  - The “median voter’s” favorite alternative defeats all others in pairwise majority votes
- Median voter: The voter whose favorite alternative is the median among all voters’ favorites
- Intuition: The median voter’s favorite position has majority support against any alternative
- Proof outline:
  - For any alternative to the right of the median, all voters with peaks at or left of the median prefer the median
  - This gives the median position majority support against all alternatives to its right

# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:
  - Majority rule applied to pairs produces transitive group preferences
  - The “median voter’s” favorite alternative defeats all others in pairwise majority votes
- Median voter: The voter whose favorite alternative is the median among all voters’ favorites
- Intuition: The median voter’s favorite position has majority support against any alternative
- Proof outline:
  - For any alternative to the right of the median, all voters with peaks at or left of the median prefer the median
  - This gives the median position majority support against all alternatives to its right
  - Similarly, the median defeats all alternatives to its left

# The Median Voter Theorem I

- If all preferences are single-peaked, then:
  - Majority rule applied to pairs produces transitive group preferences
  - The “median voter’s” favorite alternative defeats all others in pairwise majority votes
- Median voter: The voter whose favorite alternative is the median among all voters’ favorites
- Intuition: The median voter’s favorite position has majority support against any alternative
- Proof outline:
  - For any alternative to the right of the median, all voters with peaks at or left of the median prefer the median
  - This gives the median position majority support against all alternatives to its right
  - Similarly, the median defeats all alternatives to its left
  - Therefore, the median position wins all pairwise contests



# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:

# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:
  - No cycles in majority rule when preferences are single-peaked

# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:
  - No cycles in majority rule when preferences are single-peaked
  - Political candidates tend to adopt positions near the median voter

# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:
  - No cycles in majority rule when preferences are single-peaked
  - Political candidates tend to adopt positions near the median voter
  - Explains the tendency toward moderation in two-party systems

# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:
  - No cycles in majority rule when preferences are single-peaked
  - Political candidates tend to adopt positions near the median voter
  - Explains the tendency toward moderation in two-party systems
  - Economic policy often targets the middle class (“median income voter”)

# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:
  - No cycles in majority rule when preferences are single-peaked
  - Political candidates tend to adopt positions near the median voter
  - Explains the tendency toward moderation in two-party systems
  - Economic policy often targets the middle class (“median income voter”)
  - Stability of democratic outcomes despite theoretical challenges

# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:
  - No cycles in majority rule when preferences are single-peaked
  - Political candidates tend to adopt positions near the median voter
  - Explains the tendency toward moderation in two-party systems
  - Economic policy often targets the middle class (“median income voter”)
  - Stability of democratic outcomes despite theoretical challenges
- Limitations:

# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:
  - No cycles in majority rule when preferences are single-peaked
  - Political candidates tend to adopt positions near the median voter
  - Explains the tendency toward moderation in two-party systems
  - Economic policy often targets the middle class (“median income voter”)
  - Stability of democratic outcomes despite theoretical challenges
- Limitations:
  - Assumes alternatives can be ordered on a single dimension



# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:
  - No cycles in majority rule when preferences are single-peaked
  - Political candidates tend to adopt positions near the median voter
  - Explains the tendency toward moderation in two-party systems
  - Economic policy often targets the middle class (“median income voter”)
  - Stability of democratic outcomes despite theoretical challenges
- Limitations:
  - Assumes alternatives can be ordered on a single dimension
  - Complex issues often involve multiple dimensions

# The Median Voter Theorem II

- Consequences:

- No cycles in majority rule when preferences are single-peaked
- Political candidates tend to adopt positions near the median voter
- Explains the tendency toward moderation in two-party systems
- Economic policy often targets the middle class (“median income voter”)
- Stability of democratic outcomes despite theoretical challenges

- Limitations:

- Assumes alternatives can be ordered on a single dimension
- Complex issues often involve multiple dimensions
- Strategic behavior can still affect outcomes

## Voting as Information Aggregation

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:



# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $X_i$  be 1 if voter  $i$  votes correctly, 0 otherwise

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $X_i$  be 1 if voter  $i$  votes correctly, 0 otherwise
  - Each  $X_i$  is independent with  $\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1) = q > 1/2$

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $X_i$  be 1 if voter  $i$  votes correctly, 0 otherwise
  - Each  $X_i$  is independent with  $\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1) = q > 1/2$
  - By the Law of Large Numbers, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i > \frac{1}{2}\right) \rightarrow 1$$

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $X_i$  be 1 if voter  $i$  votes correctly, 0 otherwise
  - Each  $X_i$  is independent with  $\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1) = q > 1/2$
  - By the Law of Large Numbers, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i > \frac{1}{2}\right) \rightarrow 1$$

- Implications:

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $X_i$  be 1 if voter  $i$  votes correctly, 0 otherwise
  - Each  $X_i$  is independent with  $\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1) = q > 1/2$
  - By the Law of Large Numbers, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i > \frac{1}{2}\right) \rightarrow 1$$

- Implications:
  - “Wisdom of crowds” in situations with objectively correct answers

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $X_i$  be 1 if voter  $i$  votes correctly, 0 otherwise
  - Each  $X_i$  is independent with  $\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1) = q > 1/2$
  - By the Law of Large Numbers, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i > \frac{1}{2}\right) \rightarrow 1$$

- Implications:
  - “Wisdom of crowds” in situations with objectively correct answers
  - Larger juries may reach more accurate verdicts



# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $X_i$  be 1 if voter  $i$  votes correctly, 0 otherwise
  - Each  $X_i$  is independent with  $\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1) = q > 1/2$
  - By the Law of Large Numbers, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i > \frac{1}{2}\right) \rightarrow 1$$

- Implications:
  - “Wisdom of crowds” in situations with objectively correct answers
  - Larger juries may reach more accurate verdicts
  - Statistical foundation for democratic decision-making

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $X_i$  be 1 if voter  $i$  votes correctly, 0 otherwise
  - Each  $X_i$  is independent with  $\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1) = q > 1/2$
  - By the Law of Large Numbers, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i > \frac{1}{2}\right) \rightarrow 1$$

- Implications:
  - “Wisdom of crowds” in situations with objectively correct answers
  - Larger juries may reach more accurate verdicts
  - Statistical foundation for democratic decision-making
  - Provides theoretical justification for polling and aggregating expert opinions

# The Condorcet Jury Theorem

- Setting:
  - Two alternatives, one of which is objectively better
  - Each voter receives an independent signal about which is better
  - Signals favor the correct alternative with probability  $q > 1/2$
- Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - As the number of voters increases, the probability that the majority chooses the correct alternative approaches 1
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $X_i$  be 1 if voter  $i$  votes correctly, 0 otherwise
  - Each  $X_i$  is independent with  $\mathbb{P}(X_i = 1) = q > 1/2$
  - By the Law of Large Numbers, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ :

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i > \frac{1}{2}\right) \rightarrow 1$$

- Implications:
  - “Wisdom of crowds” in situations with objectively correct answers
  - Larger juries may reach more accurate verdicts
  - Statistical foundation for democratic decision-making
  - Provides theoretical justification for polling and aggregating expert opinions
  - Shows how collective intelligence can exceed individual intelligence

## Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type



# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $s_i$  be voter  $i$ 's signal

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $s_i$  be voter  $i$ 's signal
  - A rational voter computes:  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct urn} \mid s_i, \text{my vote matters})$



# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $s_i$  be voter  $i$ 's signal
  - A rational voter computes:  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct urn} \mid s_i, \text{my vote matters})$
  - This probability may favor the opposite of what  $s_i$  suggests

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $s_i$  be voter  $i$ 's signal
  - A rational voter computes:  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct urn} \mid s_i, \text{my vote matters})$
  - This probability may favor the opposite of what  $s_i$  suggests
- Broader implications:

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $s_i$  be voter  $i$ 's signal
  - A rational voter computes:  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct urn} \mid s_i, \text{my vote matters})$
  - This probability may favor the opposite of what  $s_i$  suggests
- Broader implications:
  - Strategic voting can actually improve group accuracy

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $s_i$  be voter  $i$ 's signal
  - A rational voter computes:  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct urn} \mid s_i, \text{my vote matters})$
  - This probability may favor the opposite of what  $s_i$  suggests
- Broader implications:
  - Strategic voting can actually improve group accuracy
  - Optimal voting behavior should account for pivotality

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $s_i$  be voter  $i$ 's signal
  - A rational voter computes:  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct urn} \mid s_i, \text{my vote matters})$
  - This probability may favor the opposite of what  $s_i$  suggests
- Broader implications:
  - Strategic voting can actually improve group accuracy
  - Optimal voting behavior should account for pivotality
  - Simple majority rule may not extract all available information

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $s_i$  be voter  $i$ 's signal
  - A rational voter computes:  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct urn} \mid s_i, \text{my vote matters})$
  - This probability may favor the opposite of what  $s_i$  suggests
- Broader implications:
  - Strategic voting can actually improve group accuracy
  - Optimal voting behavior should account for pivotality
  - Simple majority rule may not extract all available information
  - Suggests need for mechanisms that encourage information sharing

# Insincere Voting for Information Aggregation

- Surprising result: Sometimes voters should vote insincerely even when trying to reach the correct group decision
- Example scenario:
  - Urn with either all white marbles or 90% green, 10% white
  - Each person draws one marble, then votes on urn type
  - Group wins only if majority vote is correct
- Strategic insight:
  - Your vote only matters when it breaks a tie
  - In that case, others' signals provide valuable information
  - Optimal strategy may be to vote against your own signal
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Let  $s_i$  be voter  $i$ 's signal
  - A rational voter computes:  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct urn} \mid s_i, \text{my vote matters})$
  - This probability may favor the opposite of what  $s_i$  suggests
- Broader implications:
  - Strategic voting can actually improve group accuracy
  - Optimal voting behavior should account for pivotality
  - Simple majority rule may not extract all available information
  - Suggests need for mechanisms that encourage information sharing
  - Relates to "pivotal voter" models in political economy

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote



# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):
  - In equilibrium, jurors with “innocent” signals sometimes vote to convict



# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):
  - In equilibrium, jurors with “innocent” signals sometimes vote to convict
  - As jury size increases, probability of convicting innocent defendants doesn't vanish

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):
  - In equilibrium, jurors with “innocent” signals sometimes vote to convict
  - As jury size increases, probability of convicting innocent defendants doesn’t vanish
  - Supermajority rules (e.g., 10 out of 12) may produce better outcomes than unanimity

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):
  - In equilibrium, jurors with “innocent” signals sometimes vote to convict
  - As jury size increases, probability of convicting innocent defendants doesn’t vanish
  - Supermajority rules (e.g., 10 out of 12) may produce better outcomes than unanimity
- Counterintuitive result: Unanimity rule may lead to more false convictions than majority rule

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):
  - In equilibrium, jurors with “innocent” signals sometimes vote to convict
  - As jury size increases, probability of convicting innocent defendants doesn’t vanish
  - Supermajority rules (e.g., 10 out of 12) may produce better outcomes than unanimity
- Counterintuitive result: Unanimity rule may lead to more false convictions than majority rule
- Policy implications:

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):
  - In equilibrium, jurors with “innocent” signals sometimes vote to convict
  - As jury size increases, probability of convicting innocent defendants doesn’t vanish
  - Supermajority rules (e.g., 10 out of 12) may produce better outcomes than unanimity
- Counterintuitive result: Unanimity rule may lead to more false convictions than majority rule
- Policy implications:
  - Voting rules should account for strategic behavior

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):
  - In equilibrium, jurors with “innocent” signals sometimes vote to convict
  - As jury size increases, probability of convicting innocent defendants doesn’t vanish
  - Supermajority rules (e.g., 10 out of 12) may produce better outcomes than unanimity
- Counterintuitive result: Unanimity rule may lead to more false convictions than majority rule
- Policy implications:
  - Voting rules should account for strategic behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve information sharing

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):
  - In equilibrium, jurors with “innocent” signals sometimes vote to convict
  - As jury size increases, probability of convicting innocent defendants doesn’t vanish
  - Supermajority rules (e.g., 10 out of 12) may produce better outcomes than unanimity
- Counterintuitive result: Unanimity rule may lead to more false convictions than majority rule
- Policy implications:
  - Voting rules should account for strategic behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve information sharing
  - Legal systems should balance error costs carefully

# Jury Decisions and Unanimity Rule

- Criminal trials: Conviction requires unanimous vote
- “Beyond reasonable doubt” standard: High threshold for conviction
- Each juror receives private signals about guilt/innocence
- Paradox with unanimity rule:
  - A juror’s vote matters only when everyone else votes to convict
  - This implies strong evidence of guilt, even with an innocence signal
  - Creates incentive to disregard innocence signals
- Game-theoretic analysis (Feddersen & Pesendorfer, 1998):
  - In equilibrium, jurors with “innocent” signals sometimes vote to convict
  - As jury size increases, probability of convicting innocent defendants doesn’t vanish
  - Supermajority rules (e.g., 10 out of 12) may produce better outcomes than unanimity
- Counterintuitive result: Unanimity rule may lead to more false convictions than majority rule
- Policy implications:
  - Voting rules should account for strategic behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve information sharing
  - Legal systems should balance error costs carefully
  - Simple voting rules may have complex strategic consequences



## Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$



# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades
  - Adding more voters doesn't guarantee correct outcome

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades
  - Adding more voters doesn't guarantee correct outcome
  - Group decision uses only the first few signals

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades
  - Adding more voters doesn't guarantee correct outcome
  - Group decision uses only the first few signals
  - Initial voters have disproportionate influence

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades
  - Adding more voters doesn't guarantee correct outcome
  - Group decision uses only the first few signals
  - Initial voters have disproportionate influence
  - Small changes in initial conditions can lead to different outcomes

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades
  - Adding more voters doesn't guarantee correct outcome
  - Group decision uses only the first few signals
  - Initial voters have disproportionate influence
  - Small changes in initial conditions can lead to different outcomes
- Real-world examples:



# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades
  - Adding more voters doesn't guarantee correct outcome
  - Group decision uses only the first few signals
  - Initial voters have disproportionate influence
  - Small changes in initial conditions can lead to different outcomes
- Real-world examples:
  - Primary elections (early states influence later voters)

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades
  - Adding more voters doesn't guarantee correct outcome
  - Group decision uses only the first few signals
  - Initial voters have disproportionate influence
  - Small changes in initial conditions can lead to different outcomes
- Real-world examples:
  - Primary elections (early states influence later voters)
  - Committee discussions (early speakers shape consensus)

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades
  - Adding more voters doesn't guarantee correct outcome
  - Group decision uses only the first few signals
  - Initial voters have disproportionate influence
  - Small changes in initial conditions can lead to different outcomes
- Real-world examples:
  - Primary elections (early states influence later voters)
  - Committee discussions (early speakers shape consensus)
  - Online reviews and ratings (early ratings influence later evaluations)

# Sequential Voting and Information Cascades

- When voting is sequential rather than simultaneous: Later voters see earlier votes (but not private signals), information cascades can develop
- Process:
  - After two votes for the same alternative, all subsequent voters rationally disregard their own signals; all follow the established pattern
  - Can lead to incorrect group decision even with many voters
- Mathematical formulation:
  - Voter  $n$  decides based on prior votes  $v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}$  and private signal  $s_n$
  - Vote according to  $\mathbb{P}(\text{correct option} \mid v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}, s_n)$
  - After certain voting patterns, this probability becomes independent of  $s_n$
- Key differences from Condorcet Jury Theorem:
  - Sequential voting can lead to wrong cascades
  - Adding more voters doesn't guarantee correct outcome
  - Group decision uses only the first few signals
  - Initial voters have disproportionate influence
  - Small changes in initial conditions can lead to different outcomes
- Real-world examples:
  - Primary elections (early states influence later voters)
  - Committee discussions (early speakers shape consensus)
  - Online reviews and ratings (early ratings influence later evaluations)
  - Academic citation patterns (papers with early citations attract more)

## Conclusion

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously



# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs
  - Strategic concerns must be considered in voting system design

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs
  - Strategic concerns must be considered in voting system design
  - Institutional design should account for strategic voter behavior

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs
  - Strategic concerns must be considered in voting system design
  - Institutional design should account for strategic voter behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve outcomes

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs
  - Strategic concerns must be considered in voting system design
  - Institutional design should account for strategic voter behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve outcomes
- Information aggregation aspects:



# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs
  - Strategic concerns must be considered in voting system design
  - Institutional design should account for strategic voter behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve outcomes
- Information aggregation aspects:
  - Condorcet Jury Theorem shows wisdom of crowds in simple settings

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs
  - Strategic concerns must be considered in voting system design
  - Institutional design should account for strategic voter behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve outcomes
- Information aggregation aspects:
  - Condorcet Jury Theorem shows wisdom of crowds in simple settings
  - But insincere voting and information cascades can limit this wisdom

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs
  - Strategic concerns must be considered in voting system design
  - Institutional design should account for strategic voter behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve outcomes
- Information aggregation aspects:
  - Condorcet Jury Theorem shows wisdom of crowds in simple settings
  - But insincere voting and information cascades can limit this wisdom
  - Voting rules like unanimity can have unexpected consequences

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs
  - Strategic concerns must be considered in voting system design
  - Institutional design should account for strategic voter behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve outcomes
- Information aggregation aspects:
  - Condorcet Jury Theorem shows wisdom of crowds in simple settings
  - But insincere voting and information cascades can limit this wisdom
  - Voting rules like unanimity can have unexpected consequences
  - Optimal aggregation mechanisms depend on information structure

# Key Takeaways

- Voting systems face fundamental limitations:
  - Condorcet Paradox: Even with rational individuals, group preferences can be cyclical
  - Arrow's Impossibility Theorem: No voting system can satisfy all desired properties simultaneously
  - Sequential voting can lead to information cascades that disregard most available information
- Practical implications:
  - Majority rule works well with single-peaked preferences (Median Voter Theorem)
  - Different voting contexts require different systems with different trade-offs
  - Strategic concerns must be considered in voting system design
  - Institutional design should account for strategic voter behavior
  - Deliberation before voting may improve outcomes
- Information aggregation aspects:
  - Condorcet Jury Theorem shows wisdom of crowds in simple settings
  - But insincere voting and information cascades can limit this wisdom
  - Voting rules like unanimity can have unexpected consequences
  - Optimal aggregation mechanisms depend on information structure
  - Transparency vs. privacy trade-offs in information revelation

# Further Reading

- Classic works:

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections



# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"
  - Saari, D. (2001). Decisions and Elections: Explaining the Unexpected

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"
  - Saari, D. (2001). Decisions and Elections: Explaining the Unexpected
  - Austen-Smith, D. & Banks, J. (1996). "Information Aggregation, Rationality, and the Condorcet Jury Theorem"

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"
  - Saari, D. (2001). Decisions and Elections: Explaining the Unexpected
  - Austen-Smith, D. & Banks, J. (1996). "Information Aggregation, Rationality, and the Condorcet Jury Theorem"
  - Maskin, E. & Sen, A. (2016). The Arrow Impossibility Theorem

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"
  - Saari, D. (2001). Decisions and Elections: Explaining the Unexpected
  - Austen-Smith, D. & Banks, J. (1996). "Information Aggregation, Rationality, and the Condorcet Jury Theorem"
  - Maskin, E. & Sen, A. (2016). The Arrow Impossibility Theorem
- Applications:



# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"
  - Saari, D. (2001). Decisions and Elections: Explaining the Unexpected
  - Austen-Smith, D. & Banks, J. (1996). "Information Aggregation, Rationality, and the Condorcet Jury Theorem"
  - Maskin, E. & Sen, A. (2016). The Arrow Impossibility Theorem
- Applications:
  - AI: Recommendation systems, PageRank algorithms, algorithmic decision-making, multi-agent systems

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"
  - Saari, D. (2001). Decisions and Elections: Explaining the Unexpected
  - Austen-Smith, D. & Banks, J. (1996). "Information Aggregation, Rationality, and the Condorcet Jury Theorem"
  - Maskin, E. & Sen, A. (2016). The Arrow Impossibility Theorem
- Applications:
  - AI: Recommendation systems, PageRank algorithms, algorithmic decision-making, multi-agent systems
  - Economics: Mechanism design, market design, public choice theory

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"
  - Saari, D. (2001). Decisions and Elections: Explaining the Unexpected
  - Austen-Smith, D. & Banks, J. (1996). "Information Aggregation, Rationality, and the Condorcet Jury Theorem"
  - Maskin, E. & Sen, A. (2016). The Arrow Impossibility Theorem
- Applications:
  - AI: Recommendation systems, PageRank algorithms, algorithmic decision-making, multi-agent systems
  - Economics: Mechanism design, market design, public choice theory
  - Political science: Electoral systems, legislative procedures

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"
  - Saari, D. (2001). Decisions and Elections: Explaining the Unexpected
  - Austen-Smith, D. & Banks, J. (1996). "Information Aggregation, Rationality, and the Condorcet Jury Theorem"
  - Maskin, E. & Sen, A. (2016). The Arrow Impossibility Theorem
- Applications:
  - AI: Recommendation systems, PageRank algorithms, algorithmic decision-making, multi-agent systems
  - Economics: Mechanism design, market design, public choice theory
  - Political science: Electoral systems, legislative procedures
  - Law: Jury decision rules, judicial panels

# Further Reading

- Classic works:
  - Arrow, K. (1951). Social Choice and Individual Values
  - Black, D. (1958). The Theory of Committees and Elections
  - Downs, A. (1957). An Economic Theory of Democracy
- Modern extensions:
  - Feddersen, T. & Pesendorfer, W. (1998). "Convicting the Innocent"
  - Sen, A. (1999). "The Possibility of Social Choice"
  - Saari, D. (2001). Decisions and Elections: Explaining the Unexpected
  - Austen-Smith, D. & Banks, J. (1996). "Information Aggregation, Rationality, and the Condorcet Jury Theorem"
  - Maskin, E. & Sen, A. (2016). The Arrow Impossibility Theorem
- Applications:
  - AI: Recommendation systems, PageRank algorithms, algorithmic decision-making, multi-agent systems
  - Economics: Mechanism design, market design, public choice theory
  - Political science: Electoral systems, legislative procedures
  - Law: Jury decision rules, judicial panels
  - Business: Committee decision-making, corporate governance