On the Prevalence of Condorcet's Paradox

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The Condorcet paradox has been a significant focus of investigation since Kenneth Arrow rediscovered its importance for economic theory. Recent research on this phenomenon has oscillated between simulation studies, probability calculations based on hypothetical voter preferences, and empirical analyses often limited by unsatisfactory data. This paper presents the first comprehensive evaluation of 253 electoral polls conducted across 59 countries. Our findings demonstrate that the Condorcet paradox has virtually no empirical relevance: with only one exception, we find no evidence of cyclical majorities in any of the 253 elections. This result remains robust after statistical inference testing. Furthermore, this study provides insights into which parties are particularly likely to emerge as Condorcet winners and explores how these Condorcet winners assert themselves after elections.

Keywords: Elections; Condorcet Paradox; Condorcet Winner; Vot-

ing

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1. Introduction

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- The ideal of democracy demands that collective decisions reflect majority judgments. An alternative x should be chosen over y if more voters prefer x to y. A Condorcet winner—an alternative that defeats all other contestants in pairwise majority comparisons—has intuitive appeal as it aligns with the principle of majority decision (?, Ch. 5). However, such a winner may not exist. Even when voters have transitive preferences, majority amalgamation can produce intransitive outcomes, a phenomenon known as the Condorcet paradox (?, p. lxj (76)). A simple example involves three voters and three candidates: Voter 1 ranks $A \succ B \succ C$, Voter 2 ranks $B \succ C \succ A$, and Voter 3 ranks $C \succ C \succ C \succ C$. Here, $C \succ C \succ C$ beats $C \succ C \succ C$ beats $C \succ C \succ C$ will be $C \succ C \succ C$.
- The Condorcet paradox, intensely discussed during the French Revolution, faded into obscurity for nearly 150 years (??, p. 99) until Arrow's groundbreaking impossibility theorem revived its importance. ? demonstrated that adherence to majority principles risks indeterminate outcomes, while ensuring decisiveness requires abandoning the majority principle and possibly accepting a majority-defeated winner. In economic theory, the Condorcet paradox challenges the core stability (?).
- Despite its theoretical significance, the empirical relevance of the paradox in democratic elections remains insufficiently substantiated. The most recent survey concluded that its empirical relevance is far from settled (?), largely due to a persistent lack of reliable data. Most results on the occurrence of Condorcet paradoxes are based on simulated data (???), or on non-political elections, like electing the head of an academic association (?????).
- Empirical studies of real-world (democratic) elections have primarily focused on single 24 elections (???), or on country-specific case studies (i.e., multiple elections within a single country) (????). Although instances of the Condorcet paradox have been identified, 26 these studies have failed to provide conclusive insights into its prevalence. So far, em-27 pirical research has largely relied on small survey datasets or limited samples. Some studies were based solely on plurality data (e.g.,?) or voting intentions (e.g.,?), requiring the preference orderings to be estimated. Adding to the challenge is the observation that most studies refrain from making claims about statistical inference. Notable excep-31 tions include ???, with the latter two explicitly assessing the robustness of their findings 32 through bootstrap methods. 33
 - Eminent economists have recently advocated for electoral reforms in favour of the

Condorcet method, even beyond the academic realm (???). In this public discourse, the Condorcet paradox is the unresolved core issue, as it is—alongside the debate over whether cardinal information should be considered—the main argument against the practical implementation of the Condorcet method.

?, Ch. 10.2 highlighted the necessity of determining the relevance of the Condorcet paradox through a comprehensive empirical analysis as a basis for advancing discussions on electoral reforms. Such a study should ideally cover various points in time and different societies. Motivated by this research desideratum, our work presents a comprehensive study that examines the occurrence of the Condorcet paradox across numerous elections, spanning multiple countries and time periods.

We analyse data from 253 elections across 59 countries, using nationally representative election studies provided by the Comparative Study of Electoral Systems (?). In total, our analysis incorporates responses from approximately 425,000 survey participants. On average, each election includes data from around 1,730 individuals. Our findings indicate that the Condorcet paradox has virtually no empirical relevance, a conclusion that remains robust even after accounting for statistical inference.

Beyond this, we provide insights into who the Condorcet winners are and evaluate the extent to which different electoral systems succeed in bringing these winners to office (in candidate elections) or into government (in parliamentary elections). We also examine which parties, identified as Condorcet winners, fail to win elections. Thus, for the first time, we offer insight into the identification and success of Condorcet winners.

2. Data and Methods

We use survey data from the Comparative Study of Electoral Systems (?). The dataset includes party and candidate ratings on a non-ipsative 11-point like-dislike scale (integer sympathy scales) for up to nine political parties and candidates, widely utilized in related research (e.g., ??). Following an established procedure (most recently: ?), we convert the ratings into individual preference orderings. For example, if voter i rates party A with +2, party B with +4, and party C with +1, this information is transformed into binary preference relations $B \succ_i A$, $A \succ_i C$. If two parties are rated equally, we consider this as indifference. We use respondents' party ratings to infer their preference orderings

¹Based on a comprehensive dataset for Germany, where respondents provided both their ranking and their thermometer rating, ? showed that the orders generated by the thermometer variables have a very high correlation (measured in Kendall's τ) with the directly reported orderings.

in parliamentary elections and their candidate ratings to infer preference rankings in presidential elections.

In total, we analyze data on 212 parliamentary elections and 41 presidential elections.

Restricting the CSES data to respondents who rated at least one party or candidate leaves us with 424,413 individual-level observations. We only include elections in which more than three parties or candidates were evaluated in the dataset. As a result, we had to exclude a few elections from the analysis. This primarily affects presidential elections in the United States. While multiple candidates ran in these elections, 'like-dislike' ratings were only collected for two candidates in each case.

We treat the election survey as a representative sample of voter preferences within a single national district to determine whether a Condorcet paradox existed at a specific election. This simplification of the national electoral system is valid for our purposes because our primary interest is not in analysing how paradoxes occur while processing preferences into electoral outcomes. Instead, we focus on whether the pattern of voter preferences would lead to a Condorcet paradox if amalgamated most simply and directly, irrespective of geographic boundaries and electoral stages.

We identify the Condorcet winner and loser party for each parliamentary election. For presidential elections, we identify the Condorcet winner and loser candidate inferred from candidate ratings when possible. We first construct party and candidate preference profiles from the rating data, as explained earlier. We then apply the Condorcet method to these preference profiles for each election separately. Specifically, we calculated how many voters strictly prefer candidate A over B and vice versa. If a respondent rated B but not A, we assume they prefer B, and the same logic applies in reverse. With κ candidates, the procedure is repeated for all $\binom{\kappa}{2}$ pairwise contests, such as A vs. C and B vs. C, and so on. A party or candidate that wins each pairwise contest is identified as the Condorcet winner. An election is classified as exhibiting a Condorcet paradox if no such winner exists due to cyclical majorities, as described in the Introduction. Conversely, a party or candidate that loses all pairwise contests is referred to as the Condorcet loser.

To account for the uncertainty surrounding our survey-based results, we generate 10,000 bootstrap replications from the preference profiles of each election. Specifically, for each election we draw with replacement 10,000 samples of size n from the original

²37,504 respondents reported no ratings, which is less than ten percent of our dataset. Respondents with incomplete ratings are included in our analysis.

³If candidate ratings are not available, we rely on party ratings instead.

⁴We used the condorcet function in R's vote package (?).

sample of n individuals and apply the Condorcet method to each replication. For every single replication, we determine whether a Condorcet winner exists. This process results in 10,000 outcomes per election, where a Condorcet winner either exists or does not. In this way, we generate 2.53 million profiles. With this approach, we adopt a method very similar to that employed by ?.

If no paradox is observed in the original sample, we reject the null hypothesis ('no Condorcet paradox occurs') if a paradox emerges in more than 5% of the bootstrap replications for the respective election. Conversely, if cyclical majorities are observed in an election, we reject the null hypothesis (which assumes a paradox exists) if more than 5% of the bootstrap replications exhibit transitive preferences.

Using the bootstrap method, we address the randomness of the sample. In addition 107 to the bootstrap approach, we also applied a random-noise method to account for the 108 uncertainty in the rating data. In this approach, we add a random number drawn uni-109 formly from the interval [-1.1, 1.1] (hence, \pm ten percent of the total scale range) to each 110 rating of parties or candidates. In doing so, we generated 10,000 new rating matrices 111 for each election, which were then converted into preference orders using the proced-112 ure described above and subsequently evaluated for the presence of cyclical majorities. 113 Thus, we obtained approximately 2.53 million replications, this time as random-noise 114 replications. 115

This procedure effectively resolves any indifference between two parties or candidates.
For example, if a respondent rated two parties equally, the random-noise approach ensures that, in half of the replications, one party is rated as the better alternative. We chose this approach because the possibility of indifferences reduces the likelihood of Condorcet Paradoxes. Effectively, this allows us to test whether our central result is robust when we assume anti-symmetric (strict) preferences instead of reflexive ones.

2 3. Results

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We do not find a single instance of a Condorcet paradox among the 212 parliamentary elections. Among the 41 presidential elections, for which the dataset provides ratings on more than two viable candidates, we identify one case of cyclical majorities, namely the Peruvian presidential election in 2011.

The overall picture remains robust across all bootstrap replications. With the exception of two parliamentary elections, none of the 10,000 replications conducted for each election reveal a Condorcet paradox. In one case, the phenomenon occurs in 1.1%

of the replications, while in another election, it is observed in only two out of 10,000 replications.

A similar pattern emerges for the presidential elections. In 39 out of 41 elections, none 132 of the respective bootstrap replications reveal a case of cyclical majorities. Even in the 133 instance where we identified a Condorcet paradox in the sample (Peru 2011), the vast majority of replications (69.53%) do not exhibit cyclical majorities. Consequently, we 135 must reject the hypothesis of a Condorcet paradox occurring in this election. On the 136 other hand, in a subsequent election in Peru in 2021, we detected Condorcet paradoxa 137 in approximately eleven percent of the bootstrap replications. To the extent that we 138 must reject the hypothesis of an existence of a paradox in 2011, we must equally reject 139 the hypothesis of non-existence in 2021. In both cases, there is a strong likelihood 140 (69-31,89-11) that no paradox is present. 141

A very similar pattern emerges from the evaluation of the random-noise replications. In the vast majority of cases, we find no Condorcet Paradox across the 10,000 replications for each election. In the few (25 out of 253) elections where cyclical majorities do occur in the replications, they account for less than 1% of the total replications. For no election do we find that a Condorcet Paradox occurs in more than 5% of the replications. Exceptions, as was the case with the bootstrap analysis, are the Peruvian elections.

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The literature distinguishes between a *strong* and a *weak* Condorcet winner (?). While the former wins every pairwise comparison, the latter does not lose any pairwise comparison (due to ties). Except for two cases, we find strict Condorcet winners in every election.

It should be noted that the presence of a Condorcet winner in an election does not 152 necessarily imply a transitive order. Cyclical majorities can still occur even when a 153 Condorcet winner exists. This happens when cyclical majorities appear in the middle or 154 lower ranks. In our analysis, we observe such cases four times, including the election in 155 Finland in 2005, which is the only instance where no Condorcet loser is present. Overall, 156 our findings indicate that collective preferences are almost universally transitive. Note 157 that accounting for cyclical majorities in cases with a Condorcet winner does not dilute 158 the overall result. On the contrary, in each election, we have $\binom{\kappa}{3}$ triplets. Summed 159 across all elections, we analyse 8,099 triplets. Among these, we find cyclical majorities 160 in five cases (0.06%). 161

Thus, we arrive—also through this approach—at the rather surprising finding that cyclical majorities are practically irrelevant from an empirical perspective. The drawback of this sharp result is that an analysis of why the Condorcet Paradox occurs so rarely

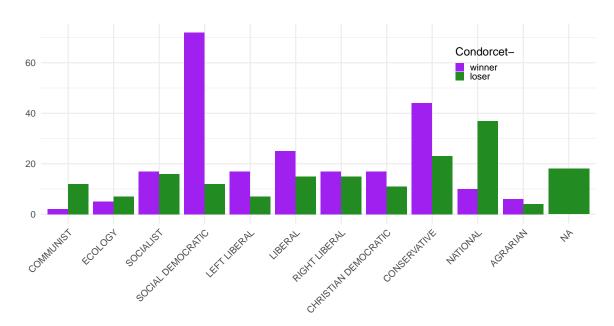


Figure 1: Frequency of Condorcet winner and loser parties by party family

is hardly possible. As is well known, empirical analyses require variance, which we do not observe. Therefore, we do not address the question of why cyclical majorities are virtually non-existent but instead encourage future research to explore this question.

Given that Condorcet winners exist in virtually all of the elections under study, we subsequently focus on descriptive results on these winner parties and candidates. Figure 1 plots the frequency of Condorcet winners and losers by party family.⁵ It shows that Condorcet winners are most often social-democratic parties. National parties are the most common among the Condorcet losers. A full list of Condorcet winner and loser parties is presented in the (Online-)Appendix (for the review process, the appendix is attached to this file). Table 1 provides an extract from the full list, covering the G7 countries only.

This list yields some interesting insights. For example, although Condorcet-winner parties are often centrally located within the party system, they are not necessarily large parties. In the Netherlands, for instance, the liberal party 'Democrats 66' (D66) was the Condorcet-winner party in 2010, 2017, and 2021, despite its low vote share of only 7%, 12%, and 15%, respectively. In the 2010 election, it was only the sixth-largest party in terms of votes and parliamentary seats. In 2017, it ranked fourth, and in 2021,

⁵We use the classification of party families as provided by the CSES. It is based on expert judgments of the CSES national collaborators as to which ideological family each party belongs to.

Table 1: List of Condorcet winner and loser parties/candidates in G7 countries

Country	Year	Condorcet Winner Party	Condorcet Loser Party
Canada	1997	Liberal Party (LIB)	Bloc Quebecois (BQ)
Canada	2004	Liberal Party (LIB)	Bloc Quebecois (BQ)
Canada	2008	Conservative Party (CP)	Bloc Quebecois (BQ)
Canada	2011	Conservative Party (CP)	Bloc Quebecois (BQ)
Canada	2015	Liberal Party (LIB)	Bloc Quebecois (BQ)
Canada	2019	Liberal Party (LIB)	Bloc Quebecois (BQ)
France	2002	Jacques Chirac (PS)	Jean-Marie LePen (FN)
France	2012	Francois Hollande (PS)	Francois Bayrou (MoDem)
France	2017	Emmanuel Macron (LaREM)	Marine Le Pen (FN)
Germany	1998	Soc. Dem. Party (SPD)	Left Party (DIE LINKE)
Germany	2002	Soc. Dem. Party (SPD)	The Republicans (REP)
Germany	2005	Soc. Dem. Party (SPD)	Nat. Dem. Party of Germ. (NPD)
Germany	2009	Christ. Dem. Party (CDU)	Left Party (DIE LINKE)
Germany	2013	Christ. Dem. Party (CDU)	Alt. for Germany (AfD)
Germany	2017	Christ. Dem. Party (CDU)	Alt. for Germany (AfD)
Germany	2021	Soc. Dem. Party (SPD)	Alt. for Germany (AfD)
Great Britain	1997	Labor (Lab)	Conservatives (Con)
Great Britain	2005	Labor (Lab)	Conservatives (Con)
Great Britain	2015	Conservatives (Con)	UK Independence Party (UKIP)
Great Britain	2017	Labor (Lab)	Plaid Cymru (PC)
Great Britain	2019	Conservatives (Con)	Plaid Cymru (PC)
Italy	2006	National Alliance (AN)	Communist Refoundation (PRC)
Italy	2018	Five Star Movement (M5S)	Free and Equal (LeU)
Japan	1996	Liberal Democratic Party (LDP)	New Party Harbinger (NPH)
Japan	2004	Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ)	Jap. Communist Party (JCP)
Japan	2007	Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ)	Jap. Communist Party (JCP)
Japan	2013	Lib. Dem. Party (LDP)	Green Wind
Japan	2017	Lib. Dem. Party (LDP)	Japanese Communist Party (JCP)
USA	1996	Democratic Party	Reform Party
USA	2004	Democratic Party	Reform Party

it ranked second. In an earlier study for the election year 1994—which our dataset does not extend back to—? had already found that D66 emerged as the Condorcet-winner party. Even then, the vote share of 15.5% did not reflect the broad support for the D66 party among the electorate. We also find a correspondence with the results from two Danish elections in 1998 and 2001, as identified by ? (using a different dataset than the one we employed).

For Great Britain, our data show that the Condorcet winners can indeed vary but generally align with the winners under the First-Past-The-Post system. An exception is 2017, when the Tories narrowly won the general election, but the Labour Party emerged as the Condorcet winner. The 2005 election is not included in our dataset; however, ? identified the Liberal-Democrats as the Condorcet winner for that election.

Our (Online-)Appendix presents the values for all other countries.

Noteworthy, there are instances where Condorcet-loser parties gain a significant num-ber of votes and seats. Polarising parties on the far-right fringe, in particular, benefit from this imbalance. For example the 'Sweden Democrats' were the Condorcet-loser party in 2006, 2014, and 2018. Yet, they increased their vote share to 12.9% in the 2018 election, becoming the third-largest party out of eight in the 2014 and 2018 par-liaments. In Germany, the Condorcet loser AfD became the third-largest faction in the Bundestag in 2017 with 12.5% of the vote, surpassing three parties that had each won their pairwise comparison against the AfD. An even more extreme case is the Swiss 2011 election, where the Swiss People's Party gained the largest vote share while emerging as the Condorcet loser, according to the data.

Table 2 provides a systematic overview of the empirical Condorcet efficiency⁶ of electoral systems. We calculate how frequently Condorcet winners emerge as electoral victors (i.e., as the largest parliamentary faction) and examine how often they are included in the subsequent government following the election. The results are presented by election type and electoral formula. At the end of this section, we also report the Condorcet efficiencies of two additional voting rules. The first row of Table 2 highlights the frequency⁷ at which Condorcet winners become the largest electoral party, revealing significant variation across election types and systems. Condorcet winners are most successful in presidential elections (82%) and parliamentary elections with mixed electoral systems (81%), but their success rate is lowest in parliamentary elections using proportional

⁶The term Condorcet efficiency refers to the conditional probability that a voting rule selects the Condorcet winner, given that one exists (?).

⁷The values in square brackets indicate the confidence interval of Agresti-Coull binomial tests (?) (values in percentages and at a 90% significance level).

representation (62%).

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The second row in Table 2 reports how often Condorcet winners win the prime min-215 ister's office or the presidency. It shows that in parliamentary systems with plurality 216 or proportional rules, Condorcet winners obtain government leadership even if they are 217 not the largest electoral party, increasing their success rate to 89% resp. 66%. This is not the case in any of the mixed systems in our data. Since the most-vote getter in 219 presidential elections typically also win the presidency, the rate is identical to the first 220 row. Our findings concerning parliamentary elections align with those of ?, who used 221 OLS regressions to show that weak Condorcet winners (core parties) are about 24 per-222 centage points more likely to appoint the prime minister, with even higher probabilities 223 for strong Condorcet winners. 224

Condorcet winners may still hold government offices, e.g., as a junior coalition partner. The results reported in the third row indicate that this is often the case: the government participation rates are significantly larger than the election winner rates and the prime minister/presidency rates. Again, there is variation by election type and system, with plurality and mixed electoral systems in parliamentary elections showing the largest Condorcet efficiency in government participation (97% and 98%). Proportional rules in parliamentary elections are less efficient in selecting Condorcet winners into government than plurality and mixed systems (88%). Overall, the government formation period that follows upon parliamentary elections enhances the Condorcet efficiency of parliamentary systems, superseding presidential elections in terms of government posts for Condorcet winners.

Another aspect by which to evaluate the Condorcet efficiency of electoral systems is 236 to ask for how often the government participation of the Condorcet loser is prevented. 237 The bottom row in Table 2 indicates that proportional electoral systems are most prone 238 to the 'Condorcet-loser-turns-winner' (?) or Borda paradox (named after the Chevalier 239 de Borda, who identified the paradoxical situation that a Condorcet loser can emerge 240 as plurality winner). From a normative standpoint, this may be justified, as one of 241 the premisses of proportional systems is to enable ethnic, religious or other minorities 242 to have their legitimate share of power, so as to prevent the 'tyranny of the majority'. 243 However, our results indicate that in only three out of 20 instances in which Condorcet 244 losers obtain cabinet posts, it is ethnic parties. Most often (4 out of 20 cases), the 245 Condorcet loser party that enters government is a national party.

The other Borda-paradox case is the 2000 Mexican presidential election, at which Vicente Fox won the plurality vote, but was a Condorcet loser. The Condorcet winner

Table 2: Condorcet efficiency by type of election (parliamentary vs. presidential and by electoral systems.

	I	Parliamentary	7	Presidential
Condorcet Winner	Plurality N=30	Proportional N=135	Mixed N=51	N=46
largest elect. party / candidate	71%	62%	81%	82%
	[56-83]	[54-68]	[70-88]	[71-89]
prime minister/	89%	66%	73%	82%
president	[75-96]	[58-73]	[61-82]	[71-90]
part of	97%	88%	98%	
government	[85-100]	[<i>82-92</i>]	[91-100]	
Condorcet Loser part of government / president	0%	16% [11-22]	8% [2-19]	4% [0-12]

was Cuauhtémoc Cárdenas Solórzano, who ranked third at the election.

Finally, we applied our data to the Borda rule and Single Transferable Vote (STV). The Borda rule is a positional voting system that assigns weights to alternatives based on their rank-order positions. STV, a proportional voting system, also allows voters to rank candidates by preference, with seats allocated through the redistribution of votes from elected or eliminated candidates until all positions are filled (?). STV is used in several countries with Anglo-Saxon legacies, such as Ireland, Australia, and Malta. We compare the winners under both electoral rules with the Condorcet method and assess how often the Borda and STV winners coincide with the Condorcet winner. The results show that 93.4% of Borda winners and 92.6% of STV winners are also Condorcet winners. Both methods demonstrate higher Condorcet efficiency compared to the plurality rule (see Table 2).

If a party is the Borda winner but not the Condorcet winner, this discrepancy arises from differences in preference intensities. The Condorcet method adheres to Arrow's Independence of Irrelevant Alternatives (IIA), which excludes any consideration of preference intensities (?, Ch. 7). In contrast, the Borda rule accounts for preference intensities through ordinal information (?). Assume that 60% of the electorate prefers $A \succ B \succ C$, while 40% prefers $B \succ C \succ A$. In this case, A emerges as the Condorcet winner, while candidate B becomes the Borda winner. The reason lies with candidate C: their middle ranking in the minority group suggests that the preference intensity between B and A

in the smaller group is stronger than the preference intensity between A and B in the majority group.

When the Condorcet winner belongs to the socialist/social democratic or liberal party families, they also tend to be the Borda winner in 98% of cases. In contrast, this coincidence is lower for the conservative/Christian democratic party family, at 85%. Under STV, the highest overlap between Condorcet and STV winners occurs for socialist/social democratic parties (95.5%), followed by liberal parties (93.2%), which is lower than their overlap under the Borda rule. Conservative/Christian-democratic parties show the lowest coincidence with Condorcet winners (91.8%).

4. Conclusion

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Two hundred and forty years ago, the Marquis de Condorcet introduced the paradox that 279 now bears his name to the French Academy of Sciences. Ever since, it has been recognised 280 as a profound challenge within the social sciences. In recent decades, researchers have 281 sought in various ways to assess the prevalence of the Condorcet paradox. However, it has 282 always been clear that only a comprehensive empirical analysis across different countries 283 and dates could provide a substantive answer to the question of its empirical relevance. 284 This study leverages the availability of comparative data and advanced computational 285 capabilities to conduct the first empirical investigation in this vein. Our findings reveal 286 that the Condorcet paradox holds virtually no empirical relevance. 287

We find a Condorcet winner in almost every country and at almost every point in time. Moreover, we are able to identify who these Condorcet winners are and the party families to which they belong. Our results are encouraging in that Condorcet winners frequently succeed in becoming part of the governing coalitions. However, the degree of Condorcet efficiency varies significantly between electoral systems.

Our analysis also demonstrates that Condorcet losers nearly always exist. A concern 293 raised by the Chevalier de Borda regarding the plurality rule was that Condorcet losers 294 could emerge as plurality winners—a phenomenon known as the Borda paradox. We 295 observe this paradox twice at presidential elections, but not once at parliamentary elections that use plurality rule. Our findings reveal that proportional electoral rules are 297 the least effective in ensuring electoral victory and government participation for Con-298 dorcet winners, while simultaneously being the least effective at preventing Condorcet losers from participating in government. These insights should be carefully considered 300 in ongoing debates about electoral reform. 301

Moreover, our work can be understood as academic endorsement for advocates of electoral reforms favouring the Condorcet method (???). While these advocates emphasise
its axiomatic advantages, they are, of course, mindful of the paradox's challenges. Our
findings suggest that, in weighing the strengths and weaknesses of the Condorcet method,
its principal shortcoming should not be overemphasized. In this sense, this study aims
not only to make an academic contribution but also to inform and inspire current and
future debates on electoral reform.

Appendices

Note: The appendix is proposed to be published online. We add the appendices to the $\frac{1}{1}$ main text in line with the submission guidelines.

A. Countries and Election Years Included in Analysis

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Australia	x								x			x						x				1		x		
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Hungary			x	I			x					1								I		1	x	1		[
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Ireland		1		1	1		x					x				x					x	1		1		
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B. Full List of Condorcet Winner and Condorcet Loser Parties in Parliamentary Elections

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Country	Year	Condorcet winner party	Condorcet loser party
Czech Republic	2021	Action of Dissatisfied Citizens	Czech Pirate Party
		(ANO 2011)	(Pirati)
Denmark	1998	Social Democrats (Sd)	Danish People's Party (DF)
Denmark	2001	Venstre, Denmark's Liberal	Unity List - Red-Green
D 1	2007	Party (V)	Alliance (EL)
Denmark	2007	Social Democrats (Sd)	Unity List - Red-Green
Denmark	2019	Social Demograte (Sd)	Alliance (EL) The New Right (NB)
Estonia	2019	Social Democrats (Sd) Social Democratic Party (SDE)	Estonian People's Union (ER a)
Finland	2003	Social Democratic Party of	Swedish People's Party in
1 iiiidiid	2000	Finland (SDP)	Finland (RKP - SFP)
Finland	2007	Center Party of Finland (KESK)	Left Alliance (VAS)
Finland	2011	Social Democratic Party of	Christian Democrats
		Finland (SDP)	(KD)
Finland	2015	Center Party of Finland (KESK)	
Finland	2019	Social Democratic Party of	Blue Reform (SIN)
		Finland (SDP)	
France	2007	Union for a Popular Movement	National Front (FN)
		(UMP)	(5.5.5)
Germany	1998	Social Democratic Party (SPD)	Left Party (DIE LINKE)
Germany	2002	Social Democratic Party (SPD)	The Republicans (REP)
Germany	2005	Social Democratic Party (SPD)	National Democratic Party (NPD)
Germany	2009	Christian Democratic Party (CDU)	Left Party (DIE LINKE) Alternative for Germany (AfD)
Germany Germany	2013 2017	Christian Democratic Party (CDU) Christian Democratic Party (CDU)	Alternative for Germany (AfD) Alternative for Germany (AfD)
Germany	2017	Soc. Dem.Party (SPD)	Alternative for Germany (AfD)
Great Britain	1997	Labor (Lab)	Conservatives (Con)
Great Britain	2005	Labor (Lab)	Conservatives (Con)
Great Britain	2015	Conservatives (Con)	United Kingdom Independence
		(2.7)	Party (UKIP)
Great Britain	2017	Labor (Lab)	Plaid Cymru (PC)
Great Britain	2019	Conservatives (Con)	Plaid Cymru (PC)
Greece	2009	Pan-Hellenic Socialist	Popular Orthodox Rally
		Movement (PASOK)	(La.O.S)
Greece	2012	Democratic Left (DIMAR)	Golden Dawn (LS - XA)
Greece	2015	Coalition of the Radical Left	Golden Dawn (LS - XA)
	0010	(SYRIZA)	G 1 G 1 4:
Greece	2019	New Democracy (ND)	Greek Solution
Hong Kong	1998	Democratic Party (DP)	Citizen's Party Citizen's Party
Hong Kong Hong Kong	2000 2004	Democratic Party (DP) Democratic Party (DP)	Democratic Alliance for Betterment
Tiong Rong	2004	Democratic Party (D1)	of Hong Kong (DAB)
Hong Kong	2008	Civic Party (CPP)	League of Social Democrats (LSD)
Hong Kong	2012	{ Democratic Party (DP) AND	People Power (PP)
		Hong Kong Federation of Trade	
		nions (HKFTU) }	
Hong Kong	2016	Democratic Party (DP)	ALLinHKG
Hungary	1998	Fidesz-Hungarian Civic Party	Hungarian Justice and Life
		Alliance Party (Fidesz - MPP)	Party (MIEP)
Hungary	2002	Hungarian Socialist Party	Hungarian Justice and Life
	0610	(MSZP)	Party (MIEP)
Hungary	2018	Fidesz - KDNP	Democratic Coalition (DK)
Iceland Iceland	1999	Independence Party (Sj) Independence Party (Sj)	Liberal Party (FF)
Iceland	2003 2007	Independence Party (Sj) Independence Party (Sj)	Liberal Party (FF) Icelandic Movement (IL)
Iceland	2007	Social Democratic Alliance	Liberal Party (FF)
Totalia	2003	(Sam)	Institution (11)
Iceland	2013	Progressive Party (F)	Pirate Party (Pi)
Iceland	2016	Left-Green Movement (VG)	Progressive Party (F)
Iceland	2017	Left-Green Movement (VG)	Center Party (M)
India	2019	Indian People's Party (BJP)	All India Trinamool Congress
			(AITC)
Ireland	2002	Fianna Fail (FF)	Sinn Fein (SF)
Ireland	2007	Fianna Fail (FF)	Sinn Fein (SF)

Country	Year	Condorcet winner party	Condorcet loser party
Ireland Ireland	2011 2016	Fine Gael (FG) Fine Gael (FG)	United Left Alliance (ULA) Sinn Fein (SF)
Israel	1996	Israeli Labor Party (MHH)	Sfarad's Keepers of the
Israel	2003	Likud - The Consolidation (L)	Torah (Shas) Sfarad's Keepers of the Torah (Shas)
Israel	2006	Forward (Kadima)	Sfarad's Keepers of the
Israel	2013	There is a Future (YA)	Torah (Shas) Sfarad's Keepers of the Torah (Shas)
Israel	2020	Likud - The Consolidation (L)	Joint List
Italy	2006	National Alliance (AN)	Communist Refoundation Party (PRC)
Italy	2018	Five Star Movement (M5S)	Free and Equal (LeU)
Japan	1996	Liberal Democratic Party (LDP)	New Party Harbinger (NPH)
Japan	2004	Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ)	Japanese Communist Party (JCP)
Japan	2007	Democratic Party of Japan (DPJ)	Japanese Communist Party (JCP)
Japan	2013	Liberal Democratic Party (LDP)	Green Wind
Japan	2017	Liberal Democratic Party (LDP)	Japanese Communist Party (JCP)
Kenya	2013	The National Alliance (TNA)	United Democratic Front
11011,0	2010	1110 11001011 111101100 (11111)	(Forum) (UDFP)
Latvia	2010	Union of Greens and Farmers	For Human Rights in United
Latvia	2010	(ZZS)	Latvia (PCTVL)
Latria	2011		
Latvia	2011	Unity (V)	Latvia's First Party/
.	2014	Unity (V)	/Latvian Way (LPP/LC)
Latvia	2014	Union of Greens and Farmers (ZZS)	Latvian Association of the Regions (LRa)
Latvia	2018	Union of Greens and Farmers (ZZS)	Latvian Russian Union (LKS)
Lithuania	2016	Lithuanian Farmers and Greens	(Lithuanian) Poles Election Action
Dividadila	2010	Union (LVZS)	Christian Families Alliance
Lithuania	2020	Homeland Union-Conservatives /	(Lithuanian) Poles Election Action -
Litiidailia	2020	Lithuanian Christian Democrats	Christian Families Alliance
Mexico	1997	Democratic Revolution Party (PRD)	
	1	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	Cardenista Party (PFCRN)
Mexico	2000	Alliance for Change	Authentic Party of the Mexican
N	2009	N 4: 1 A 4: D 4 (DANI)	Revolution (PARM)
Mexico	2003	National Action Party (PAN)	Citizen's Movement (MC)
Mexico	2006	National Action Party (PAN)	Soc. Dem.Party (PSD)
Mexico	2009	Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI)	Soc. Dem.Party (PSD)
Mexico	2012	Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI)	New Alliance Party (PANAL)
Mexico	2015	Institutional Revolutionary Party (PRI)	Citizen's Movement (MC)
Mexico	2018	National Regeneration Movement	Institutional Revolutionary
		(MORENA)	Party (PRI)
Montenegro	2012	Coalition "For a European	Croatian Civic Initiative
		Montenegro"	(HGI)
Montenegro	2016	Democratic Party of Socialists (DPS)	Bosniak Party (BS)
Netherlands	1998	Labor Party (PvdA)	Reformed Political Alliance (GPV)
Netherlands	2002	Christian Democratic Appeal (CDA)	Reformed Political Party (SGP)
Netherlands	2006	Christian Democratic	Party for Freedom (PVV)
NT (1 1 1	0010	Appeal (CDA)	
Netherlands	2010	Democrats 66 (D66)	Party for Freedom (PVV)
Netherlands	2017	Democrats 66 (D66)	Party for Freedom (PVV)
Netherlands	2021	Democrats 66 (D66)	Forum for Democracy (FvD)
New Zealand	1996	Labor Party (Lab)	Christian Coalition
New Zealand	2002	Labor Party (Lab)	Jim Anderton's Progressive Party (PP)
New Zealand	2008	National Party (NP)	Jim Anderton's Progressive Party (PP)
New Zealand	2011	National Party (NP)	MANA Movement (MANA)

Country	Year	Condorcet winner party	Condorcet loser party
New Zealand	2014	National Party (NP)	Internet MANA (IP - MANA)
New Zealand	2017	National Party (NP)	MANA Movement (MANA)
New Zealand	2020	Labor Party (Lab)	Conservative Party (CP)/
			New Conservative (NC)
Norway	1997	Labor Party (Ap)	Progress Party (FrP)
Norway	2001	Conservative Party (H)	Progress Party (FrP)
Norway	2005	Labor Party (Ap)	Red Electoral Alliance (RV)
Norway	2009	Labor Party (Ap)	Red Party (R)
Norway	2013	Conservative Party (H)	Red Party (R)
Norway	2017	Conservative Party (H)	Red Party (R)
Peru	2000	Possible Peru	Peruvian Aprista Party (PAP)
Peru	2001	Possible Peru	Andean Renaissance /
			National United Renaissance
Peru	2006	Peruvian Aprista Party (PAP)	National Restoration (RN)
Peru	2011	Peru Wins (UPP)	Peruvian Aprista Party (PAP)
Peru	2016	Popular Force (FP)	Direct Democracy
Peru	2021	Popular Action (AP)	Popular Renewal (RP)
Philippines	2004	Lakas - Christian-Muslim	Democratic Action (AD)
1 mippines	2001	Democrats (LAKAS-CMD)	Democratic Hesion (HZ)
Philippines	2010	Liberal Party (LP)	New Nation- Volunteers
1 milppines	2010	Liberal Larty (LI)	for a New Philippines (VNP)
Philippines	2016	Philippine Democratic Party	` '
Philippines	2010	11	People's Reform Party
Dalam I	1007	(PDP-LABAN)	(PRP)
Poland	1997	Solidarity Electoral Action	Movement for Reconstruction of
	2001	(AWSP)	Poland (ROP)
Poland	2001	Coalition Of The Alliance Of The	Solidarity Electoral
		Democratic Left - The Union of Labor	Action (AWSP)
Poland	2005	Law and Justice (PiS)	Democratic Party (PD)
Poland	2007	Civic Platform (PO)	Left and Democrats (LiD)
Poland	2011	Civic Platform (PO)	Palikots Movement
Poland	2019	Law and Justice (PiS)	Confederation Liberty and
Portugal	2002	Socialist Party (PS)	Independence Portuguese Communist Worker's
Portugal	2005	Socialist Party (PS)	Party (PCTP/MRPP) Democratic and Social Centre -
Portugal	2009	Socialist Party (PS)	People's Party (CDS-PP) Unitarian Democratic Coalition
Portugal	2015	Socialist Party (PS)	(CDU) Democratic Republican Party
Portugal	2019	Socialist Party (PS)	(PDR) Democratic and Social Centre -
Donublia of Vano	2000	Millennium Democratic Party	People's Party (CDS-PP)
Republic of Korea		(MDP)	New Korean Party of the Hope (NKPH)
Republic of Korea	2004	Our Party	National Integration 21
Republic of Korea	2008	New Frontier Party (NFP)	New Progressive Party (NPP)
Republic of Korea	2012	Democratic United Party (DUP)	
Republic of Korea	2016	Democratic Party of Korea (DP)	Justice Party (JP)
Romania	1996	Romanian Democratic Convention (CDR)	Democratic Union of Hungarians in Romania (UDMR)
Romania	2004	Democratic Party (PD)	Democratic Union of Hungarians in Romania (UDMR)
Romania	2012	Social Liberal Union (USL)	Democratic Union of Hungarians in Romania (UDMR)
Romania	2016	Romanian Party of Social Democracy (PSD)	Our Romania Alliance (ANR)
Russian Federation	1999	Unity Inter-Regional movement	Zhirinovsky Bloc
Serbia	2012	Serbian Progressive Party (SNS)	Liberal Democratic Party (LDP)
Slovakia	2010	Direction - Social Democracy (Smer)	Party Of The Hungarian Coalition (SMK)
Slovakia	2016	Slovak National Party (SNS)	Network (S) / Slovak Conservative Party (SKS)
Slovakia	2020	We are family (SR)	Kotleba - People's Party Our

Country	Year	Condorcet winner party	Condorcet loser party
			Slovakia (LsNS)
Slovenia	1996		Christian Democrats (SKD)
Slovenia	2004	Social Democratic Party	New Slovenia - Christian
		(SDS)	People's Party (NSi)
Slovenia	2008	Social Democrats (SD)	New Slovenia - Christian
		(0-)	People's Party (NSi)
Slovenia	2008	United List of Social	New Slovenia - Christian
Sioveina	2000	1	People's Party (NSi)
Classia	2011	Democrats (ZLSD)	
Slovenia	2011	Social Democrats (SD)	Slovenian National Party (SNS)
Slovenia	2011	United List of Social Democrats (ZLSD)	Slovenian National Party (SNS)
South Africa	2009	African National Congress (ANC)	Freedom Front Plus (VF Plus)
South Africa	2014	African National Congress (ANC)	Freedom Front Plus (VF Plus)
Spain	1996	Spanish Socialist Workers' Party (PSOE)	Basque Nationalist Party (PNV)
Spain	2000	People's Party (PP)	Basque Nationalist Party (PNV)
1 -		T	
Spain	2004	Spanish Socialist Workers' Party (PSOE)	People's Party (PP)
Spain	2008	Spanish Socialist Workers'	Republican Left of Catalonia
	1	Party (PSOE)	(ERC)
Sweden	1998	Sweden's Social Democratic	Liberal People's Party (FP) /
		Worker's Party (SAP)	Liberals (L)
Sweden	2002	Sweden's Social Democratic	Moderate Party (M)
		Worker's Party (SAP)	
Sweden	2006	Sweden's Social Democratic	Sweden Democrats (SD)
		Worker's Party (SAP)	
Sweden	2014	Sweden's Social Democratic Worker's Party (SAP)	Sweden Democrats (SD)
Sweden	2018	Sweden's Social Democratic Worker's Party (SAP)	Sweden Democrats (SD)
Switzerland	1999	Radical Democratic Party (FDP / PLR)	Green Party (GPS / PES)
Switzerland	2003	Social Democratic Party	Swiss People's Party
C:t1	2007	(SP / PS)	(SVP / UDC)
Switzerland	2007	Christian Democratic People's	Evangelical People's Party
	2011	Party (CVP / PDC)	(EVP / PEP)
Switzerland	2011	Christian Democratic People's	Swiss People's Party
		Party (CVP / PDC)	(SVP / UDC)
Taiwan	1996	Kuomintang of China (KMT)	New Party (NP)
Taiwan	2001	Democratic Progressive Party (DPP)	New Party (NP)
Taiwan	2012	Kuomintang of China (KMT)	People First Party (PFP)
Taiwan	2016	Democratic Progressive Party (DPP)	Taiwan Solidarity Union (TSU)
Taiwan	2020	Democratic Progressive Party (DPP)	People First Party (PFP)
Thailand	2001	Thai Rak Thai Party (TRT)	Justice and Freedom Party
Thailand	2007	People's Power Party (PPP)	Referendum Party
1			Power of Choburi Party
Thailand	2011	For Their Party (PPT)	· ·
Thailand	2019	For Thais Party (PPT)	People's Nation Party
Tunisia	2019	Heart of Tunisia	Dignity Coalition
Turkey	2011	Justice and Development Party (AKP)	Peace and Democratic Party (BDP)
Turkey	2015	Justice and Development Party (AKP)	Patriotic Party (VP)
Turkey	2018	Justice and Development Party (AKP)	Peoples' Democratic Party (HDP)
Ukraine	1998	Communist Party of Ukraine	Social-Democratic Party
USA	1996	Democratic Party (DEM)	Reform Party (REF)
USA	2004	Democratic Party (DEM)	Reform Party (REF)
USA	2008	Democratic Party (DEM)	Republican Party (GOP)
USA	2012	Democratic Party (DEM) Democratic Party (DEM)	Republican Party (GOP)
USA	2016	Democratic Party (DEM)	Republican Party (GOP)
USA	2020	Democratic Party (DEM)	Republican Party (GOP)
Uruguay	2009	Broad Front (FA)	Popular Assembly
Uruguay	2019	Broad Front (FA)	Open Cabildo

C. Full List of Condorcet Winner and Condorcet Loser Candidates/Parties in Presidential Elections

Country	Year	Condorcet winner candidate/party	Condorcet loser candidate/party
Argentina	2015	Daniel Scioli (FPV)	Nicolas del Cano (FIT)
Belarus	2001	Aljaksandr Lukaschenka (BNF)	Vladimir Goncharik (UDO)
Brazil	2002	Luiz I. Lula da Silva (PT)	Jader Barbalho (PMDB)
Brazil	2006	Luiz I. Lula da Silva (PT)	Christovam Buarque (PDT)
Brazil	2010	Dilma Roussef (PT)	Ciro Gomes (PSB)
Brazil	2014	Dilma Roussef (PT)	Ronaldo Caiado (DEM)
Brazil	2018	Jair Bolsonaro (PSL)	Henrique Meirelles (MDB)
Chile	1999	Ricardo Lagos (PPD)	Gladys Marín Millie (PCCh)
Chile	2009	Marco Enríquez-Ominami (MEO)	Jorge Arrate (PCCh)
Chile	2017	Sebastian Pinera (RN)	Eduardo Artes (UPA)
Costa Rica	2018	Carlos A. Quesada (PAC)	Rodolfo H. Gómez (PRSC)
El Salvador	2019	Nayib Bukele (GANA)	Josuè Alvarado (Vamos)
France	2002	Jacques Chirac (PS)	Jean-Marie Le Pen (FN)
France	2012	François Hollande (PS)	François Bayrou (MoDem)
France	2017	Emmanuel Macron (LaREM)	Marine Le Pen (FN)
Kenya	2013	Uhuru Kenyatta (TNA)	Musalia Mudavadi (UDFP)
Lithuania	1997	Valdas Adamkus (Independent)	Rimantas Smetona (JL)
Mexico	2000	Cuauhtémoc C. Solórzano (PRD)	Vicente Fox (PAN)
Mexico	2006	Felipe Calderón Hinojosa (PAN)	Roberto Campa Cifrián (PANAL, PNA)
Mexico	2012	Enrique Peña Nieto (PRI)	Gabriel Ricardo Quadri de la Torre (PANAL, PNA)
Mexico	2018	Andrés M. López Obrador (PRD / MORENA)	Jaime H. Rodríguez Calderón (Independent)
Peru	2000	Alberto Fujimori (Peru 2000)	Abel Salinas (PAP)
Peru	2001	Lourdes Flores Nano (UN)	Ciro Galvez (Andean Renaissance)
Peru	2011		Verónika Mendoza (Frente Amplio / JP)
Peru	2016	Pedro Castillo (PL)	Cesar Acuna Peralta (APP)
Peru	2021	Hernando de Soto (AvP)	Daniel Urresti (PP)
Philippines	2010	Benigno Cojuangco Aquino III (LP)	Jesus N.P. Perlas (Independent)
Philippines	2016	Rodrigo Roa Duterte (PDP-LABAN)	Jejomar Binay (UNA)
Romania	1996	Emil Constantinescu (CDR)	Mircea Ionescu-Quintus (PNL)
Romania	2009	Mircea Geoana (PSD)	Hunor Kelemen (UDMR)
Romania	2014	Klaus Werner Iohannis (PNL)	Hunor Kelemen (UDMR)
Serbia	2012	Tomislav Nikolić (SNS)	Čedomir Jovanović (LDP)
Taiwan	1996	Lee Tung-Hui (KMT)	Peng Ming Min (DPP)
Taiwan	2004	Lai Ching-te (DPP)	New Party (NP)
Taiwan	2008	Ma Ying-Jeou (KMT)	Frank Hsieh (DPP)
Taiwan	2012	Ma Ying-Jeou (KMT)	James Soong (PFP)
Taiwan	2016	Tsai Ing-Wen (DPP)	Eric Chu (KMT)
Taiwan	2020	Tsai Ing-Wen (DPP)	Han Kuo-Yu (KMT)
Tunisia	2019	Nabil Karoui (Heart of Tunisia)	Zouheir Maghzaoui (People's Movement)
Turkey	2018	Recep Tayyip Erdoğan (AKP)	Pervin Buldan (HDP)
Uruguay	2009	José Mujica (FA)	Raúl Rodriguez L. da Silva (Popular Assembly)
Uruguay	2019	Luis Lacalle Pou (PN)	Ernesto Talvi (Colorado Party)