

An Algebraic Approach to Voting Theory

Zajj Daugherty

The **City** College
of New York

July 9, 2020

Suppose Alice, Becca, and Carly are running for president of their AWM chapter. The personal preferences of the 54 members are given by

1 st :	A	A	B	B	C	C
2 nd :	B	C	A	C	A	B
3 rd :	C	B	C	A	B	A
	13	0	19	0	17	5

So who should be president?

Method 1: Vote for your first choice.

A	B	C	Carly wins!
13	19	22	

Method 2: Tell us your full ranking, and we'll pair them off.

A > B	B > C	A > C	Alice wins!
30	32	32	
A < B	B < C	A < C	
24	22	22	

$A > B, B > C, A > C.$

Suppose Alice, Becca, and Carly are running for president of their AWM chapter. The personal preferences of the 54 members are given by

1 st :	A	A	B	B	C	C
2 nd :	B	C	A	C	A	B
3 rd :	C	B	C	A	B	A
	13	0	19	0	17	5

So who should be president?

Method 4: Tell us your full ranking, and we'll give points according to the candidates' positions—1 for 1st, t for 2nd, 0 for 3rd.

	A	B	C
$(0 \leq t \leq 1)$	$13 + 36t$	$19 + 18t$	$22 + 0t$
$t = 0 :$	13	19	22
$t = 0.25 :$	22	23.5	22
$t = 0.5 :$	31	28	22
$t = 0.75 :$	40	32.5	22
$t = 1 :$	49	37	22

t	$C > B > A$	$B > C > A$	$B > A > C$	$A > \dots > C$	
0					1

In 2000, in Florida, 2,912,790 people voted for Bush, 2,912,253 voted for Gore, 97,488 voted for Nader, and 40,575 for other. Neglecting the “others”, suppose we had asked the rest of the voters for their full rankings of the top three candidates.

1 st :	<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>N</i>
2 nd :	<i>G</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>
3 rd :	<i>N</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>B</i>
	2.902mil	1.421mil	1.481mil	0.118mil

So who should have been president?

Method 1: Vote for your first choice.

<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>N</i>	Bush won.
2.90mil	2.90mil	0.11mil	

Method 2: Tell us your full ranking, and we'll pair them off.

<i>B</i> > <i>G</i>	<i>G</i> > <i>N</i>	<i>B</i> > <i>N</i>	Gore wins.
2.90mil	5.80mil	4.32mil	
<i>B</i> < <i>G</i>	<i>G</i> < <i>N</i>	<i>B</i> < <i>N</i>	
3.02mil	0.12mil	1.60mil	

G > *B*, *G* > *N*, *B* > *N*.

In 2000, in Florida, 2,912,790 people voted for Bush, 2,912,253 voted for Gore, 97,488 voted for Nader, and 40,575 for other. Neglecting the “others”, suppose we had asked the rest of the voters for their full rankings of the top three candidates.

1 st :	<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>N</i>
2 nd :	<i>G</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>
3 rd :	<i>N</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>B</i>
	2.902mil	1.421mil	1.481mil	0.118mil

So who should have been president?

Method 3: Tell us your full ranking, and we'll run an instant run off.

Round 1:			Nader loses.	Round 2:		Gore wins.
<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>N</i>		<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>	
2.90mil	2.90mil	0.12mil		2.90mil	3.02mil	

Method 4: Tell us your full ranking, and we'll give points according to the candidates' positions—1 for 1st, *t* for 2nd, 0 for 3rd.

<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>N</i>	$(0 \leq t \leq 1)$
$2.902 + 1.421 t$	$2.902 + 3.020 t$	$0.118 + 1.481 t$	

In 2000, in Florida, 2,912,790 people voted for Bush, 2,912,253 voted for Gore, 97,488 voted for Nader, and 40,575 for other. Neglecting the “others”, suppose we had asked the rest of the voters for their full rankings of the top three candidates.

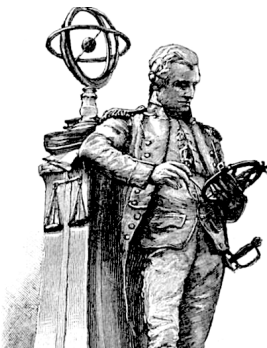
1 st :	<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>G</i>	<i>N</i>
2 nd :	<i>G</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>G</i>
3 rd :	<i>N</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>B</i>
	2.902mil	1.421mil	1.481mil	0.118mil

So who should have been president?

Method 4: Tell us your full ranking, and we’ll give points according to the candidates’ positions—1 for 1st, t for 2nd, 0 for 3rd.

	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>
$(0 \leq t \leq 1)$	$2.902 + 1.421 t$	$2.902 + 3.020 t$	$0.118 + 1.481 t$
$t = 0 :$	2.90mil	2.90mil	0.19mil
$t = 0.25 :$	3.26mil	3.66mil	0.49mil
$t = 0.5 :$	3.61mil	4.41mil	0.86mil
$t = 0.75 :$	3.97mil	5.17mil	1.23mil
$t = 1 :$	4.32mil	5.92mil	1.60mil

t	$B > G > N$	$G > B > N$
0	.000335	1



Jean-Charles, Chevalier de Borda

1733–1799

Mariner and scientist.

1770: formulated a ranked voting system, the “Borda count”. Used by the French Academy of Sciences, until Napoleon.

Nicolas de Caritat, Marquis de Condorcet

1743–1794

Philosopher and mathematician.

In 1785, wrote an essay on probability of decisions made on a majority vote, describing likelihood of good jury outcomes; and Condorcet’s paradox, which shows that majority preferences can become intransitive with three or more options





Dr. Donald G. Saari (1940–)

Professor of Mathematics and Economics.

1999: Used geometric methods to model voting data as vector spaces, and decompose them based on how they affect various tallying methods.

Kernel: Doesn't affect any fair voting system.

Borda: Influences both point-based and pairwise systems.

Condorcet: Introduces Condorcet paradox.

Reversal: Influences point-based systems, but not pairwise.

	Kernel	Borda			Condorcet	Reversal		
		\mathbf{b}_A	\mathbf{b}_B	\mathbf{b}_C		\mathbf{r}_A	\mathbf{r}_B	\mathbf{r}_C
ABC	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$	$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

	Points			$A > B$	$B > C$	$C > A$
	$\mathbf{w} = (1, t, 0)$			vs. $A < B$	vs. $B < C$	vs. $C < A$
	A	B	C			
Ker	$2 + 2t$	$2 + 2t$	$2 + 2t$	0	0	0
\mathbf{b}_A	2	-1	-1	4	0	-4
\mathbf{b}_B	-1	2	-1	-4	4	0
\mathbf{b}_C	-1	-1	2	0	-4	4
Cond	0	0	0	2	2	2
\mathbf{r}_A	$2 - 4t$	$-1 + 2t$	$-1 + 2t$	0	0	0
\mathbf{r}_B	$-1 + 2t$	$2 - 4t$	$-1 + 2t$	0	0	0
\mathbf{r}_C	$-1 + 2t$	$-1 + 2t$	$2 - 4t$	0	0	0

Don't worry about negatives: negative votes are fixed by the kernel.

Note: The reversal space is trivial *precisely* when $t = 1/2$.

Theorem (Saari '00) Given a full ranking of n candidates, the reversal space is trivial precisely for weight

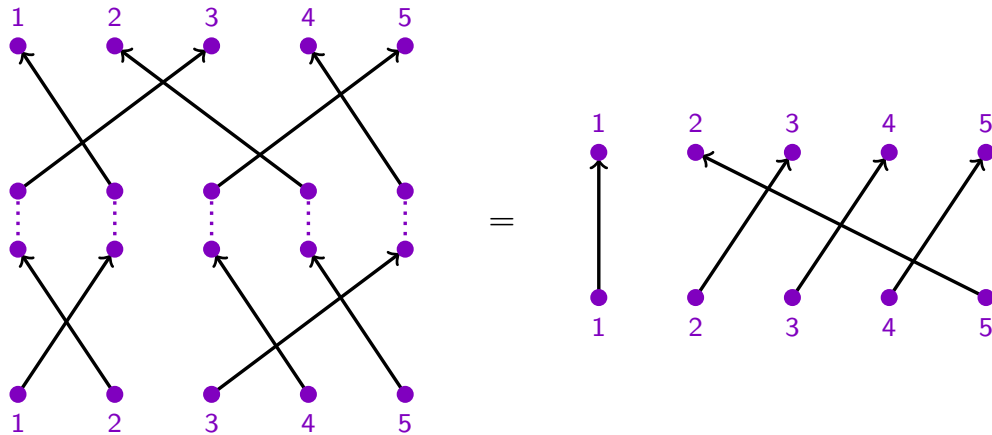
$$\mathbf{w} = \left(1, \frac{n-2}{n-1}, \dots, \frac{2}{n-1}, \frac{1}{n-1}, 0 \right).$$

Permutations and the symmetric group

A **permutation** is a bijective (one-to-one and onto) function

$$\sigma : \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}.$$

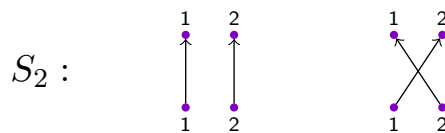
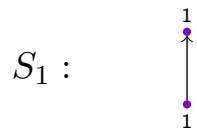
Permutation diagrams:



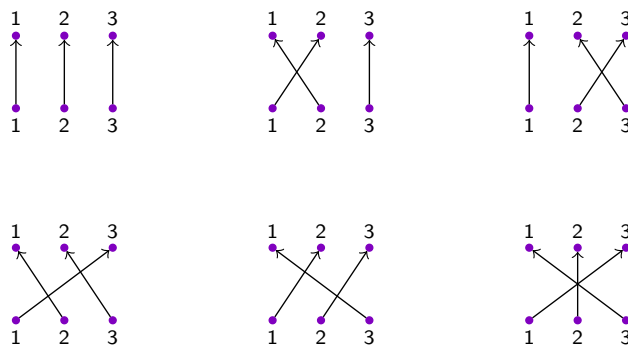
Permutations “multiply” by stacking and resolving.

The **symmetric group** S_n is the group of permutations of $1, \dots, n$ with multiplication given by function composition.

Some examples:

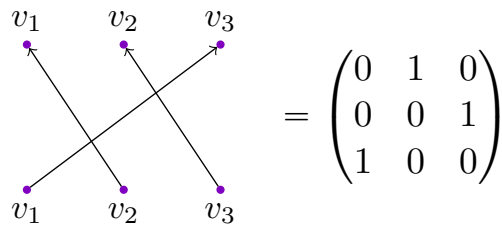


S_3 :



A **representation** of a group is a map from the group to a set of matrices that follows same multiplication rules.

Example: Permutation representation of the symmetric group.



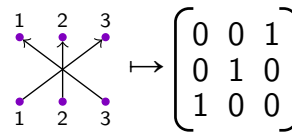
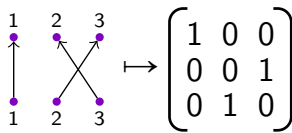
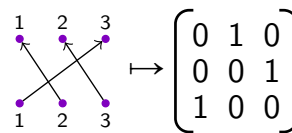
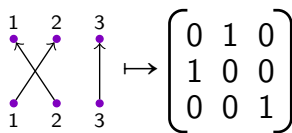
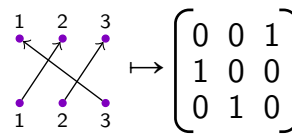
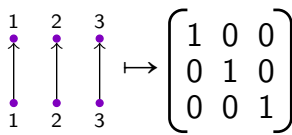
Pick a basis for \mathbb{Q}^3 :

$$v_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad v_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Map each permutation to the matrix that permutes the basis vectors in the same way. (Recall: i th col. is image of i th basis vector)

Aside: we actually have a representation of the **group ring**

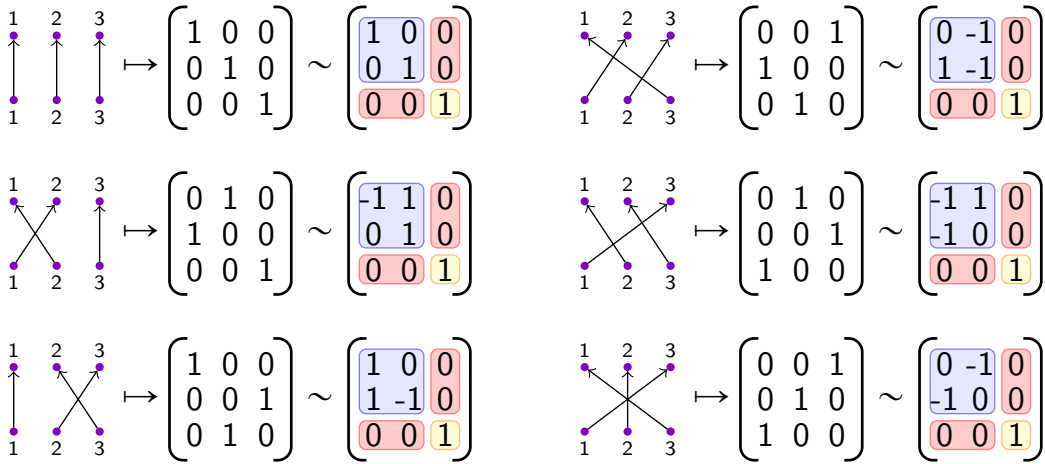
$$\mathbb{Q}S_n = \left\{ \sum_{\sigma \in S_n} r_\sigma \sigma \mid r_\sigma \in \mathbb{Q} \right\}, \text{ with multiplication like polynomials.}$$



For example,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \nearrow & \nwarrow & \uparrow \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{array} * \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \nwarrow & \uparrow & \nearrow \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{array} = \begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \uparrow & \nearrow & \nwarrow \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



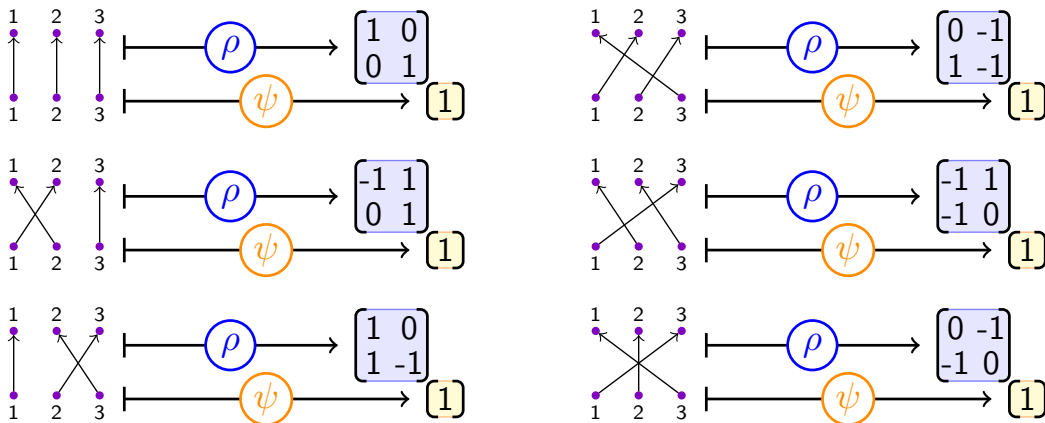
Notice that the permutation representation has an **invariant subspace** $\mathbb{Q}\{v_1 + v_2 + v_3\}$, since

$$M(v_1 + v_2 + v_3) = v_1 + v_2 + v_3$$

for all permutation matrices M .

Change to basis

$$w_1 = v_1 - v_2, \quad w_2 = v_2 - v_3, \quad w_3 = v_1 + v_2 + v_3$$



Start with the **permutation representation** P with basis $\{v_1, v_2, v_3\}$.

Change to basis

$$w_1 = v_1 - v_2, \quad w_2 = v_2 - v_3, \quad w_3 = v_1 + v_2 + v_3$$

We say P is isomorphic to the sum of two smaller representations:

$$P \cong \rho \oplus \psi$$

We say ρ and ψ are **simple** because neither has any invariant subspaces.

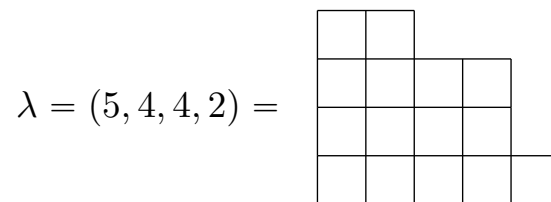
Some combinatorics.

Let n be a non-negative integer.

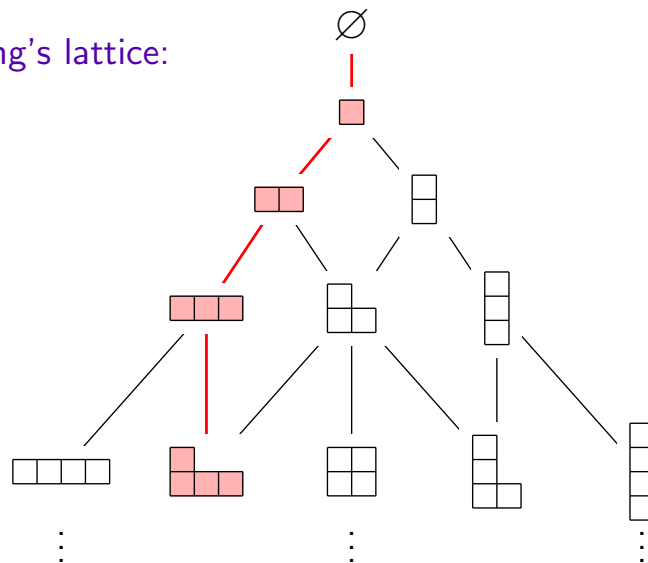
A **partition** λ of n is a non-ordered list of positive integers which sum to n .

Example: the partitions of 3 are (3) , $(2, 1)$, and $(1, 1, 1)$.

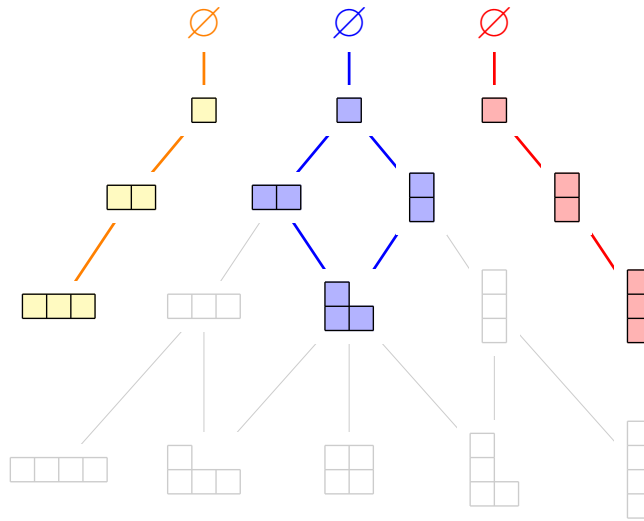
We draw partitions as n boxes left-justified, where the **parts** are the number of boxes in a row (reading from the bottom):



Young's lattice:



λ -Tableau: a path from \emptyset down to a partition λ .

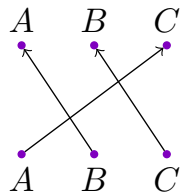


λ -Tableau: a path from \emptyset down to a partition λ .

Theorem 1: (Up to isomorphism) the simple S_n -representations are indexed by partitions of n .

Theorem 2: If λ is a partition of n , then the corresponding representation has basis indexed by λ -tableaux, and matrices determined by other combinatorial data about those paths.

Why do we care about representations of S_n ?


$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Pick a basis for \mathbb{Q}^3 :

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Map each permutation to the matrix that permutes the basis vectors in the same way.

We use the permutation representation to model the **outcome space**. For example, the vector

$$(13, 19, 22) = 13A + 19B + 22C$$

means A, B, and C got 13, 19, and 22 votes, respectively.

Theorem. The permutation representation decomposes into one simple 1-dimensional (**trivial**) representation and one simple $(n - 1)$ -dimensional (**reflection**) representation.

The permutation representation models the **outcome space**.
More: all voting data spaces are symmetric group “**modules**”.

In other words:

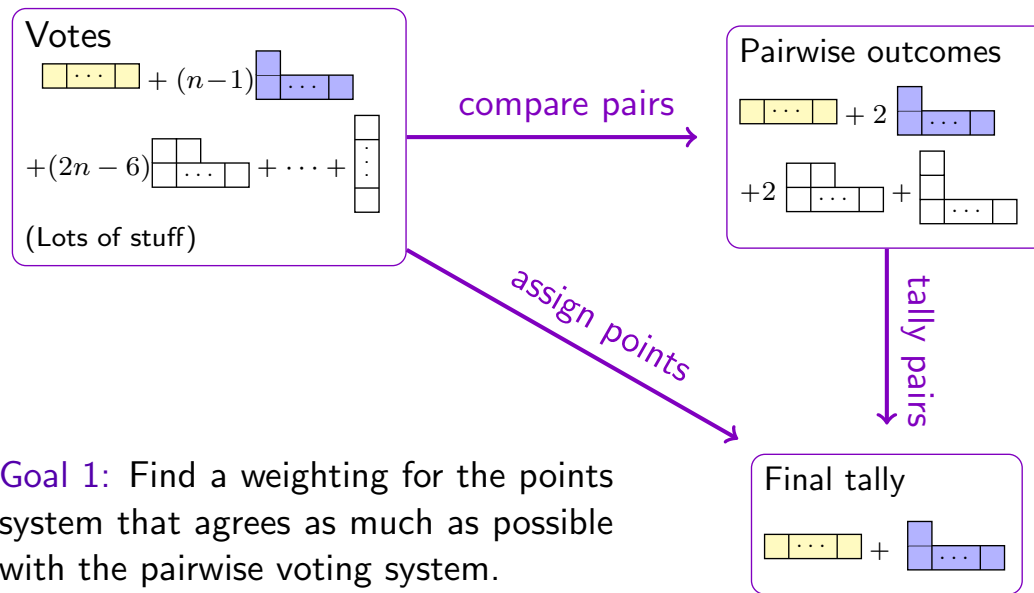
Permutations naturally move around voting and outcome spaces.

(Permute the candidate’s names, or their places on the ballot.)

Tally functions (how you add up the vote) are “ **S_n -module homomorphisms**”, i.e. maps from the voter data to the outcome space that preserve

- addition,
If individual precincts add up votes, and then combine results, that should be the same as if the tallying happened all in one place.
- scaling, and
If everyone’s vote counted 5 times, the outcome should be the same.
- permutations.
Changing the order that candidates appear on the ballot ideally shouldn’t change the outcome.

Collect full rankings of preferences for n candidates...



Goal 1: Find a weighting for the points system that agrees as much as possible with the pairwise voting system.

Result 1 (Saari, D.): The point-based system that agrees most with the pairwise outcomes is the (modified) Borda count, with weight

$$\mathbf{w} = (n-1, n-2, \dots, 1, 0)$$

(as expected).

Other results...

Partial rankings (D. '05): Ask voters to rank their top k choices (more practical if there are *many* choices). Then the points system that agrees most with the pairwise outcomes is the natural analogue to the Borda count, with weight

$$n-i \quad \text{for the } i\text{th candidate } (1 \leq i \leq k), \text{ and}$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(n-k-1) \quad \text{for the last } n-k \text{ candidates.}$$

(Average the remaining points amongst the last-place candidates.)
 For example, if you ask for the top 3 out of 20, the points are 19, 18, 17, 8, ..., 8.

[D., Eustis, Minton, Orrison; '07]: Notes on "Approval voting" (ask voters which candidates they approve of), and "Effective spaces" (what kind of voting profiles influence elections).

Committees (Barcelo, Bernstein, Bockting-Conrad, McNichols, Nyman, Viel; '18): How to tally votes for committees with representation from several departments (using representation theory of $S_m \wr S_n$).

What do we want, and why do we care?

- ▶ Mathematicians: More data preservation is better.
- ▶ Idealists: Everyone should have a fair say.
- ▶ Pragmatists: Simpler voting systems are easier to implement.
- ▶ Cynics: Stupid things happen when people, en mass, are forced to game their votes.
- ▶ (Over-educated) Conspiracy Theorists: Our voting system is provably about as bad as it can be without *everyone* noticing.
- ▶ Kenneth Arrow: No voting system is ideal, so . . .
- ▶ Mathematicians (again): Oh, come *on!*

Some references . . .

- Many many publications of Donal Saari, particularly around 1999–2000. Also, “Decisions and Elections; Explaining the Unexpected”, Cambridge University Press, 2001.
- “Voting, the symmetric group, and representation theory”, by **D.**, Eustis, Minton, and Orrison. *American Mathematical Monthly* 116 (2009), no. 8, 667–687.
- “Algebraic voting theory and representations of $S_m \wr S_n$ ”, by Barcelo, Bernstein, Bockting-Conrad, McNichols, Nyman, Viel. (preprint: arXiv:1807.03743)
- “How not to be wrong”, by Jordan Ellenberg. Chapter 17: “There is no such thing as public opinion.”

And even though our system is non-ideal as is . . .

Vote!

<http://vote.nyc.ny.us>