# Probabilistic studies of election methods 

Svante Janson

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## Notation

We have $m$ parties with $v_{i}$ votes for party $i ; V:=\sum_{i=1}^{m} v_{i}$ is the total number of votes and $p_{i}:=v_{i} / V$ the proportions of votes for party $i$.

The house size is $n$ and party $i$ gets $s_{i}$ seats; thus

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} s_{i}=n
$$

## Seat excess and bias

Strict proportionality would give

$$
\begin{equation*}
q_{i}:=\frac{v_{i}}{V} n=p_{i} n \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

seats to party $i$. (This is usually not an integer.)
The seat excess for party $i$ is the difference

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{i}:=s_{i}-q_{i}=s_{i}-p_{i} n \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \Delta_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} s_{i}-n=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The bias is the mean $\mathbb{E} \Delta_{i}$ of the seat excess.
This assumes that we consider a random instance. Some possibilities:

- A sample of real elections.
(E.g. Pólya (1918), Balinski and Young (2001).)

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- My approach: Consider $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ as given but let $n$ be random. (Random in $\{1, \ldots, N\}$; then let $N \rightarrow \infty$.)


## Advantages

- Asymptotic results depend on $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ but not on $n$. Thus assumptions of random $n$ are more robust than assumptions of random $p_{i}$.
- More precise information.

Example: d'Hondt's method, three parties.
Pólya: The largest party has a bias of $5 / 12$, the second $-1 / 12$, the smallest $-4 / 12$.
My approach: A party of size $p$ has bias $(3 p-1) / 2$.

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- Simpler formulas.
- Leads to nice and interesting mathematics.


## Disadvantages

- In practice, $n$ is not random.
(But neither does $n \rightarrow \infty$ hold.)
- We have to assume that $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are linearly independent over the rational numbers.
(But this is implicit when $p_{1}, \ldots, p_{m}$ are random, so it is really nothing new.)

For asymtotic results these are not serious problems.

## Rounding

$\lfloor x\rfloor$ and $\lceil x\rceil$ means rounding down and up of a real number $x$. $\{x\}:=x-\lfloor x\rfloor$ is the fractional part of $x$.
More generally, let $\alpha$ be a real number. The $\alpha$-rounding of a real number $x$ is the integer $[x]_{\alpha}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
x-\alpha \leq[x]_{\alpha} \leq x-\alpha+1 \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consequently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
[x]_{\alpha}=\lceil x-\alpha\rceil=\lfloor x+1-\alpha\rfloor, \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$, this means that $x$ is rounded down if its fractional part is less than $\alpha$ and up if its fractional part is greater than $\alpha$. In particular, $\alpha=\frac{1}{2}$ yields standard rounding, $\alpha=0$ yields rounding up and $\alpha=1$ yields rounding down. (But note that we allow also $\alpha<0$ or $\alpha>1$, in which case $\left|x-[x]_{\alpha}\right|$ may be greater than 1.)

## Election methods

- The $\beta$-stationary divisor method, or the divisor method with $d(k)=k+\beta$ (where $\beta$ is a real number): Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
s_{i}:=\left[\frac{v_{i}}{D}\right]_{\beta}=\left[\frac{p_{i}}{D^{\prime}}\right]_{\beta}, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $D\left(\right.$ or $\left.D^{\prime}=D / V\right)$ is chosen such that $\sum_{i=1}^{m} s_{i}=n$. Examples: $\beta=1$ (Jefferson, d'Hondt), $\beta=1 / 2$ (Webster, Sainte-Laguë), $\beta=0$ (Adams), $\beta=2$ (Imperiali).

- The $\gamma$-quota method (where $\gamma$ is a real number): Let $Q:=V /(n+\gamma)$ and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
s_{i}:=\left[\frac{v_{i}}{Q}\right]_{\alpha}=\left[(n+\gamma) p_{i}\right]_{\alpha}, \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\alpha$ is chosen such that $\sum_{i=1}^{m} s_{i}=n$.
Examples: $\gamma=0$ (Hamilton, Hare, method of largest remainder), $\gamma=1$ (Droop), $\gamma=2$ (Imperiali).

## Asymptotic bias

Theorem
For the $\beta$-stationary divisor method:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E} \Delta_{i} \rightarrow\left(\beta-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(m p_{i}-1\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the $\gamma$-quota method:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E} \Delta_{i} \rightarrow \gamma\left(p_{i}-\frac{1}{m}\right) . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

The asymptotic bias for a party thus depends only on its size and the number of parties, but not on the sizes of the other parties.
In particular, the bias is 0 for every party when $\beta=1 / 2$
(Webster/Sainte-Laguë) or $\gamma=0$ (Hamilton/Hare). This is
well-known with other approaches; our approach confirms this, and shows that the method really is unbiased for a party of any size.

## Asymptotic distribution

Theorem
For the $\beta$-stationary divisor method:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{i} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{~d}} \bar{X}_{i}:=\left(\beta-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(m p_{i}-1\right)+\widetilde{U}_{0}+p_{i} \sum_{k=1}^{m-2} \widetilde{U}_{k} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the $\gamma$-quota method:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta_{i} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{~d}} Y_{i}:=\gamma\left(p_{i}-\frac{1}{m}\right)+\widetilde{U}_{0}+\frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m-2} \widetilde{U}_{k} . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $\widetilde{U}_{k} \sim \mathrm{U}\left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right)$ are independent.

## Asymptotic variance

Corollary
For the $\beta$-stationary divisor method:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Var} \Delta_{i} \rightarrow \frac{1+(m-2) p_{i}^{2}}{12} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the $\gamma$-quota method:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Var} \Delta_{i} \rightarrow \frac{1+(m-2) / m^{2}}{12}=\frac{(m+2)(m-1)}{12 m^{2}} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Violating quota?

We say that a seat assignment $s_{i}$ satisfies lower quota if $s_{i} \geq\left\lfloor q_{i}\right\rfloor$ and satisfies upper quota if $s_{i} \leq\left\lceil q_{i}\right\rceil$; it satisfies quota if both holds.

In terms of the seat excess $\Delta_{i}=s_{i}-q_{i}$, the assignment satisfies lower [upper] quota if and only if $\Delta_{i}>-1\left[\Delta_{i}<1\right]$, and it satisfies quota if and only if $\left|\Delta_{i}\right|<1$.

It is well-known that Hamilton/Hare's method always satisfies quota, while Jefferson's and Droop's methods satisfy lower quota and Adams method satisfies upper quota. It is also well-known that Webster/Sainte-Laguë does not always satisfy quota, but that violations are unusual in practice.

The theorem above enable us to calculate the (asymptotic) probabilities that quota is violated for various methods.

## Example

Jefferson/d'Hondt's method $(\beta=1)$, and a party $i$ with three times the average size: $p_{i}=3 / m$.
The bias is 1 . It follows by the theorem above that

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\Delta_{i}>1\right) \rightarrow 1 / 2
$$

so the (asymptotic) probability that the party violates quota is $1 / 2$. For a larger party, the probability is even greater.

## Example

The Swedish parliament contains at present 8 parties; two large with $30 \%$ of the votes each and 6 small with $5-8 \%$ percent each.
The seats are in principle distributed by Sainte-Laguë's method ( $\beta=1 / 2$ ).
The small parties always satisfy quota. In fact, for Webster/Sainte-Laguë, only parties with $p_{i} \geq 1 /(m-2)$ can violate quota.

For the large parties we have $p_{i}=0.3$, and thus

An integration yields

$$
\Delta_{i} \rightarrow X_{i}:=\widetilde{U}_{0}+0.3 \sum_{k=1}^{6} \widetilde{U}_{k}
$$

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\bar{X}_{i} \geq 1\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(\bar{X}_{i} \leq-1\right)=0.00045
$$

Hence, for each of the two large parties the (asymptotic) probability of violating quota is 0.0009 .

## The Alabama paradox

(Joint work with Svante Linusson.)

## Theorem

The probability that state $i$ suffers from the Alabama paradox when we increase the total number of seats by one equals

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{m} \mathbb{E}\left(S_{i}^{-}-S_{i}^{+}-1\right)_{+} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $S_{i}^{+}=\sum_{j: p_{j}<p_{i}} l_{j}^{(i)}$ and $S_{i}^{-}=\sum_{j: p_{j}>p_{i}} l_{j}^{(i)}$ with $l_{j}^{(i)} \sim \operatorname{Be}\left(\left|p_{i}-p_{j}\right|\right)$ and $l_{1}^{(i)}, \ldots, I_{m}^{(i)}$ independent. If the states are ordered with $p_{1} \leq p_{2} \leq \cdots \leq p_{m}$, this can be written

$$
\frac{1}{m} \sum_{s=0}^{i-1} \sum_{k=2}^{m-i}(-1)^{s+k}\binom{s+k-2}{s} e_{s}\left(r_{1}^{(i)}, \ldots, r_{i-1}^{(i)}\right) e_{k}\left(r_{i+1}^{(i)}, \ldots, r_{m}^{(i)}\right),
$$

where $r_{j}^{(i)}:=\left|p_{i}-p_{j}\right|$ and $e_{k}$ is the elementary symmetric polynomial.

## Corollary

Suppose that there are three states with relative sizes $p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}$, with $p_{1} \leq p_{2} \leq p_{3}$. Then only the smallest state can suffer from the Alabama paradox, and the probability of this is

$$
\frac{1}{3}\left(p_{2}-p_{1}\right)\left(p_{3}-p_{1}\right) .
$$

The supremum of this probability over all distributions $\left(p_{1}, p_{2}, p_{3}\right)$ is $1 / 12$, and the average is $1 / 36$.

With (uniform) random poulation sizes, the expected number of occurences of the Alabama paradox is $\approx 0.12324$ for large $m$.

## Proofs

> Proofs are based on Weyl's theorem: If $W_{i}=\left\{n p_{i}\right\}$ then $W_{1}, \ldots, W_{m-1}$ are (asymptotically) uniformly distributed in $(0,1)$ and independent.

However, $W_{m}$ is determined by $W_{1}, \ldots, W_{m-1}$. Moreover, the adjustment of the divisor in divisor methods, or the rounding threshold in quota methods, in order to achieve a fixed house size $n$ introduces some rather complicated dependencies. Nevertheless, after some algebraic manipulations we obtain the results above.

Further applications

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- The probability that a party or coalition with a small majority of the votes but not a majority of the seats.


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- The probability that a party or coalition with a small majority of the votes but not a majority of the seats.
- Biproportional methods??

