

Electoral engineering — simulating vote distributions

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supported by Marsden Fund of NZ

INFORMS International, Hawaii, 2016-06-13



References

Background

Algorithms and quality measures

Inputs

Applications

Electoral system design

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- ▶ We (Fowlie & Wilson 2012) have done this on a much smaller scale in the context of a review of the NZ voting system.
- ▶ We focus only on families of systems based on **plurality ballots** (vote for a single candidate/party).

Key parameters

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- ▶ The **threshold** below which votes for a party are treated as zero. This is as high as 10% in Turkey and as low as 0% in Netherlands, but is commonly around 3–5%.

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- ▶ **MM**: fraction α of seats allocated by FPP, the rest by PR using the same ballot;
- ▶ Multi-level systems: voters give a single district vote. At each level, districts are aggregated along with corresponding votes, and some seats allocated. With 1 level this is FPP and with 2 levels it is MM.

Measures

- ▶ A standard measure of stability of the political system is the **effective number of parties** (Laakso & Taagepera, 1979). If p is the probability distribution of seats over parties in parliament, then

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- ▶ Taagepera (1987) shows that expected cabinet duration is well fitted by $42/L^2$.
- ▶ The standard measure of proportionality for party-based systems is the **Gallagher least squares index**. If v_i denotes the vote share, then

$$G(p, v) = \left(\sum_i (v_i - p_i)^2 \right)^{1/2}.$$

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- ▶ The most commonly used method in the literature is simply to make iid draws from the uniform distribution on possible votes (**Impartial Culture**).
- ▶ This has been severely criticised for lack of realism (Regenwetter *et al.* 2008).
- ▶ For plurality ballots, we are sampling from **ordered m -compositions of N** where m is the number of candidates and N the number of voters in the district.

Another approach — single district

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- ▶ If $c = 0$, we get IC. If $c = 1$ we obtain the **Impartial Anonymous Culture**: every ordered m -composition of N is equally likely.
- ▶ Larger values of c model more homogeneous societies.

Multiple districts — uniform generation

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- ▶ If we don't specify constraints on column sums (national party vote totals), and generate district results independently, the law of large numbers shows that column totals will be very similar. This is highly unrealistic, since party size distribution is usually very far from this.
- ▶ Also, real party votes show substantial correlation between districts. In fact, districts are often drawn in order to create clear winners.

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- ▶ This is a very interesting problem. However there are no standard algorithms known to work well for large numbers of rows (hundreds) and columns (about 10).
- ▶ A recently introduced recursive algorithm (DeSalvo & Zhao, 2015) may be useful. However we have not pursued this yet.

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- ▶ The basic model is of new voters making up their mind under influence from others, who are more likely, but not certain to be in the same district.
- ▶ The initial conditions and the values of p and c are parameters we can attempt to tune to get “realistic” results.

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 - ▶ L is about $(MS)^{1/6}$.
 - ▶ The maximum vote share of a party is about $(MS)^{-1/8}$.
- ▶ Li and Shugart (2016) have shown these formulae to work remarkably well on empirical data. We can use them to see that our simulated values scale appropriately.

Extensions — multiple districts

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- ▶ Instead of choosing another district randomly to imitate, make it more likely to imitate a “close” district.
- ▶ With enough tuning, it may be possible to use this model to describe preference change in real situations and even to use it for forecasting.

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- ▶ It is possible *a priori* that the two criteria can be co-optimized only at the extremes, or somewhere in between the extremes.

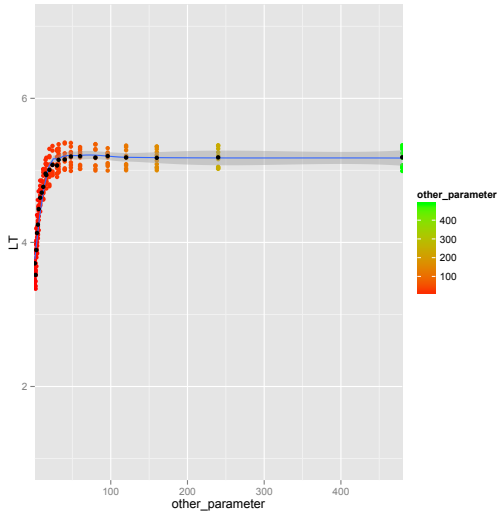
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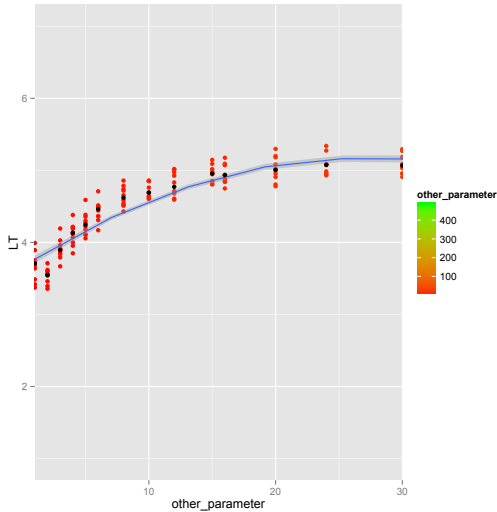
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- ▶ They studied 609 election outcomes from 81 countries during 1945–2006. They conclude that low to moderate (say 3–7) district magnitude achieves the best tradeoff.

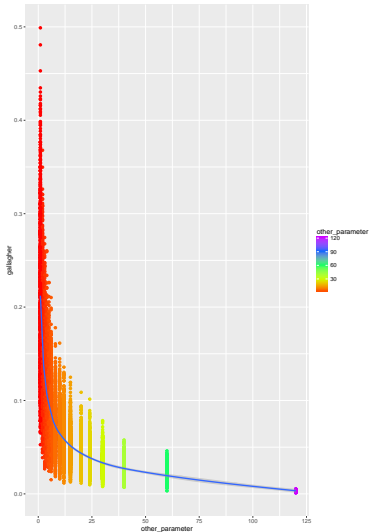
Number of parties versus district magnitude — simple



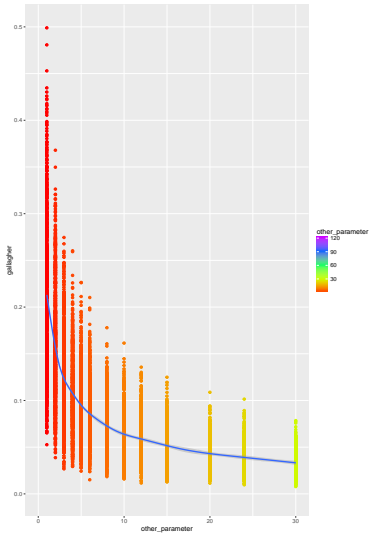
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Disproportionality versus district magnitude — simple



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