

Titelei/Inhaltsverzeichnis

Seite I–XXXI

Dieter Nohlen

Elections and Electoral Systems

Seite 1–68

Dieter Nohlen, Philip Stöver

Elections in Europe

Seite 69–124

Dorothee de Nève

Albania

Seite 125–148

Arthur Mickoleit

Andorra

Seite 149–168

Klaus Poier

Austria

Seite 169–232

Astrid Sahn

Belarus

Seite 233–268

Matthias Trefs

Belgium

Seite 269–318

Mirjana Kasapović

Bosnia

Seite 319–350

Antony Torodorov

Bulgaria

Seite 351–398

Mirjana Kasapović

Croatia

Seite 399–426

Henrik Schober

Cyprus

Seite 427–452

Tomáš Lebeda

Czech Republic

Seite 453–500

Jørgen Elklit

Denmark

Seite 501–564

Allan Sikk

Estonia

Seite 565–592

Dag Anckar, Carsten Anckar

Finland

Seite 593–638

Dieter Nohlen

France

Seite 639–722

Ralf Lindner, Rainer-Olaf Schultze

Germany

Seite 723–806

Antonis Pantelis, Stephanos

Koutsoubinas, George Gerapetritis

Greece

Seite 807–872

Florian Grotz, László Hubai

Hungary

Seite 873–946

Ólafur Th. Hardarson, Gunnar Helgi

Kristinnson

Iceland

Seite 947–986

Michael Gallagher, Liam Weeks

Ireland

Seite 987–1026

Mario Caciagli

Italy

Seite 1027–1100

Artis Pabriks, Visvaldis Valtenbergs

Latvia

Seite 1101–1154

Wilfried Marxer

Liechtenstein

Seite 1155–1186

Elections III

Home Europe

Vatican



Andreas Wüst, Vatican in:

Dieter Nohlen, Philip Stöver (Hrsg.)

Elections in Europe, Seite 2035 - 2046

A Data Handbook

1. Auflage 2010, ISBN print: 978-3-8329-5609-7, ISBN online: 978-3-8452-2341-4, <https://doi.org/10.5771/9783845223414-2035>



Nomos

Bibliographische Daten ^

- zum Volltext
- PDF Download
- Abstract
- Zitation Download
- über dieses Werk



VATICAN CITY by Andreas M. Wüst 1. Introduction 1.1 Historical Overview Covering an area of just 44 hectares and with less than 1,000 citizens, the Vatican City is not only the smallest sovereign state in Europe, but in the world. The enclave, which lies primarily within Italy's capital Rome, eventually became sovereign by the Lateran Treaties arranged between the state of Italy and The Holy See in 1929. The Vatican City's head of state is the head of Roman Catholics and Bishop of Rome, the Pope. Referring to the Vatican usually means The Holy See and not the Vatican City, and the micro-state is unthinkable without the Roman Catholic Church and its head. Yet, the pope is the only person in the Vatican City who is elected, even if not by the small citizenry, but by an even smaller number of eligible cardinals. Becoming head of the Roman Catholic Church automatically makes him a life-long monarch of the Vatican City bearing supreme legislative, executive and judiciary power. Among other officials, the pope appoints the cardinal secretary of state who acts on his behalf and who can be considered the prime minister of the Vatican City. There is a long history of areas ruled by the Bishop of Rome in his secular role. The Roman Emperor Constantine I legalized Christianity in the early fourth century, enabling the Church to own land. While the Donation of Constantine, granting the popes power over the city of Rome and over the whole Occident, is a forgery of the eighth century, it helped the Roman Catholic Church defend its interests and establish the rule over territories in the midst of Italy (Latium) in the Middle Ages. In 754, the papacy and the evolving Carolingian dynasty began to co-operate: the Donation of Pippin (756), a codification by Charlemagne (781), and later the Diploma Ottonianum (962) by the German King Otto I confirmed the pope as sovereign ruler of territories that became the heartland of what was called the Papal States in early modern times. Vatican City2036 The geographical extension of the Papal States grew significantly in the late Middle Ages and especially during the Renaissance. In the late 18th century, most parts of central Italy had been controlled by the Roman Catholic Church. Yet, the French Revolution had a direct effect on The Papal States, since Pius VI called the beheaded French king Louis XVI a martyr. French troops occupied The Papal States, pope Pius VI fled, but was captured and died in exile (1799). The Papal States were only restored in 1800 and, after another French occupation (1808), again in 1814. However, the restoration of the Papal States along with reactionary papal policies to 1846, did not last. From 1848 on, the nation-building process in Italy gradually brought an end to the Papal States. In 1870, papal influence was reduced to the Vatican by Italy's new government, and in 1871, Rome became Italy's capital. For about fifty years, the Vatican hoped for restoration, but entered negotiations with Italy in 1926 which resulted in the Lateran Treaties of 1929 creating a sovereign micro-state, the Vatican City. Even though it is The Holy See and not the Vatican City that holds diplomatic relations with other countries and organizations, a recognized national territory has been and undoubtedly remains helpful to be recognized as a sovereign entity. Without a territory (1870–1929), The Holy See was only recognized as a sovereign entity by some countries. While nation-building, democratization, and secularization reduced the terrestrial power of the Vatican to insignificance, several popes of the 20th century have contributed to establish The Holy See as a respected super-national moral authority, especially in foreign relations. Benedict XV repeatedly criticized World War I, and made several attempts to end the war. And John Paul II not only fought for an end of communist suppression in Europe (and in his home country Poland), but also encouraged the Roman Catholic Church to be a protector of the poor and suppressed around the world. While the moral authority of the Vatican in foreign relations and with regard to humanitarian issues is widely accepted, the positions of The Holy See on a myriad of social issues are not. It is the continuing exclusion of women from almost all offices in the Roman Catholic Church and the infallibility of the elective monarch which make the Vatican a highly ambiguous institution in the democratic age. Vatican City 2037 1.2 Evolution of Electoral Provisions Since many popes have set and revised electoral provisions, only the most important ones are documented here. In Roman times, the Bishop of Rome was chosen by the local clergy and by the citizens of Rome. In 769, deacons and priests of the Roman Catholic Church were chosen as the exclusive electors of the pontiff by Stephen V. And in 1059, the electorate was limited to cardinal bishops, initially to the ones in Rome's immediate neighborhood. In 1586, an upper limit of 70 for the number of cardinals was introduced by Sixtus V. This limit was raised to 75 by Pope John XXIII only four hundred years later (1958), and to 144 by his successor, Paul VI (1973). This increase reflects the geographical spread of appointed cardinals outside Europe in the 20th century. It was Paul VI who also started to differentiate between cardinals with voting rights (cardinal electors) and without. In 1970, he revoked the voting rights of cardinals aged 80 and over on the day a conclave for the election of a new pope starts. The ineligible cardinals were not only excluded from the election, but also from the conclave. In 1975, Paul VI introduced a limit of 120 cardinal electors, while also stating no cardinal elector shall be deprived of his voting rights. John Paul II approved these changes, but carefully revised some details. The qualified majority of at least two thirds of the votes was first introduced by Alexander III in 1179 (Third Lateran Council). In 1276 the requirement of a two-thirds majority lost its exclusivity. Celestine V created two alternative ways to get elected: by an undisputed 'acclamation' of a cardinal and by 'consensus' between rival voting blocs. In 1562, a fourth way to get elected was introduced by Pius IV, the 'accessus': each voter could openly change his choice after a ballot. These rules became more formalized by Gregory XV in 1621 and 1622, requiring secret votes and, if conducted, also secret access. Ever since, secret balloting has been the rule. In 1945, Pius XII raised the required majority to two thirds plus one vote. In 1996, John Paul II not only reestablished secret balloting and the two-thirds majority rule of 1179, but he also introduced a revolutionary element by giving the cardinals the option of lowering the two-thirds majority after at least 33 unsuccessful ballots, including the opportunity of arranging a run-off between the two cardinals who had received the most votes. Since the constitution of Ubi periculum, by Pope Gregory X (1274), the election started on the evening of the tenth day after a pope passed away. This waiting period made it easier for cardinals to travel to a Vatican City2038 papal election in time. According to the Roman tradition, there are nine days of mourning for the dead pope (novemdiale sacrum) during which he is also buried. In 1904, Pius X affirmed a minimal waiting period of ten days between a pope's death and the beginning of a conclave. In 1922, Pius XI extended this period to a minimum of 15 and a maximum of 18 days, and John Paul II extended the maximum to 20 days. According to Ubi periculum (1274), papal elections had to be carried out at a place where the electors are isolated until a new pope is elected (conclave, meaning room or chamber). Originally, the conclave was invented to accelerate the electoral process, since it took almost three years for Gregory X to finally be elected (1274). Also, it certainly helped to keep some if not all proceedings of an election secret. Most conclaves have been held in Rome. Of the elections documented, only the first one (1799/1800) took place in Venice as Rome was occupied by the French. The following four elections (1823, 1829, 1831, and 1846) were held at the Quirinal Palace in Rome, and since 1878, all papal elections have taken place in the Sistine Chapel in the Vatican. John Paul II has finally codified this location. 1.3 Current Electoral Provisions Sources: Universi Dominici Gregis (UDG) of Pope John Paul II, published 22 February 1996. Suffrage: Ordinary citizens of the Vatican City have no voting rights. Suffrage is limited to cardinals of the Roman Catholic Church who have not reached the age of 80 years on the day of death (or resignation) of a pope. Voting among eligible cardinals is equal, direct, secret (per scrutinium), and compulsory. Elected national institutions: The pope. Nomination of candidates: There is no official nomination. In principle, all single, catholic men are eligible. De facto, since 1378 all popes elected have been cardinals. If a pope-elect was not a bishop before the election, he would be consecrated right after the election in the conclave. Electoral system: Qualified majority system. A majority of two thirds of all electors attending the conclave is required. Up to four ballots are Vatican City 2039 held each day, two in the morning and two in the afternoon. UDG requires non-voting days after four days of the conclave, and again after seven,

Terry D. Clark, *Dovilė Jakniūnaitė*

Lithuania

Seite 1187–1226

Marc Thiltgen

Luxembourg

Seite 1227–1270

Mirjana Kasapović

Macedonia

Seite 1271–1294

Johannes Schwehm

Malta

Seite 1295–1312

Klaus Neukirch

Moldava

Seite 1313–1348

Phillip Stöver

Monaco

Seite 1349–1364

Phillip Stöver, Marian Gallenkamp

Montenegro

Seite 1365–1378

Rudy B. Andreweg, Josje Den Ridder, and

Galen A. Irwin

Netherlands

Seite 1379–1420

Charlotte Larsen Cadoret

Norway

Seite 1421–1470

Anna Materska-Sosnowska

Poland

Seite 1471–1524

Pedro Tavares de Almeida

Portugal

Seite 1525–1578

Dorotheé de Nève

Romania

Seite 1579–1622

Stephen White

Russia

Seite 1623–1668

Christian Baukhage

San Marino

Seite 1669–1698

Mirjana Kasapović

Serbia

Seite 1699–1732

Marek Rybář

Slovakia

Seite 1733–1760

Marian Gallenkamp, Steffen Kassner

Slovenia

Seite 1761–1802

Josep M. Vallès, Dieter Nohlen

Spain

Seite 1803–1840

Anders Widfeldt

Sweden

Seite 1841–1878

Wolf Linder, Georg Lutz, Christian

Bolliger, and Sophia Hännny

Switzerland

Seite 1879–1966

Sarah Birch

Ukraine

Seite 1967–2000

Richard Rose, Neil Munro

United Kingdom

Seite 2001–2034

Andreas Wüst

Vatican

Seite 2035–2046

Post Scriptum: Elections in 2009

Seite 2047–2060

Glossary

Seite 2061–2070

ten and 13 days. In case of at least 33 unsuccessful ballots, the electors may decide to lower the required majority and/ or to arrange a run-off. Yet, an absolute majority of the electors present still has to be obtained to get a pope elected. The number of ‘regular’ ballots required depends on whether a first ballot takes place on the first day of a conclave (34 ballots) or not (33). A ballot is only valid when the number of votes equals the number of cardinal electors in the conclave. Legal provisions for referendums: There are no legal provisions for referendums. Organizational context of elections: Between the death of a pope (or resignation) and the election of a successor (sede vacante), the college of cardinals assumes responsibility for the Vatican and for the election of a new pope. Not much is left to the college of cardinals’ discretion. According to UDG, the cardinals are free to set the start of the conclave to the 15th up to the 20th day after the death of a pope, and they are also free to start with the papal election on the first or second day of the conclave. The crucial organizational details however, are fixed by the electoral law set by the deceased pope or by one of his predecessors. The ceremonial details are not documented here. Papal elections take place in the Sistine Chapel. Having experienced two papal elections in discomfort in 1978, John Paul II also loosened the strict conclave rule by which the cardinal electors had been required to stay in a locked room during the whole conclave. Instead, cardinal electors now reside in comparatively comfortable rooms in the guest house Domus Sanctae Marthae within the Vatican, and only spend the day in the Sistine Chapel. Three cardinals who are chosen by random count votes separately. The fact that the cardinals more or less know each other and count the votes on their own, challenges the secrecy of a formally secret vote. No matter whether a cardinal has reached a two-thirds majority or not, ballot papers are burnt twice a day. If a pope is elected, the smoke of the burnt votes is supposed to be white, if no cardinal has reached the qualified majority, the smoke is supposed to be black. Today, chemicals are added to produce white or black smoke. This is (supposed to be) the only way the voters in the conclave communicate with the outside world. There are no official election results, there is no judicial review, and there is no electoral observation. Vatican City2040 1.4

Commentary on the Electoral Statistics Despite the fact that the Vatican City only became a sovereign state in 1929, all papal elections since 1799 are documented within this handbook for the 19th and 20th centuries for completeness. Since all acts in a papal conclave are considered secret, there is hardly any official information on papal elections beyond the observable facts. For modern times, there are no disputes on the dates the popes died and on the dates a conclave began and ended. This information is compiled in table 2.1. The number of ballots is not given by any official source, but has been reconstructed using reliable secondary sources—the number of ballots is documented in the same table. Furthermore, the number of eligible cardinals on the day of the death of a pope is quite well known, but deaths of cardinals during the sede vacante do sometimes make calculations difficult for eligible cardinals and for the number of cardinals in the conclave. The respective numbers are given in table 2.2. The primarily source-based compilation of the Florida State University librarian Salvador Miranda (http://www.fiu.edu/~mirandas) was considered most reliable, and could resolve contradictions among other secondary sources. Vatican City 2041 2. Tables There is no parliament, general elections have never been held, and parties do not exist in the Vatican City. The Vatican is an elective monarchy, in which the electors of a monarch are chosen by the reigning monarch, i.e. by the pope. The following tables record the papal elections. 2.1 Dates of National Elections, Referendums and Coups d’Etat Year Papal electionsa Parliamentary elections Elections for Constitutional Assembly Referendums Coups d’état 1799 01/12 (104 d) 1823 02/09 (27 d) 1829 24/02 (35 d) 1830 14/12 (51 d; 83 b) 1846 14/06 (3 d; 4 b) 1878 18/02 (3 d; 3 b) 1903 31/07 (5 d; 7 b) 1914 31/08 (4 d; 10 b) 1922 02/02 (5 d; 14 b) 1939 01/03 (2 d; 3 b) 1958 25/10 (4 d; 11 b) 1963 19/06 (3 d; 6 b) 1978 I 25/08 (2 d; 4 b) 1978 II14/10 (3 d; 8 b) 2005 18/04 (2 d; 4 b) a Date given is the day each conclave began. The durance of each conclave is documented in parentheses (d=days including the first day; b=unofficial number of ballots based on secondary sources). The durance of each conclave in days might deviate from the number of voting days which can be a day less. Vatican City2042 2.2 Electoral Body 1800–2005 Year Type of Populationa Registered voters Votes castb election Total number % pop. Total number % reg. voters % pop. 1799 Papal – 45 — 34 75.6 — 1823 Papal – 53 — 49 92.5 — 1829 Papal – 58 — 50 86.2 — 1830 Papal – 54 — 45 83.3 — 1846 Papal – 62 — 50 80.1 — 1878 Papal – 64 — 61 95.3 — 1903 Papal – 64 — 62 96.9 — 1914 Papal – 65 — 57 87.7 — 1922 Papal – 60 — 53 86.9 — 1939 Papal – 62 — 62 100.0 — 1958 Papal – 53 — 51 96.2 — 1963 Papal – 82 — 80 97.6 — 1978 I Papal – 114 — 111 97.4 — 1978 II Papal – 111 — 111 100.0 — 2005 Papal – 117 — 115 98.3 — a Before 1929, the Vatican City had not been a sovereign state, and citizenship has been introduced by then. However, citizenship is temporary, and there is always dual citizenship of the Vatican citizens. Exact numbers are not available; there are hundreds, but less than 1.000 people with Vatican citizenship. b Voters (cardinal electors) present in the respective conclave. In 1978 (I and II), 15 cardinals were ineligible, in 2005, 66 cardinals were ineligible. 2.3 List of Power Holders 1800–2009 Head of State (Pope) Years Remarks Pius VII 1800–1823 Cardinal Barnabà Chiaramonti, Italian (elected at the age of 57). Last pope elected outside Rome (in Venice). Leo XII 1823–1829 Cardinal Annibale Sermattel della Genga, Italian (aged 63). Pius VIII 1829–1830 Cardinal Francesco Saverio Castiglioni, Italian (aged 67). Gregory XVI 1831–1846 Cardinal Bartolomeo Alberto Cappellari, Italian (aged 65). Pius IX 1846–1878 Cardinal Giovanni Maria Mastai-Ferretti, Italian (aged 54). Called the First Vatican Council which began in 1869 and ended in 1870.

Longest pontificate registered (31 years, 6 months, 25 days). Beatified in 2000. Vatican City 2043 Head of State (continued) Years Remarks Leo XIII 1878–1903 Cardinal Vincenzo Gioacchino Pecci, Italian (aged 67). Third longest pontificate registered (25 years, 5 months). Pius X 1903–1914 Cardinal Giuseppe Sarto, Italian (aged 68). Last pope to be canonized (beatified 1951, canonized 1954). Benedict XV 1914–1922 Cardinal Giacomo della Chiesa, Italian (aged 59). Explicit critic of World War I. Pius XI 1922–1939 Cardinal Achille Ambrogio Damiano Ratti, Italian (aged 64). Entered into negotiations with the Italian state concerning a solution for the Vatican. Lateran Treaties guaranteeing sovereignty to Vatican City were signed in 1929. Pius XII 1939–1958 Cardinal Eugenio Maria Giuseppe Giovanni Pacelli, Italian (aged 63). John XXIII 1958–1963 Cardinal Angelo Giuseppe Roncalli, Italian (aged 76). Called the Second Vatican Council which began 1962 and ended 1965. Beatified in 2000. Paul VI 1963–1978 Cardinal Giovanni Battista Enrico Antonio Maria Montini, Italian (aged 65). John Paul I 1978–1978 Cardinal Albino Luciani, Italian (aged 65). One of the shortest pontificates ever (33 days). The first pope to choose a doublebarrelled title composed of two first names. John Paul II 1978–2005 Cardinal iB A . j 1) < 6 58). First non-Italian pope in modern times (since Hadrian VI, 1522–23); first Polish pope ever. Second longest pontificate registered (26 years, 5 months, 17 days). Modernized the Vatican’s public relations, became an important figure of identification for people living in the USSR-dominated part of the world. Traveled abroad 104 times. Survived an assassination attempt in 1981. Benedict XVI 2005– Cardinal Joseph Alois Ratzinger, German (aged 78). Eighth pope of German origin. Vatican City2044 Head of Government (Cardinal Secretary of State) Years Remarks Ercole Consalvi 1800–1806 Filippo Casoni 1806–1808 Guiseppe Doria Pamphili 1808 Bartolomeo Pacca 1808–1814 Pro-secretary (no cardinal). Ercole Consalvi 1814–1823 Guilio Maria della Somaglia 1823–1828 Tommaso Bernetti 1828–1829 Guiseppe Albani 1829–1830 Tommaso Bernetti 1831–1836 In the beginning pro-secretary (1831). Luigi Lambruschini 1836–1846 Pasquale Gizzi 1846–1847 Gabriele Ferretti 1847–1848 Giuseppe Bofondi 1848 Giovanni Scaglia 1848 Giacomo Antonelli 1848–1876 Giovanni Simeoni 1876–1878 Allesandro Franchi 1878 Lorenzo Nina 1878–1880 Lodovico Jacobini 1880–1887 Mariano Rampolla del Tindaro 1887–1903 Rafael Merry del Val y Zulueta 1903–1914 Domenico Ferrata 1914 Pietro Gasparri 1914–1930 Eugenio Pacelli (who became Pius XII) 1930–1939 Luigi Maglione 1939–1944 – (vacant) 1944–1952 Pius XII himself took over the duties. Domenico Tardini 1952–1958 Pro-secretary (extra-ordinary affairs). Giovanni Battista Montini (who became Paul VI.) 1952–1954 Pro-secretary (ordinary affairs). Domenico Tardini 1958–1961 Amleto Giovanni Cicognani 1961–1969 Jean-Marie Villot 1969–1979 Agostino Casaroli 1979–1990 In the beginning pro-secretary (in 1979). Angelo Sodano 1991–2006 In the beginning pro-secretary (1990–1991). Tarcisio Bertone 2006– Vatican City 2045 3. Bibliography 3.1 Official Sources Acta Apostolicae Sedis (1909–). Commentarium officiale. Città del Vaticano: Typis Polyglottis Vaticanis. Gulik, G. van, Eubel, C., Schmitz-Kallenberg, L., Ritzler, R., Sefrin, P., and Pieta, Z. (eds.) (1913–1978). Hierarchia catholica medii aevi sive summorum pontificum S. R. E. cardinalium, ecclesiarum antistitum series e documentis tabularii praesertim Vaticani collecta, digesta, edita. 9 vols. (vol. VI: 1730–1799; vol. VII: 1800–1846; vol. VIII: 1846–1903; vol. IX: 1903–1922). Munich: Librariae Regensbergianae. 3.2 Books, Articles, and Electoral Reports Allen, J. L. (2004). Conclave. The Politics, Personalities, and Process of the Next Papal Election. New York: Doubleday. Apel, U. (1969). ‘Vatikanstadt’, in D. Sternberger and B. Vogel (eds.), Die Wahl der Parlamente und anderer Staatsorgane. Ein Handbuch. Band I: Europa. Zweiter Halbband. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, 1407–1417. Baumgartner, F.J. (2003). Behind Locked Doors. A History of the Papal Elections. New York: Palgrave Macmillan. Burke-Young, F.A. (1999). Passing the Keys: Modern Cardinals, Conclaves, and the Election of the Next Pope. Lanham, Md.: Madison Books. Burke-Young, F.A. (2000). Papal Elections in the Age of Transition, 1878–1922. Lanham, Md.: Lexington Books. Haule, R.R. (2006). Der Heilige Stuhl/ Vatikanstaat im Völkerrecht. Lohmar: EUL Verlag. Maltzman, F., Schwartzberg, M., and Sigelman, L. (2006). ‘Vox Populi, Vox Die, Vox Sagittae’. PS: Political Science and Politics, 39/2: 297–301. Melloni, A. (2002). Das Konklave. Die Papstwahl in Geschichte und Gegenwart. Freiburg: Herder. Rossi, F. (2004). Der Vatikan. Politik und Organisation. Munich: C.H. Beck. Uwer, D. (without year). De electione in Summum Pontificem. Das Recht der Papstwahl nach der Apostolischen Konstitution ‘Universi Dominici Gregis’. (as of 18/10/08). Vatican City2046 Walsh, M. (2003). The Conclave. A Sometimes Secret and Occasionally Bloody History of Papal Elections. Lanham, Md.: Sheed & Ward.

Participation of citizens in the elections shall guarantee them the protection and consideration of their interests. In 2012, a single voting day was established, in anticipation of which in 2016 the Presidential Library prepared a thematic collection, "The Electoral System in Russia: History and Modernity." The collection includes more than 200 units and provides a comprehensive view of the history of formation of electoral law in our country, and also covers its current status. The documents of this section represent the modern system of realization of democratic principles on the basis of the electoral system of the Russian Federation. The third block contains a collection of educational and methodological products - video lectures, textbooks for schools and educational-methodical complexes.

Electoral system in The UK Electoral system in The USA There are six types of elections in the United Kingdom: United Kingdom general elections, elections to devolved parliaments and assemblies, elections to the European Parliament, local elections, mayoral elections and Police and Crime Commissioner elections. Elections are held on Election Day, which is conventionally a Thursday. General elections did not have fixed dates, with a necessity for them to be called within five years of the opening of parliament following the last election, before the passing of the Fixed-term Parliaments Act 2011. Other elections

Parallel Systems: An electoral system in which each voter gets two votes: one for a candidate in a local constituency and another for party. A fraction of seats are elected using plurality and the remainder from list proportional systems. The list seats are allocated proportionality with the national party vote, but the legislature itself need not reflect the party vote across the nation.

Electoral Systems Reform is Possible. The structure of elections and a nation's choice of electoral system can have profound implications for the effectiveness of democratic governance. It is no surprise, then, that reformers in many nations continuously strive to improve the way their governments are elected.