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ELECTORAL SYSTEMS -
A DISCUSSION DOCUMENT
CAPE TO WN
NOVEMBER 1990

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ELECTORAL SYSTEMS -

A DISCUSSION DOCUMENT

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Glossary of Terms. '9.

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Additional number system: this is exemplified by the proportional system used in Germany. Half the members are elected by first-past-the-post voting in single-member constituencies. The other half are allocated to party lists in such a way that the seats in the full assembly are proportionate to the votes cast in the country as a whole (subject to certain threshold rules). A variant of this system proposed by the British Hansard Society in 1976 provided for the additional members to be chosen from defeated constituency candidates rather than party lists.

Alternative vote: this refers to the use of preferential voting within single-member constituencies. For the Australian Lower House, for example, every elector is required to number all the candidates in order of preference: the candidate with fewest first preference is eliminated and the second preferences are redistributed and the process continues until one candidate has a clear majority.

Andrae system: an alternative name for the single transferable vote system.

Apparentement: a provision in a list system of voting by which separate parties can declare themselves linked for the purposes of vote counting and seat allocation (France 1951, 1956, Italy 1953).

Constituency: this is the most common term for the geographic areas into which a country is divided for electoral purposes. A constituency may send one or several members to the legislature. Other terms include district (USA), riding (Canada), circonscription (France), electorate (Australia and New Zealand), and division (UK).

Cube law: a formula which has been used to describe the way in which first-past-the-post systems exaggerate majorities in votes into much greater majorities in seats. If votes are divided in the ratio A:B, seats are likely to be divided in the ratio $A^3:B^3$.

Cumulative voting: a rarely used system of voting in a multi-member constituency in which electors can cast more than one of their votes for a single candidate.

de Hondt system: the formula used in most list systems of proportional representation to allocate seats. It is also known as the highest-average system. Briefly, it ensures that in a constituency no reallocation of seats would reduce discrepancies in the shares of the votes received by the winners.

Droop quota: the formula used in most single transferable vote systems to allocate seats. It can be stated $\frac{V}{S+1}$.

First-past-the-post (FPP) system: this, the oldest kind of voting arrangement, still predominates in English-speaking countries. It usually involves single-member districts. Each elector has one vote, and the candidate who gets most wins, even if he/she does not secure an absolute majority. This is also known as the relative majority or plurality or the winner-takes-all system.

Gerrymandering: the drawing of constituency boundaries deliberately to secure party advantage.

Hagenbach-Bischoff method: a method of allocation using the Droop quota in the first stage and the de Hondt system in later stages.

Hare quota: votes divided by the number of seats.

Largest remainder system: the formula for allocating seats in list systems that is most favourable to smaller parties. After one seat has been distributed for every full quota the quota being derived simply by dividing votes by seats, any remaining seats are allocated in turn to the parties with the largest residues.

Limited vote: a system of voting in multi-member constituencies with a majoritarian system in which electors have fewer votes than there are seats to fill (now used only in Japan; tried in a few UK constituencies 1967-85).

Parichage: a provision in a list system of proportional representation in which the elector is given the opportunity to

vary the order of candidates on his party's list.

Preferential voting: a system of voting in which the elector expresses a rank order of preference between candidates. The alternative vote and the single transferable vote are systems of preferential voting.

Proportional representation (PR): this is a generic term for all the systems of election which seek, by multi-member seats or reserve lists, to relate seats to votes more proportionately than is possible under a single-member-constituency system.

Redistribution: the term for two processes distinguished in American usage: i) redistricting, the redrawing of constituency boundaries, and ii) reapportionment, the reallocation of seats among states.

Sainte-Lague system: a formula used to allocate seats in some Scandinavian list systems of proportional representation. The use of a divisor larger than the number of seats available ensures a more proportional result than the d'Hondt system.

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Second ballot: this refers to the system used in Third and Fifth Republic France, under which, in a single-member-constituency system, there is a second vote a week after the first one if no candidate has an absolute majority. It is analogous to the run-off arrangements in some American primary elections.

Single transferable vote (S TV): this refers to the use of preferential voting in multi-member constituencies. It is used in the Irish Dail and the Australian Senate. Electors to second preferences. Then the bottom candidates are successively eliminated and their preferences redistributed until all the seats are filled.

Threshold: a minimum condition for securing representation. This device limits purely proportional results, for example, by distributing seats only to parties securing a minimum of 5% of the vote (as in Germany) or 10% (as in Zimbabwe) or by having constituencies with so few members that a party needs a substantial vote to have any chance of being asked to number the candidates in order of preference. securing a 563N135 in Ireland)

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Any votes surplus to a droop quota are reallocated according

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PREFACE TO DISCUSSION DOCUMENT:
ELECTORAL SYSTEMS

VER SINCE UNION - AND BEFORE - black South

Africans have been excluded from parliament, provincial councils and other law-making bodies. This means that blacks have never participated in the electoral process. The voting (electoral) system - its nature and workings - remained the sole preserve of white political parties and the Apartheid government of the day.

As a result of a conjuncture of circumstances (as per Harare Declaration), the African National Congress and the apartheid government are now engaged in talks. Hopefully this will ultimately lead to negotiations towards a new Constitution which will make provision for a unitary, non-racial, non-sexist South Africa with universal franchise on one common voters roll and one person one vote.

Part of the process of constitution-making for such a South Africa will be the working out of a system of voting, an electoral system which would be appropriate for the country. The African National Congress has recognised the need for a multi-party system, the right of all other political forces and organisations to organise and to compete for power on the political terrain. The ANC also recognises that all parties enjoying significant support should have the right to be represented in a Constituent Assembly and parliament.

The question which needs to be resolved is: What would be an appropriate electoral system to achieve the stated objective?

It is to place the issue before the people of our country and to ensure participation at the widest levels by all the organisations of the people in the process of constitution-making (including formulating and/or agreeing upon an acceptable system of voting), that the African National Congress, Community Law Centre (University of the Western Cape) and the Centre for Development Studies have organised a conference to be held in the Western Cape on 2 - 4 NOVEMBER 1990.

This conference will not be a decision-making one, nor will there be any resolutions at the end of the conference. The objective is to facilitate meaningful discussions throughout the country. To facilitate this process, we present a discussion document entitled **ELECTORAL SYSTEMS: A CRITICAL SURVEY** which has been prepared by Professor KADER ASMAL, a member of the Constitutional Committee of the ANC and Professor of Law at Trinity College, Dublin. It is hoped that arising from these discussions, there will be more meaningful discussions and consultations amongst organisations such as trade unions, civic organisations, women's organisations and other sectoral organisations - ultimately leading to a situation which we would be better able to decide on an acceptable, unity building and democratic electoral system.

ADV. DULLAH OMAR,
DIRECTOR : COMMUNITY LAW
CENTRE & MEMBER OF THE
CONSTITUTIONAL COMMITTEE
OF THE ANC.

24.10.1990

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Welcoming Address by
Comrade Zola Skweyiya,
Chairperson of the Constitutional Committee
of the African National Congress. 11?
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I on behalf of the leadership and membership of the African National Congress, especially its National Executive Committee and on behalf of the Constitutional Committee of the ANC, the Centre for Development Studies, the Community Law Centre of the University of the Western Cape, welcome you to this national workshop on electoral systems.

Ladies and gentlemen, comrades and friends, may it be the third workshop in a series we have been holding in South Africa since the unbanning of the ANC. We have had two conferences in the course of October, one on Local Government and another on Land Reform. Today we welcome you to a workshop on Electoral Systems in a democratic South Africa. The purpose of this exercise is to define, analyse, evaluate and compare different electoral systems. I do not think that this workshop can reach any final conclusions. However, it can certainly come up with recommendations to the democratic movement as to whether and to what extent electoral systems reflect the will of those who vote.

In addition to shedding some light on the main objective of this workshop which is ; TO DETERMINE THE MOST APPROPRIATE ELECTORAL SYSTEM FOR SOUTH AFRICA, we hope that this workshop can in the process also achieve the following.

1. Identify some of the ways in which the ruling Circles can frustrate the wishes of the people, especially during the transition from the colonial rule to independence.
 2. Identify the advantages and disadvantages of adopting a particular transitional electoral system and examine the consequences of adopting a particular electoral system for a post-apartheid South Africa.
 3. Determine and demonstrate which class forces are likely to be favoured by a particular type of electoral arrangement at each stage of our social development.
- It grappling with these considerations the options for a transitional electoral system for South Africa can be advanced and examined in a more critical way.

I am sure that the insights gained from some of the papers, which are going to be presented at the workshop, will afford us the opportunity to review the various methods the South African state has used in this country and Namibia in electoral processes. In doing so we could scrutinise the likely preferences of the Nationalist Party and its allies.

The many questions and contentious issues relating to the first-past-the-post and the different forms of proportional representation, and their consequences should be raised and examined. This is indeed a critical exercise when dealing with electoral system options and what it would mean for the transition to democracy and for a post-apartheid South Africa.

(We should bear in mind that the issues of contention relating to electoral systems in South Africa are different from those prevailing among classes and groups in a normal democratic society. Therefore, in arriving at recommendations for a transitional electoral system for South.

Africa, we should focus our attention on developing strategies which will assist in accelerating the takeover of power by the majority/democratic forces of this country. In this regard recommendations for an appropriate system must take into consideration social, geographic and other political factors.

The politics of the apartheid system, as manifested in the social conditions, has influenced institutions such as the educational system. This resulted in determining a national psyche and the shaping of peoples attitudes towards any electoral process. For example, it is a very real fear that the present population distribution may be manipulated by the powers that be, in such a way, as to prevent the victory of the democratic forces.

This can easily be done by rezoning constituency borders with a view to denying the national liberation movement definite majorities in certain constituencies. The experience

of independent Africa demonstrated that colonial authorities usually resort to a form of gerrymandering if the election is on the basis of defined constituencies.

We hope that in our discussions of electoral systems, the usual electoral problems of justice and fairness will provide the basis for our recommendations. The practical experiences of different countries, especially those in Southern Africa like Namibia and Zimbabwe, should also be remembered.

Like all instruments of political power, all electoral systems or other forms of selecting leaders always have a class orientation. In some contexts, however, depending on the level of development of the social formations, the class aspect plays second fiddle to national, regional, ethnic and tribal consciousness. In other words, those who formulate electoral systems do so in the hope that the rules under those systems will assist to keep in power the forces which share their political and value perspectives. This is the crux of the impasse concerning an electoral procedure for a democratic South Africa.

The fundamental issues to be raised in evaluating an electoral system are:

1. the nature of representation it gives to the citizen as part of the entire state edifice and;
2. the avenues it opens to the citizens to make meaningful and personal contributions towards shaping the policies by which their future would be determined.

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% result of this is that it becomes essential to lay bare the various motivating factors for a few particular types of electoral systems.

ver and above the primary objective of the workshop Oand the many other considerations, we should bear in mind that this workshop is also about looking into the future. It is part of our planning for democracy and for posterity. A grasp of the future points the way towards liberation. It is part of the broad ideological struggle against apartheid. It is part of our grappling with the vestiges of apartheid colonialisms. We are here to explore and investigate how democracy works. The ANC and the people of South Africa should now, more determinedly than ever, plan for the future. his workshop is not about planning specific political action but to lay down the foundation of democracy and for the popular participation of our people.

I t is our task to evaluate the present political situation, learn from the experiences of independent Africa and also from other liberation struggles the world over, make use of this experience and ensure that democracy is rooted within our people for generations to come. It is in this spirit that we welcome our guests from abroad. We hope their expertise will go a long way towards making this workshop a success.

6 welcome all delegates from all ANC regions in South Africa and from the external mission of the ANC. We also welcome all the academics from different universities and research centres in this country. We hope we will be able to work together despite the different political groups and ideological leanings we represent. We are meeting here as South Africans and as friends of the people of South Africa, with a common purpose - of Charting the way into the future, towards democracy, peace and economic stability. :1

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Opening address to the
workshop on
electoral systems by
Comrade Alfred N 20,
Secretary general of the African National Congress,
delivered at Stellenbosch on 1st November 1990.
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workshop and to deliver this opening address. The African National Congress considers this workshop to be very important.

It is a great privilege for me to be present at this but I must say that I do feel a little uneasy talking about elections, voting and voting systems. Forgive me if I am a little blunt. I am an African. I was born in this country. This is my mother land. I have lived here until I was forced to leave this country in the 1960s. Elections were not for us. We did observe whites from time to time electioneering and voting. But we never dared to go near a polling booth. The laws of this country did not permit us to participate in the voting process. Those who were participating in the voting sham wanted the world to believe that they were furthering democratic values.

But as the struggles of our people for freedom and justice went on, successive white governments were compelled to think again. They did not give up apartheid. They tried to work out schemes to involve blacks in elections. But what kind of elections? They arranged elections to structures which were puppet and racist bodies - apartheid bodies. There were advisory boards, urban councils, community councils and now of course homeland elections and tricameral elections as well as elections for black local authorities. There has been a succession of such racist bodies. In all these schemes, successive governments have wanted us to take part in voting. They tried to persuade us in many ways, including the use of repression, to drive us to vote. But our people were not fooled and were not interested in these toy telephones - in fact group rights toy telephones! And rightly so!

And so we have remained ignorant about voting and voting systems. But bless our people! They were not stupid! Ignorant about ways of voting - yes! But politically our people have shown that they were not stupid.

Our struggles are now bearing fruit. This succession of arrogant apartheid governments have run into a brick wall. But it is no longer Verwoerd's granite wall! The time of apartheid governments is over, our time has come! When I say our time I mean all the people of South Africa who are fighting for a non-racial, non-sexist democratic South Africa. We want a unitary South Africa, NOT a federal South Africa! That includes black and white, ANC and all other political formations committed to democracy.

I am not saying we have arrived! We have not yet arrived. There are still obstacles in the way. Violence in the country and right wing activities threaten peaceful transition to a democratic order. But unfortunately it is not only right wing violence that affects political activity. It is also the government itself which has not removed obstacles and which appears to be making things more difficult. Despite the commitment to the Groote Schuur Minute and the Pretoria Minute the government continues to delay matters. It makes things as difficult as possible. It wants to control everything from beginning to end. It does not want to give up its power. There is a major contradiction in all this. On the one hand there are the many statements by De Klerk, Viljoen and other government ministers - that they are finished with apartheid, that they want to negotiate a new constitution, that they are committed to democracy and equality and so on. They also repeat day after day that they are committed to removing obstacles to negotiations. They even have the nerve to accuse the ANC of using delaying tactics.

We have welcomed the changes which have come in the aftermath of the February 2 speech of FW De Klerk. But what has happened since then? Political prisoners are still in prison. The thousands of people who have been outside the country are still outside the country. Security legislation remains in place. In many places the security forces continue to act as they did in the pre-February days.

Speaking here in the Western Cape, need I remind you of police brutality and killings which took place in Khayelitsha last week? What I am saying is that the process or road of negotiations is a thorny road with many obstacles still to be overcome. It is noteworthy that the gains which have been made in eliminating apartheid, have taken place in those spheres in which mass campaigns have rendered apartheid unworkable eg. in the area of separate amenities. Even the unbanning of organisations only came in the wake of massive campaigns throughout the country, in which the people themselves, for all practical purposes, have unbanned the organisations.

The impression one gets is that the South African government is only moving as far as mass pressures and international pressures compel it to move. If this is so, then we say that it is playing a dangerous game. The government should have met the 30 April 1990 deadline for the release of political prisoners and return of exiles. It did not meet this deadline because it did not move rapidly then already. Why can political prisoners not be freed immediately? Why cannot the government facilitate, rather than obstruct through all kinds of red tape, the return of exiles? The ANC is not responsible for delays! We do not hold the keys to the prisons! Nor do we control the border posts and entry posts to decide who comes in! The onus is squarely on the shoulders of the government to remove all obstacles to negotiations.

The ANC is committed to negotiations. These must be directed towards an irreversible transition to a non-racial democratic South Africa within the shortest possible time. The patience of our people is not unlimited and I can only express the wish that the various obstacles to negotiations are removed without further delay. We want to get down to the process of negotiations which must lead to the adoption of a new democratic constitution. We want democracy for all in a single unitary South Africa. Democracy for us in the ANC

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means popular participation in all spheres of South African life on a non-racial basis. Participation in a system of elections is an inseparable part of democracy. Our objective therefore is to ensure that we have a voting system which is non-racial, fair, representative and democratic. We want everybody and all parties to have a fair and equal opportunity to put their views, programmes and policies to the people of our country. They must have the right to campaign peacefully and freely to win support amongst the people, to take part in elections and to strive to become the majority party or even to become the government or part of the government. The African National Congress has never believed that it has the sole prerogative to decide what is good for South Africa and its people. We ask only for the same rights and duties as any other political formation - to compete for support, to participate in government if our people so wish, but even to participate in opposition! We in the ANC subject ourselves to democratic rules. We will accept the democratically expressed will of the people even if that means that we end up as a minority party. Of course that is very unlikely but not impossible. If people through the process of elections so decide, we shall accept a minority position. That is why we want to see a voting system or an electoral system which is

- NON-RACIAL IN FORM AND CONTENT AND NON-SEXIST IN FORM AND CONTENT.

believe that you will be discussing these matters in your workshop. I am told you have distinguished academics and lawyers present who will share and debate views. But I am also very pleased to note that you have present, representatives of organisations of our working people. I must point out that this workshop is on the initiative of the ANC Constitutional Committee. The reason for the workshop is not only to allow EXPERTS to talk about the issue, but also very importantly, to involve our people in all the organisations in the process itself. For us this is a crucial point. We believe that it is the prerogative of the people of South Africa as a whole to determine and to decide on the future constitution of the country. That is why we are fighting for a constituent assembly. We cannot understand why people or groups who say that they are for a non-racial democratic social order are against a constituent assembly. President De Klerk for example has said that a constituent assembly means claiming victory in advance! The government as a whole has said that it means abdicating power or handing over power. Such statements are very misleading and cannot be allowed to go unchallenged. What De Klerk and his government must understand and accept is that his government is an apartheid government. It is a minority government. It can never claim to be representative. What is more: IT CANNOT CLAIM TO BE COMMITTED TO DEMOCRACY AND CLING TO POWER AND AT THE SAME TIME IT IS A CONTRADICTION IN TERMS. And yet that is what it is trying to do _ cling to power.

The most effective and peaceful transition to democracy is to have non-racial elections throughout South Africa - including the homelands. In such elections the people will elect their representatives to a body charged with finalising and approving a new constitution.

We say that this may mean the end of the National Party and De Klerk must accept this. We must all be placed on an equal basis as parties competing for the support of South Africans people. Let the electoral process decide who must be in a constituent assembly or parliament for that matter. If such a process eliminates the ANC or the National Party - so be it!

The ANC will therefore continue to fight for a constituent assembly.

We must say that the alternative which has been proposed by the government, is not acceptable. It does not lend itself

to transformin g South Africa into a democracy. The proposal is a way of trying to maintain the status quo.

0th President De Klerk and minister Viljoen have gproposed that there should be a negotiation process between Itrecognised leaders or leaders with a proven constituency", and that they should work out and negotiate a new constitution. I really do not know what ltproven constituen- cyli they are talking about. Are they talking about the tricameral parliament, the homeland structures, black local authorities, management committees? What constituency do they have? We are all quite certain - and we are sure that De Klerk knows it also - that this so-called proven constituency of people in those structures will be totally defeated in any democratic election. What we say is: let us have elections to decide who are the proven leaders or leaders with a proven constituency. What is there to be afraid of in elections - unless of course the objectives of the exercise is something different from what we stand for, namely a non-racial democracy.

eriously speaking, how can we expect so-called leaders who have a history and record of fighting against democracy and supporting dictatorship _how can we expect such persons - to produce a democratic constitution?

W e are very concerned about this aspect because it shows that there is no real commitment to the establishment of a single unitary, non-racial, non-sexist democratic South Africa. There may be a commitment to ending apartheid. But what is to take apartheid's place?

W e have noted the various statements of De Klerk and other government ministers about democracy, equality and justice, especially to overseas audiences. But we have also looked at their concrete proposals whenever they have moved away from their vague formulations. I am afraid that they tell a different story. Last week the Constitutional Affairs Committee of the Presidents Councils published its reports. Its proposals reflect fairly accurately what the I&ctorafSystems - g Discussion Document, Tage 10

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government has been saying. I say emphatically that the proposals contained in the Presidents Councilis report are totally unacceptable to the ANC. If they are implemented, it will mean the retention of all inequalities in the country and even if apartheid is abolished in name, real apartheid will remain in practice. The government proposal is for a two chamber parliament: one based on one person one vote and the other on representation according to group rights and other interests. The proposal is further that all major decisions should be taken by consensus or loaded majority and that there should be a veto power which a minority group would be able to exercise. In effect what this means is that you give one person one vote with one hand and you take it away with the other.

he Bill of Rights, which is also proposed, is also unacceptable. It is designed to protect existing property rights - not to extend democracy or protect fundamental human rights.

here is also another important issue. If for example there is agreement on the end result, namely a democratic South Africa and even if there is agreement on the question of a constituent assembly, the question is who will oversee this process. Our view is that it cannot be a South African, or the National Party. A person cannot be a player and referee at the same time! That is why we have raised the question of an interim government. We need an impartial overseer or manager to ensure that all the processes leading to a Constituent Assembly shall be free, fair and impartial. But this is a matter for another occasion.

I have spoken on a number of important issues. In all of them the matter of the electoral system will be important. I do not expect that you will all be in agreement on what kind of system South Africa should adopt. The purpose of this workshop, I believe, is not to arrive at any kind of conclusion or to take any kind of decisions. This will allow for free discussion and debate. But a consensus may emerge as a result of your deliberations. I thank you for listening to me.

Q ut this is not the occasion to examine fully the report of I wish you success in your d eliberations. C1

the Committee for Constitutional Affairs of the Presidents Council or government proposals themselves.

make mention of our view in this regard, however, to indicate that we are seriously committed to establishing real democracy in our country. We still settle for nothing less. We have taken the government at its word. Despite the ALFRED NZO

reservations which I have raised, I believe that the international situation and internal situation is such that we should SECRETARY GENERAL OF THE be able to move in the direction ofthe objective which I have outlined despite the many difhculties. It is because we are AFRICAN NA TIONAL CONGRESS confident that we shall be moving towards the establishment STELLENBOSCH of a democratic order, that we, in the ANC, want our people to discuss constitutional issues. The question of an appropriate electoral system is one of those issues. 01_ 1 1,90

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Electoral Systems:

A Critical Survey

by

Kader Asmal,

Constitutional Committee of the

African National Congress,

Trinity College - Dublin.

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1. INTRODUCTION

debate about the method of representation of peoples cannot be conducted in icy detachment. The central issue, as in all constitutional arrangements, is about power and how it is to be identified and distributed in a given political system. Much attention has been paid inside and outside South Africa to constitutional proposals where the primary motivation has been to protect the economic rights of the white racial minority and to obscure the total powerlessness of the black majority. These proposals cover the areas of minority rights or group rights, the provision of a veto on isociali issues to racial groups, federal forms of government associated with race and ipower-sharingl in the executive.

The first point about the electoral system is that any But this attention to constitutional forms has obscured a much more serious and important development concerned with the electoral process. The apartheid regime has now conceded the principle of one-person one-vote. Think -tanks in the West and Liberal and big-business interests inside South Africa have moved away from the idea of communal or racial rolls towards an acceptance of universal suffrage at some stage of the governmental process. However, they have very carefully hedged their bets in two ways. Firstly, they have generally associated their acceptance of one-person-one-vote with proposals for intricate and complex machinery for the election of an executive which would deny the majority the right to rule and, therefore, bring about the changes necessary in a post-apartheid society.

Secondly, and more importantly, nearly every one of the proposals for constitutional change is posited on a rejection of the Westminster ffirst-past-the-posti system, which the whites have operated in South Africa since 1910, in favour of proportional representation. One of the most important and significant examples of this drive towards proportional representation is found in the KwaZulu-Natal Indaba proposals of December 1986. The Indaba constitutional proposals are quite clear about their motive for supporting proportional representation. It is to ensure the irepresentation of minorities and power-sharingi by guaranteeing lminority group representationi in the first chamber and forestallingthe capacity of fany single party (having) more than 50% of the seats in the first chamber, (p5, Constitutional Proposals submitted to the Minister of Constitutional Development and Planning, 13 May 1987).

In Zimbabwe, in 1980, and in Namibia, in 1989, proportional representation was used for the first time in English-speaking Africa to elect the lower house.

This debate about the electoral system has a momentum of its own tending towards an unquestioning acceptance of the virtues of a system because those virtues seem self-evident. Alternatively, there can be great external pressure for the adoption of a particular method without full consideration of its effects. SWAPO had to accept a proportional representation system for the election in Namibia as it was imposed by the Contact Group of States. Yet this system proved to be its salvation.

In South Africa. all shades of white opinion seemed to be satisfied with the basic Westminster system until the early seventies. With the Presidents Councilis support for fconstitutiionali government, based on ethnicity and group right recognition, a ferment of proposals emerged. The South Africa Act of 1909, the product of an exclusively white National Convention, created a unitary state and, apart from the entrenched clauses, a constitution of extraordinary flexibility with a colour-bar restriction on membership ofthe House of Assembly. The electoral syste, with its Westminster model of government and a loading in favour of rural constituencies, favoured the conservative and rural sections of the white population. It therefore needed an oligarchical constitutional structure in which the white minority

wielded unchallenged and effective political power. Ironically, a serious proposal for the use of proportional representation was not subsequently pursued.

Except for some minor areas, including the right of OFS local authorities to elect their members by proportional representation since the 1980s, the single member constituency system has been used for white elections and for the tricameral parliament.

The desire to change the electoral system may therefore be closely associated with the need of certain groups to maintain their power in more discreet and sophisticated forms. The underlying assumptions behind electoral systems must therefore be traced.

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2. ELECTORAL SYSTEMS

are cast and the relationship between votes and the allocation of seats. Electoral law determines the procedure to be adopted for the actual conduct of elections - secret ballot, counting of votes, impersonation, postal ballots etc. Two crucial elements associated with electoral systems are (i) the drawing up of constituency boundaries and the number of voters in the geographical area and (ii) the method of drawing up the electoral register. "These are vital matters in the South African context because reliance on the existing power structure means the retention of power to totally manipulate the electoral process. It is for this reason that there was unhappiness in the Zimbabwean election of 1980 at the control over the election exercised by the Smith forces and disquiet that under Resolution 435 of 1978 the United Nations would merely supervise and not organise the independence election in Namibia.

Electoral systems determine the way in which votes This study refers only to the electoral system and provides insights into a large number of what may appear to be technical and esoteric aspects. But all of them should be seen in the context of specific historical experiences, and the way in which they operate has shaped a country's political culture. One-party states, based on ideological or political patterns are sui generis. Even where in some one-party systems certain functional interests are allowed to organise independently, there is no real independence of the major and controlling party. As our movement has committed itself to a multi-party system, this study therefore looks at Western models, holding free elections to a greater or lesser degree.

These may be grouped into three broad categories.

i) Electoral systems established by evolution. English-speaking and Scandinavian countries have had fairly long histories of free elections; their electoral systems are a century or more old, but there have been changes to reflect power interests.

ii) Electoral systems established following a constitutional disruption a generation ago. France, Germany, Italy and Austria have well established electoral systems. But in each country, the present constitution was only established after the Second World War and the change of regime was normally accompanied by a change in electoral system. What is taken for granted today, was uncertain a generation ago. It is therefore significant that the system is often tailor-made to ensure a certain result. The West German list system was developed to ensure that parties of the Left and Right would get no representation unless they obtain 5% of the vote. De Gaulle's 1958 electoral law for the National Assembly, which had served its purpose, was changed in 1985 to ensure that the Socialist Party would obtain a higher proportion of the seats under the proportional representation list system than under the two-state majority voting system. But the present French Government has gone back to the previous system to ensure that the combined right-wing majority would continue to obtain a majority of the seats.

iii) Electoral systems newly established following a constitutional disruption. Spain, Portugal, Greece and Zimbabwe today have competitive elections but the electoral system of a country freely enjoying electoral choice after a period of authoritarian rule cannot be described as fully established. In any event, the history of the democratic system in Greece shows that since 1946, it has changed on at least a dozen occasions to ensure (i) compliance with US demands in 1950 for a two-party system, (ii) the victory of the major parties or coalition of parties by allowing what is described as a reinforced proportional representation whereby a party or a bloc obtaining a minimum proportion of the total votes (17%, 25%) may then participate in the distribution of seats allocated on

the basis of its proportion of votes. This, of course, favours the larger parties and contradicts the received Western view that elections are determined by the actual votes cast!

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3. WHICH KIND?

serve the interests of those who hold or intend to continue holding power. Occasionally, these interests are frustrated, as in Greece in 1967 when the army negated the electoral process by overthrowing the Government. The British imposed a most complex system of proportional representation on Ireland in 1920 in order to ensure the protection of British interests throughout the Protestants, while allowing the white Southern Rhodesians and other idominions the Westminster model. Until 1964, elections in British Guiana were on the British model, with constituencies. But in the pre-independence election of 1964, the British imposed a unique system to ensure that Cheddy Jagan's party would not win the election: separate constituencies were abolished, the whole country became a single constituency and the seats were allocated on the basis of the proportion of votes obtained, thus ensuring the triumph of a coalition of racially-orientated and conservative parties. Electoral systems are generally devised or intended to Elections lie at the heart of the democratic process and it is through the act of voting that government by consent is secured. Yet no country has solved the riddle first posed by Oliver Cromwell who was has much for government by consent as any man, but if you ask me how it is to be done, I confess I do not know. For modern democracies use a wide variety of different electoral systems and there is no hint of agreement as to which is best, each system having its characteristic virtues and defects. In addition, there are electoral systems which exist on paper but not in reality. Indeed, the only Royal Commission ever appointed in Britain to inquire into electoral systems declared in its report, published in 1910, that there were over 300 systems then in existence. There are, no doubt, many more now. Yet a classification of electoral systems does not have to be just a lengthy catalogue listing them one by one, for they can be analysed as variations upon a small number of basic types.

Electoral systems are the practical instruments through which notions such as consent and representation are translated into reality. For an electoral system is above all 'a method converting votes cast by electors into seats in a legislature. The purpose of this study is to categorise the main types of systems actually employed in democracies.

The central factor differentiating one electoral system from another is the method by which it allocates seats. There are, broadly, three ways in which this can be done. Seats can be allocated to a candidate or candidates obtaining a plurality of the vote, to a candidate or candidates obtaining a majority of the vote, or proportionately. There are, therefore, plurality systems, majority systems and proportional systems of election.

But there are a number of different methods of allocating seats proportionately. The central distinction is between a method based upon preferential voting in multi-member constituencies - the single transferable vote - and the method of allocation based upon party lists. List systems can in turn be subdivided into those which allocate seats nationally and those allocating within multi-member constituencies, and further subdivided according to the method by which candidates are chosen. A system may require the elector to vote solely for a party list, the particular candidates elected being determined by their order on the list. or offer varying degrees of choice of candidates within a party list or even across party lines.

It is, therefore, a mistake to refer to iproportional representation, as if it denotes a single type of electoral system. tProportional representation, is in fact a generic term denoting a number of different systems sharing only a common aim of proportionality between seats and votes. This common aim, however, does not prevent the various proportional systems diverging considerably, one from another and their political consequences, therefore, can be quite different.

The electoral system which a country adopts depends more upon its political tradition and the particular needs to be realised than upon abstract consideration of electoral justice or good government. There is no reason, though, why this should always be so as nation building and protection of minorities are closely associated with the kind of electoral system that may be adopted.

There is a striking geographical dividing line between those countries using the plurality system and those which use proportional systems. For it is only in countries which come under British political influence - Commonwealth countries the United States and Britain herself - that the plurality system is used for the election of the legislature. It is not used in any continental country. Every continental democracy, except France, uses a list system, a method which has not been favoured in any Commonwealth country except Guyana and Sri Lanka.

The single transferable vote method of proportional representation, by contrast, is the Anglo-Saxon method of proportional representation, for it has been employed only in elections to the Irish and Tasmanian Lower Houses, the Australian Upper House and the Maltese legislature. It is also the only proportional system to have been tried in Britain: Northern Ireland, significantly.

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4. PLURALITY

member constituency system, as it developed in Britain and in countries influenced by Britain, was originally closely linked to the notion of territorial representation. MPs represented not segments of opinion or ideological tendencies nor, of course, political parties, but constituencies. They were attorneys seeking the redress of grievances before committing their constituencies to the payment of the expenses of government. Representation was in no way regarded as a means of expressing individual rights or forwarding individual interests. It was this notion of representation which came to be adopted by the American colonialists whose surroundings had recreated to a significant extent the conditions that had shaped the earlier experiences of the English people.

The plurality system, otherwise known as the single member system, It was in America in the eighteenth century in the constitution of the colonies that the single-member constituency originated. Indeed, the single-member constituency formed the predominant basis of representation in Canada, Australia, New Zealand and the United States before it came to be accepted as the norm in Britain. From the fifteenth century, the plurality system operated in Britain mainly in two-member constituencies. Until 1885, single-member constituencies had only existed because they were too small to be entitled to more than one member, now they became the unit on which all representation was to be calculated and all future schemes of redistribution had to rest.

Paradoxically, by the time the plurality system in single-member constituencies came to be the norm in Britain, the idea of representation upon which it was based already seemed unreal; for it had been eclipsed by the growth of the party system; and already in the eighteenth century Edmund Burke had insisted that Parliament was:

not a congress of ambassadors from different hostile interests, which interests each must maintain as an agent and advocate against other agents and advocates; but parliament is a deliberative assembly for one nation, one interest, that of the whole, where, not local purposes, not local prejudices ought to guide, but the general good, resulting from the general reason of the whole.

With the growth of party and the eclipse of older ideas of territorial representation, the plurality system could no longer be defined as securing the representation of communities and it came under attack from advocates of proportional representation who insisted that it failed to meet all norms of democratic representation. The plurality system is seen as a means to stable and effective government which forces the voter to decide his priorities. It is conceded that the plurality system gives disproportional representation as there is (i) no relationship between votes gained nationally and seats won and (ii) a candidate does not have to win 50% of the seats in the constituency. But this is held to secure a positive benefit, since it is likely to yield single-party government without the need for coalitions. The plurality system secures this effect by systematically exaggerating the support of large parties while under-representing small parties (unless they are territorially concentrated).

The plurality system has been used in unicultural societies such as New Zealand and multi-cultural and deeply divided societies such as India, Canada and the United States. It is, therefore not a self-evident proposition that some variant of proportional representation has to be used in a society with ethnic, or racial cleavages such as South Africa. But there is now great pressure in Britain for a move away from the plurality system because of its obvious undemocratic nature. The stresses of the Canadian federation may require changes, while the history of the US might have been different if some form of proportional representation had been in use!

The chief advantages of the first-past-the-post system are: firstly, the system is supposed to support effective govern-

ment by ensuring that the changing mood is reflected in the number of seats obtained by the majority party; secondly, it minimises the role of parties based on race, caste or ethnicity (unless they are regionally organised) and emphasises policy and ideology; thirdly, it promotes and assists national parties with national policies ensuring larger parties; fourthly, it encourages a national approach to issues and provides a unifying bond and loyalty; Finally, it allows for a major swing of public opinion to be reflected in the number of seats won, which proportional representation does not, as shown in the landslide victory of the Labour Party, with its reconstruction ideals and the desire to build a new kind of society, in 1945. The Labour Government did not obtain a majority of the votes; neither did the Nationalis Party in South Africa in 1948 when the white electorate threw out General Smuts' United Party.

It has been suggested that an electoral system for South Africa should develop national thinking, instil the practice of anti-racist behaviour and the acquisition of genuinely shared patriotic consciousness. To encourage these basic values, an electoral system must encourage cohesiveness, rather than parochialism, centrifugal rather than fissiparous tendencies, unity over narrowness in behaviour. The plurality system therefore has considerable advantages. It has been the tried and tested system in South Africa for over seventy years, it is part of South African culture, at least in relation to those who have controlled the levers of power. The drawbacks and serious disadvantages will be discussed later.

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5. MAJORITY SYSTEMS

One of the principal criticisms of the first-past-the-post system is that a candidate may win a constituency on a minority vote. In nearly every country where the "plurality" system is used, large numbers of candidates are elected in a situation where the combined votes of the other candidates exceeds that of the winner, sometimes by very large margins. Majority systems seek to do away with the possibility of a candidate winning a constituency on a minority vote.

As a result, three different methods, using the constituency base, have been used in order to overcome this defect. Firstly, there is the Eastern European "exhaustive ballot" where the lowest polling candidate is eliminated and another vote held. This continues until a candidate wins at least half the votes. Secondly, the "double ballot" approach as in France. If an election in any constituency does not produce an overall winner, there is a second election a week later. Candidates who have gained the votes of 12.5% of the registered electorate in the first ballot can compete in the second ballot. The French parties usually make electoral deals to ensure that there are only two candidates on the second round. This system ensures that parties that form an alliance are able to compete in the first ballot and then arrange for the party with the larger vote to contest the second round. This system attempts to keep out minority parties and to ensure the stability of governments.

Both the exhaustive ballot and the double ballot are special to the historical situations in these European countries. Parties in these countries tend to be hostile to proportional representation, especially in France where government policy is clearly attached to the idea that there are no racial, cultural or ethnic minorities. These systems also discriminate against anti-system parties which cannot find allies.

The alternative vote or the Australian system is a preferential system of voting in single-member constituencies. The elector votes by expressing his first preference and such subsequent preferences as she chooses to; she may vote down the list 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 if there are 5 candidates or she may vote for one of two only. If no candidate has an absolute majority of the vote (50% of those who vote), the candidate with the fewest votes is eliminated and his second preference redistributed. This process continues until one candidate has an absolute majority of the vote. There is, of course, only one election.

Professor Horowitz of Duke University in a sustained defence of the alternative vote sees advantages for the system in South Africa. Alliances between parties are encouraged as allies can each put up candidates without fear of splitting the vote (as would occur in the plural system where only one candidate for an alliance can stand in a constituency). As a result, the elector is offered a wider choice of candidates. I fear that the real reason as to why this system is being proposed for South Africa is that it will encourage anti-ANC parties by ensuring that the transfer of votes between non-ANC alliances will outweigh the initial and major first-preferences for the ANC.

Voters will not be able to put an X on the ballot paper as this would "spoil" the paper. The use of numbers in a society with a high degree of illiteracy would also create problems of a serious kind. Finally, the drawing up of constituency boundaries remains crucial.

Although both the second ballot (in most of its variants) and the alternative vote ensure that no candidate can win a seat unless she has the support of a majority of the voters in the constituency, they do not ensure that the party winning the election in the country as a whole will necessarily enjoy a majority of the votes. They do not achieve, and indeed do not purport to achieve, a proportional relationship between votes and seats. In France, for example in 1981, the non-Communist Left secured 62% of the seats in the National

Assembly for only 38% of the vote in the first ballot and 50% of the vote in the second ballot (a total of the party vote in seats won on each ballot).

In the Australian House of Representatives in 1977, the Liberals gained an absolute majority of seats with fewer votes than Labour which secured only a quarter of the seats, and the Liberal/National Country Party alliance secured a large majority of the seats on a minority of the popular vote. Majority or plurality systems share one fundamental feature:

the number of seats which a party receives depends not only upon the number of votes which it gains, but upon where these votes are located. Under the plurality system, the number of seats which a party gains will depend upon the distribution as well as the size of its support. Under the alternative vote and second ballot systems, the ability of a party to form alliances with like-minded parties will be a further factor determining its electoral success. No system of election using only single-member constituencies can ensure proportional representation since votes for those supporting losing candidates are 'wasted'. There is, therefore, a very profound conflict between the idea of territorial representation and the ideal of proportional representation; or between the representation of territories and the representation of opinion or party.

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But it is clear why France and Australia have adopted these unusual methods - it is to keep out minority parties and to ensure that instability of governments through multi-party representation does not bedevil the formation of the government, as happened with remarkable rapidity in the 4th Republic from 1945 to 1958. The Socialists introduced a short-lived system of proportional representation which resulted in the racist party of Le Pen winning over 10% of the seats in 1984;

but the Chirac Government went back to the second ballot system as proportional representation favoured the Socialists.

This is another sharp reminder that there are no ideal electoral systems, but in many countries electoral arrangements favour those who want to achieve certain aims and reach certain ends, namely the attainment of and retention of power. But this is not true of all societies.

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6. SINGLE TRANSFERABLE VOTE

sion of proportional representation - is a product of Victorian individualism, and its starting point was a radically different conception of representation from that embodied in the plurality system. Whereas representation under the plurality system was conceived of as territorial in nature, representation under this system was conceived as fundamentally personal; indeed in its early years, the system was often described by the term *personal representation*. The elector was not properly represented simply because he voted for an MP who reflected his own point of view. That is why adherents of the single transferable vote regard electors who disagree with the policies of their MP as unrepresented and their votes wasted. The aim of the system is to ensure that the number of wasted votes is minimised and that as many of the electorate as possible are able to elect an MP of their choice.

The single transferable vote - the Anglo-Saxon version - The nineteenth century advocates of the single transferable vote were well aware that the territorial principle, supposedly embodied in the plurality system, was rapidly being overcome by the growth and development of organised political parties. The plurality system, in their view, fundamentally altered its nature when representation became that of party rather than that of territory. People of independent outlook would be squeezed out by the twin forces of the so-called tyranny of the majority and the party machine.

The single transferable vote is a method of election providing for preferential voting in multi-member constituencies. Its two central features are the attempt to secure proportional representation of political opinion and the provision for choice of candidate within, as well as between, parties. Proportionality would be secured since few votes are wasted; instead they are transferred, so that fair representation of opinion would be secured within each multi-member constituency. Votes which cannot be used to help elect a candidate - either because they are surplus to what he needs to secure election, or because the candidate has too few votes to be elected - are transferred to second or third candidates. The only votes which do not help to elect a candidate would be those cast for the runner-up, and those votes which cannot be used because they are non-transferable, i.e. because the voter refused to indicate a full list of preferences. Thus, each elector would be represented by a candidate of the party of his choice, and the vast majority of electors would be represented by individual candidates of their choice. Only in this way could personal representation - which is *ideal*, representation - become a reality.

The single transferable vote gives the elector the power to choose between candidates of the same party.

This differentiates it sharply from the list systems of proportional representation, most of which offer only minimal choice or no choice at all. To the individualists who sponsored the single transferable vote, the representation of opinion was as important as the representation of the party, and the voter ought to be allowed not only to decide which party was to govern the state, but also to influence the policies it should follow. A central characteristic, therefore, of the single transferable vote is that it contains built-in primary election, and one which allows every elector, whether or not a registered member of a political party, to play a part. It works best where there is a maximum choice of candidates, with a large number of seats - five to seven in each constituency - rather than a small number of seats.

In conception, therefore, the single transferable vote may be seen as an attempt to translate into practical terms, the principle of the free development of individuality which Mill wrote *On Liberty* to defend as one of the leading essentials of well-being.

The single transferable vote has worked out very differently in practice. It has, with the exception of Australia, only

been used in small, rural societies where political affiliations have been organised on political tribal lines, rather than being based on socio-economic cleavages. The characteristic features of the transferable vote have fitted well into such societies. But is, in consequence, difficult to distinguish between the effects of the electoral system itself and those which flow from the nature of the society in which it operates. A central concern of early advocates of the single transferable vote was to weaken the role of the party machine. Some even hoped that it might lead to the abolition of parties altogether and their replacement by single issue groups. And yet, in those areas where the system operates, parties and party governments are not noticeably weaker than in other countries. In Ireland and Tasmania, the parties have often circumvented the purpose of the system - to provide a choice of candidates - by dividing multi-member constituencies geographically into bailiwicks, each candidate confining himself to one bailiwick and each bailiwick functioning as a single-member constituency. In addition, Ireland and Malta have seen the growth of personal political machines, organisations whose loyalty is owed to a particular candidate rather than to the party as a whole. The hopes that the single transferable vote would lead to legislatures of high intellectual quality have also been confounded. Indeed, there have been frequent complaints of the calibre both of members of the Irish Dail and the Tasmanian House of Representatives.

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Legislators are said to be narrow and parochial, more interested in servicing their constituents and filling the pork-barrel than in holding the executive to account on policy issues. However, these may be criticisms more of the roles and expectations of rural societies than of the electoral system itself.

The single transferable vote has been found to yield a high degree of proportionality, not as great as list systems, but far higher than plurality or majority systems. Yet there have often been anomalies. In the elections in Malta in 1981, with only two parties competing, the system yielded, for the first time in sixty years in that country, an anomalous result, the Labour Party securing 49.1% of the first preference votes and 34 seats, while the Nationalists with 50.9% of first preference votes gained only 31 seats.

In Ireland, also, there has been some disproportionality. In both 1965 and 1969, Fianna Fail won an absolute majority of the seats on less than 50% of the vote and on a smaller vote than the two main opposition parties - Fine Gael and Labour _ecombined. In 1969, the Fianna Fail vote fell to 45.7% and the two main opposition parties gained 51.5% of the vote, yet Fianna Fail remained in Government and even increased its share of the seats. In 1973, by contrast, the Fianna Fail vote was higher than in 1969, and the vote of the two opposition parties _ 48.8% - lower than in 1969. Yet, the Fianna Fail share of seats fell to 47.6% and it lost power to Fine Gael/Labour coalition.

Supporters of the single transferable vote profess themselves relatively untroubled by these anomalies. The purpose of the system, in their view, is not to secure proportional representation of the parties but proportional representation of opinion and, in particular, of opinion which cuts across party lines. But since they do not give a clear operational definition enabling one to measure proportionality of opinion, it becomes difficult to offer any evaluation of their claim. Even so, defenders of the system can plausibly assert that it provides the voters with a greater degree of effective choice than other electoral systems. But critics would argue that this value is not worth pursuing if it means the introduction of large multi-member constituencies and intra-party factionalism which, in their view, will militate against strong and effective government. In reality, this system encourages individualism and factionalism and minimises the possibility of strong government by encouraging the growth of small parties and their representation and by ensuring that ideology plays a smaller role than individual projection.

The single transferable vote system requires a high degree of sophistication by the voter as numbers have to be used when voting. It is also a complex system requiring an understanding of the quota and how votes are transferred from one candidate to another, while the election count takes a long time. Electoral boundaries and constituency revisions remain controversial and the allocation of the number of seats to a constituency can determine whether smaller parties or individuals could be elected.

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7. LIST SYSTEMS

except for France, constitute the other main type of proportional representation. Until recently, they were regarded as unsuitable by advocates of proportional representation in Anglo-Saxon countries. In 1976, however, the Hansard Society's Commission on Electoral Reform recommended that Britain adopt a variant of the West German electoral system, while in 1977 the Labour Government proposed a version of the Finnish electoral system for Britain's first elections to the European Parliament. But this proposal was turned down by the British House of Commons. List systems are of many different types with varying political consequences and it is a mistake to speak of 'the list system', as if there was only one type. They can be classified according to four criteria:

List systems, as used by every continental country

(i) whether the list is national or sub national i.e., regional or local;

(ii) whether the proportional allocation of seats is at national level or in multi-member constituencies;

(iii) whether the system allows voters to choose between different candidates of their preferred party - or even across parties - or whether it confines them to voting for a party list, with the order of candidates being determined by the party and;

(iv) the nature and size of the threshold.

The 1986 KwaZulu-Natal Indaba proposals use a variation of the list system.

(i) National List systems are used by Israel and the Netherlands. Israel has no constituencies at all. In the Netherlands, constituencies do not determine how many seats each party wins. But they may determine which candidate fills the party seats. Other countries using list systems employ regional or local lists with multi-member constituencies.

(ii) Countries using national list systems allocate seats proportionately at national level. Other countries can choose to allocate seats either regionally or nationally. Countries using regional or local constituencies but allocating seats proportionately at the national level include Germany, Denmark and Italy. National proportionality is secured through the allocation of supplementary seats from a national pool. Allocation at national level will result in greater proportionality than allocation at regional or local level. In addition, small parties which cannot gain representation under a system requiring regional allocation - because they do not have sufficient strength in any one region - might secure representation under a system requiring national allocation, by acquiring support in a number of regions.

(iii) List systems may or may not allow the elector to choose between candidates of the same party. Israel is an example of a country where there is no choice at all: the elector simply votes for the party symbol and the candidates elected to the legislature are decided by the parties. Such a system is an example of the closed list. The West German system also allows the elector no choice between candidates of the same party; while the variant of it recommended by the Hansard Society Commission in 1976, whereby proportionality is secured through the election of the best losers in single member constituencies may be seen as a hidden list system, in that the names of the candidates on the list do not have to be presented to the electorate, as candidates on an actual list must be. Most countries allow some choice of candidate but this is often very limited. A typical ballot paper of a system allowing some limited choice - which may be called the flexible list - is the Belgian one.

On this ballot paper, the elector can either vote for the list in the order decided by the party, in which case he marks -

the top of the ballot paper _ the so-called case? de tete _ or he may vote instead for a particular candidate by ticking a name on the list.

The possibility of a greater degree of electoral choice can be illustrated by the example of the open list system in Finland where there is no cas& de tete and the elector is not presented with an ordered list at all, but instead with a series of names in alphabetical order. He votes by marking in a space beside the candidate of his choice.

Finally, there is the case of the so-called free list in Switzerland and Luxembourg where, again, the candidates are not placed in any order of preference by the parties but, by contrast to Finland, the elector has not one vote but as many votes as there are candidates to be elected. He may cast his votes for candidates of different parties and accumulate two votes on any one candidate if he wishes.

Such wide scope for preference voting can be afforded only by relatively homogeneous high consensus societies in which the divisive forces on which opposition parties thrive are quite weak.

Both the open list and the free list systems give the voter control of the party list so that the list is no longer an ordered one. But they are still party list systems in that they share this central feature, that every vote (whether or not given in the

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first instance to an individual candidate) is automatically and without further reference to the voters wishes, added to the total of the list on which that candidate appears. Thus a vote for one candidate on a party list can help elect another candidate on the list of the same party, whom the voter might not support and might not approve of. Such a result can never happen under the single transferable vote; on the other hand party list systems are likely to provide, especially when allocation is at national level, a greater degree of proportionality than the single transferable vote.

(iv) However, not even the purest national list systems, such as Israel and the Netherlands offer complete proportionality. In every system there is a threshold, either implicit or explicit, limiting small parties. The Netherlands has a national threshold established by the number of members elected to the Lower House of the legislature - 150. This means that any party which cannot attract the support of 1/150 of the voters, i.e. 0.67%, will not secure representation. In Israel, there is a statutory threshold of 1% - the lowest explicit threshold in any democracy; the highest is West Germany's where it is 5%.

For countries operating a regional or local constituency system, there is an implicit threshold set by the size of the constituency, except where the threshold is overcome by national allocation of seats. Parties which might have sufficient national support to gain seats where there is allocation at national level, may, if their support is very evenly spread, fail to secure sufficient votes in any one constituency to secure representation where allocation is at sub-national level. Under the single transferable vote system, of course, the threshold is set up by the size of the quota and any party unable to secure enough votes to reach the quota anywhere will be unrepresented.

The Federal Republic of Germany is unique in that it combines a constituency-based system with a proportional system. Until 1990 - that is, before the reintegration of East Germany - the country was divided into 248 constituencies, with constituencies of varying size. Half of the members of the Bundestag are elected in single-member constituencies and the other half by the list system of PR. The ballot paper is divided into two parts. The right hand side lists the parties contesting the election in that province with, in small print, the names of the first few candidates on each party's list; on the left side are the names of the individual candidates in that single-member constituency, each being printed opposite the name of that candidate's party (if any). The elector marks one of those candidates, this being his first vote, and these first votes are counted exactly as in a South African election i.e. the constituency member is elected on a relative majority. On the right hand half of the ballot paper, the voter marks the name of one of the parties and it is this second vote which determines the party's total number of seats.

The national totals of second votes serve an important purpose. In order to share in the distribution of list seats, a party must poll at least 5% of the second votes over the entire country or win at least three seats by first votes. The distribution of the national seats is in proportion to the total number of votes won nationally by each party, thus achieving the proportionality which the constituency system fails to achieve.

Lijphart (Critical Choices for South Africa, ed. Schrire, p10) says that 'a disadvantage of the German system is that it is rather complex and that many voters do not fully understand it'.

Various proposals have been put forward as a solution to South Africa's ethnically and racially divided population. Some have attempted to use the single-transferable vote in order to reduce the role of the ANC; others have proposed (as with the Institute for Social Innovations,) formulae of extraor-

dinary complexity whose avowed purpose is to allay white and minority, anxiety, to encourage icentre parties and to ensure continuity of government, which is the eode-word for inserting parties which will not disturb the status quo of apartheid, after apartheid has been abolished. The 1986 Indaba electoral proposals, on the other hand, are tailor made for the kind of governmental structure proposed. 68 out of the 100 seats would be elected on a constituency-based system with proportional representation. There would be 15 constituencies in Natal conveniently using the present local areas, ensuring that whites would be over-represented Voters will vote in constituencies whose number of seats will be determined by an electoral commission. Parties or groups will obtain the seats on the basis of whether they have attained the electoral quota, which is calculated by dividing the number of votes cast in the constituency by the number of seats allocated to that constituency. The remainder of the 34 seats would be allocated in proportion to the vote they have attained across the province, in all the constituencies, thus combining a constituency list with a regional list. There is a scarcity of detail about how the electoral system is to be organised but this is in keeping with the avowed aim of ensuring that no party obtains more than 50% of the seats in the first chamber. Since the second chamber has an equality of seats for all the background groups, there is a clear commitment to anti-majoritarianism in the Indaba proposals.

8. NAMIBIA AND ZIMBABWE

taken fairly rapidly in order that consequential studies can be undertaken on such matters as the appropriate regional or constituency units and population distribution. Also, depending on which electoral system obtains favour, the movement will have to embark on crash-courses for cadres to train them in the electoral rules which will operate the system which has been adopted.

Some important political decisions will have to be

We must learn from the experience of Zimbabwe and Namibia, especially as the latter has been held out as having some relevance for South Africa. Regretably, both in Zimbabwe and Namibia, there was hardly any systematic discussion on the electoral system. In the case of Zimbabwe, the Zimbabwean Constitution Order-in-Council of 1979 imposed a party-list system without a registration of voters and a number of seats was allocated to each one of the eight electoral districts. This was part of the Lancaster House deal and no real investigation was carried out on the relation between the allocation of seats and the electorate in each district. The white seats had a different arrangement.

In Namibia, even before the 1990 Constitution was adopted, the electoral system which was implemented in 1989 was the one proposed by the Contact Group of Western States and included in the principles attached to Resolution 435 of 1977, which formed the basis of the transfer of power. There was no negotiation between SWAPO and the Contact group and only the vague formula that the assembly would be elected under one-person, one vote, through a system of proportional representation.

The Namibian Constitution now provides (Article 46) for the 72 members of the National Assembly to be elected by registered voters by general, direct and secret ballot? Although the electoral law is to be determined by act of parliament, Article 49 lays down that these members shall be elected on party lists in accordance with the principles of proportional representation? Schedule 4 provides some details as to how the list system is to operate.

The upper house, known as the National Council, is constituted by two members being elected from each region (Article 69 (1)). But proportional representation for the National Council is not entrenched in the Constitution as paragraph 2 of Article 69 empowers the election of the National Council to be conducted according to procedures to be prescribed by Act of Parliament? Significantly, Article 106(3) specifically lays down that the candidate receiving the most votes in any constituency shall be elected a member of the Council for that constituency. In other words, the majority system prevails. There is also no provision for proportional representation for local elections.

The most significant conclusion to be drawn from the Namibian and Zimbabwean Constitutions is, therefore, that the list system is constitutionally prescribed only for the important lower house. In other countries, where proportional representation is used for elections to the national parliament the proportional representation system permeates other levels also, regional and local. If the representation of minorities was the motivation for the national list system, then the omission of the proportional representation for regions etc., is significant. I am not sure whether this is a good idea as a variation of electoral systems can be confusing, apart from the issue of retaining fair representation for different interests. It is therefore significant that the Thomhill Report on Local Government (May 1990) which enables local authorities to pick and choose their local options of government, also allows local townships, to choose the local electoral system, hardly a credible proposition.

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9. SOUTH AFRICAN BACKGROUND

It seems to me, having read a number of proposals on the electoral system from various South African, American and European sources, that the general perception of the ANC's position is that we are wedded to the system of direct election in equal constituencies, otherwise known as the "majority" or first-past-the-post system. Quite how this conclusion has been reached is not clear to me. If it is the received view, then we ought to be clear about the advantages of such an approach and the extent to which we should look at alternative systems, especially in the light of support for a list system evinced at the local government seminar organised by the ANC in October 1990.

On the other hand, there is virtually uniform opposition to the first-past-the-post system among nearly all the academic, "think-tank" and politically motivated writers on this topic. Some are motivated simply by an opposition to 'simple' majoritarianism; others are concerned that minorities (not always to be associated with ethnicity) may not be able to obtain representation under the present system and therefore propose reliance on some version of proportional representation, without having worked out the implications of such a system.

One real problem we face is that the regime has not signified in any way its preference. On the assumption that

H ((phrases such as "power-sharing , no domination by one group", "participatory government" are really coded references to the continued role of whites as a group in the political life of South Africa, one may conclude that the regime would subscribe to an electoral system which would fortify such expectations. Even if the electoral boundaries are manipulated by a commission of their choice, it is difficult to see how the present system could guarantee adequate racial or white representation. It would appear to me that governmental thinking must surely be working towards some version of proportional representation. The Democratic Party has already supported PR (without being specific about the version) and the KwaZulu-Ndaba proposals adhere to a regional list, together with the constituencies, which appears to me to be influenced by the West German system.

There is some evidence from the Namibian experience that the regime may not have had a firm grasp of the proportional representation system. On the other hand, there is a very developed culture of voting in single-member constituencies among the whites, with established procedures and rules for the conduct of the first-past-the-post system under the existing Electoral Acts. This is a reality which the white bureaucrats may not wish to buck.

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10. EXISTING ARRANGEMENTS

be used automatically with the enfranchisement of the African majority. To a large extent, the white constituencies take into account the existing magisterial districts but the size of the constituencies and the number of the electorate are heavily affected by the "loading" factors permitted by the South African Constitution and laws. The first method for distorting the distribution of seats is allocating a stated number of seats to each of the four provinces and one to Walvis Bay (Section 49 of the Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983). Secondly, the delimitation commission, in fixing the constituency boundaries is obliged to take into account seven factors (density of population, physical features, community or diversity of interests etc) which enables it to depart from the provincial quota by 15% more or less than the quota. In addition, if the constituency size is 25 000 square kms or more, the commission may reduce the number of voters to a number equal to 70% of the quota (Section 49(3), *ibid*).

Present constituency arrangements will not be able to. There has grown up a whole culture of gerrymandering constituencies in white South Africa over the past forty or so years. The result is that heavily populated white Transvaal is under-represented (it took over 15 000 voters to elect a candidate there in the 1989 white election) while the Cape is over-presented (10 575 voters to a seat in 1989).

Having looked carefully at the map of white delimitation for 1989, my conclusion is that the present constituency size and criteria for electoral divisions and number of voters are totally inadequate for a non-racial electorate. I ignore the arrangements for the "Indian, and coloured" electorate under the 1983 Act (40 and 80 elected representatives respectively) as these constituencies were not South Africa-wide but limited to areas where these ethnic groups registered.

The white electorate areas take into account only white registered voters. As a result, the variation in size of the constituencies and the number of the electorate are determined by white requirements. If you add the ten homelands to the "tribal" areas, the picture changes dramatically. The breakdown of the population of the provinces (Sutcliffe's 1990 estimates based on the 1985 census) is as follows:

Cape Province: (30% of the population of 10 560 866

which the Transkei accounts for 3 203 491,

9% of the population)

Natal: 7 331 755

(21% of the population)

OFS: 2 969 731

(8% of the population)

Transvaal: 7 331 755

(42% of the population, of which the PWV area accounts for 7 276 055, 20% of the population)

The points to be made in relation to the present system are as follows:

i) That the majority system is simple for the electorate to understand. In a country with a high rate of illiteracy and without a culture of voting for the majority, clear symbols to identify the candidates will assist in the process of voting. However, simplicity can be retained also in a list system where symbols can be used for a national or regional list.

ii) The electorate can identify not only with the party but also with the candidate which would assist parties with candidates with a national profile. It has been argued that a voter seeks a relationship with his/her representative. In fact, parties now throughout the world seek to impose congenial candidates friendly to those who hold power in the party. Independents under the majority system are hardly ever elected and those who voted against the winner do not always see her as their representative. Party control of candidates under any system can be

readily achieved. But it would be a foolish party which did not choose its list carefully to maximise its support.

iii) A mark x is easier to make than the use by the elector of numbers such as 1,2,3... which are necessary in the alternative vote method or in some of the systems of proportional representation. Symbols can also be used for a list system, however.

iv) The simple majority system is used in a significant number of countries, including countries with great cultural diversity or political differences in Asia, Africa and the Americas. However, the most established democracies use a variant of proportional representation which is now being proposed in a number of countries which have, up to now, used the constituency system.

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v) There is an absolute need for registration of the voters. White South Africa has about the most developed system of registration of voters which is not only kept up-to-date constantly in a way rarely achieved in real democracies but the parties must be informed by the registrar of voters when voters move from one constituency to another!

Without a proper register (which Zimbabwe did not have in 1980), it is not possible to hold any form of "free and fair" constituency-based elections. Under a "list" system such a fraudulent practice as "buying" in voters does not make any difference; in any constituency based system (majority, alternative vote, exhaustive ballot), such a practice, if properly organised could make the difference between victory and defeat.

In the 1989 elections in Namibia, SWAPO won only 9 of the 23 electoral districts. However, its 57% of the votes - extraordinarily high in any circumstances - gave SWAPO nearly 57% of the seats. In a constituency based election, with sophisticated gerrymandering of boundaries, it would have been possible to minimise SWAPO's strength in the North and to maximise the scattered strength of its opponents. The result could have been different! Boundary manipulation is a much practised art.

Voter registration requires time and a considerable degree of organisation. Only when a regional list is used would it be necessary to register voters in that region.

vi) The delimitation of constituencies is a crucial matter. In nearly all countries, where constituencies play a role, this is done by a commission whose composition varies. In some countries, the composition of the commission is entrenched in the Constitution; in others it is determined by legislation or by government fiat. In Namibia, there is no delimitation commission for the conduct of the National Assembly elections as there are no constituencies; regional and local government boundaries will be determined by a Delimitation Commission comprised of the judge of the Supreme Court and two other persons to be appointed by the President, with the approval of Parliament. This formula cannot be supported for a first free election in South Africa as there can be no confidence in appointments by a regime and a parliament in which the majority have had no say. An alternative composition of the Delimitation Commission would be on the Zimbabwean model (section 59), with the Chief Justice or the judge of the Appellate Division, plus three others appointed with the approval of the Chief Justice, following agreement or consensus by the principal political parties. Public hearings of the Commission should be held. "Gerrymandering" of constituencies in a divided society, such as South Africa, could become one of the most contentious issues of all.

vii) In the constituency-based elections each party would have to provide an election machine geared to a particular candidate dealing with election material and election workers. Under a PR list system, the cost and the need for local expertise is averted.

viii) The issue of the "loading" factor referred to has to be dealt with. The Zimbabwean Constitution permits up to 20% (section 60) but the grounds for doing so are more rational than the existing South African provisions. If, on the other hand, the national list or regional list system is used, the case for "loading" falls away.

But is there a case for "loading" at all? After all, what is meant by "one person, one vote, one value"?

ix) There is a strong case for a reference to an Electoral Supervisory Commission in the Constitution. There is no such body in the Namibian constitution, but there is in section 61 of the Zimbabwean Constitution, as amended by Section 5 of the Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment Act, 1987. A number of countries have such a commission and its role will be crucial in a first ever

democratic election held in South Africa. In Namibia, complaints about registration and other irregularities were dealt with by the returning and chief returning officers with a complicated system of recourse to the high court. The Zimbabwean approach has much to recommend it. As in Zimbabwe, there has to be a distinction between the arrangements for the first election and the subsequent elections, especially in relation to the composition of the Commission. In Zimbabwe, the President appoints the members of the commission - the chairman and two other members are appointed after consultation with the Judicial Service Commission; two other members are appointed after consultation with the Speaker of the House of Assembly.

I suggest that for the first election in South Africa, a larger commission should be appointed and the Commission would have regional offices in order to expedite the investigation of complaints. If there are difficulties in constituting the Commission, this is one area where there could be international representation of individuals with a reputation for impartiality and fairness.

In Zimbabwe, the powers of the Commission are broad. It supervises the registration of voters and the conduct of the elections of the Upper and Lower houses of Parliament and has a consultative role in relation to changes in the electoral law. Electoral law is a complex arrangement and I would suggest that the interim arrangements which the ANC has in mind should charge such a body to scrutinise the existing electoral Acts with a view to proposing changes. In addition, the Commission should have the added duty of ensuring fairness concerning the treatment of elections by radio and television, with reasonable and equal access to political broadcasts by parties.

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Supervision of radio and television, a matter of great importance to the ANC in the absence of a national newspaper, was a controversial and partisan issue in the first elections in Zimbabwe and Namibia and cannot be left to a regime which will be an active participant in the election process.

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system in South Africa. First of all, in common with other first-past-the-post systems, governments are usually elected on a minority of the votes. Since 1948, the National Party has won every election without obtaining a majority of votes, one of the starkest examples being the 1981 white elections when, with 59% of the votes, it won 79.5% of the seats! Minority parties can be gravely disadvantaged as in the example of the HNP in the same election when with 14.8% of the votes, it won no seats at all! This seems gravely undemocratic as the preference of some voters finds disproportionate representation while one-seventh of the voters have no representation at all. It has been calculated that a party which wins 30% of the total votes could in fact win an overall majority under this system.

There are two basic objections to the present plural system. The second objection is that the votes of the losers, who may constitute a majority in a constituency, are altogether "wasted" in that these voters are not able to affect the result of an election. This may result in dangers in a fragmented society where minorities might never be represented and the perceived threat to their integrity or viability would be accentuated. It is considered by many democrats that such a system is a form of disfranchisement, with dangerous implications.

On the other hand, it must be pointed out, that proportional representation systems have virtually a built in mechanism to ensure that it is difficult for a party to obtain over 50% of the seats: they inevitably give rise to coalitions and "wheel-dealing"; compromise and equivocation often become operative ideals.

The list system has certain attractions and its use in Namibia may be used as a precedent. But the "pure" national list system where the seats are allocated on the basis of voting for a party (or a symbol) is found only in small countries (Guyana and Israel) or with small populations (Namibia). Unless there is a threshold (1% in Israel, 5% in West Germany), there will be a proliferation of small parties. In Israel even with a threshold, rabid and extremist parties have had little difficulty in electing representatives but the system works there (through virtually permanent coalitions) because of fundamental agreement on the nature and basis of the State. Such agreement or consensus does not exist in South Africa.

11. WHICH SYSTEM?

In my view, the simple national list system is inappropriate for South Africa. Apart from the need for a substantial threshold, a national list election would resemble a series of referenda and totally deny any connection between a representative and a constituency. The advantages of (i) proportionality between votes and seats (ii) the virtual impossibility of manipulating boundaries and (iii) minority representation and (iv) ease of voting, are outweighed by the disadvantages of remoteness of the elected representatives from their constituents and the referendum-style of the campaign during "list" elections.

Remoteness can be mitigated in three ways. Firstly by inserting a totally regional approach (in which case the allocations of seats to the region, by reference to the population of the region, will require a proper census or prior registration) but "pure" regional lists do not result in total proportionality; or, secondly, by adopting the West German model, of single member seats combined with a national list to top up the seats in order to obtain a proper relationship between votes and seats. But this may appear to be too complex for South African conditions.

The third alternative to the simple national list system is to combine the national with a regional list. If ten regions or provinces with nearly equivalent populations (of around 3 million, to be determined by a delimitation commission) were set up in a National Assembly of 400, 200 of these seats would be allocated to the regions. Voting would take place in each region, which would return 20 members. Regional and local

parties could then contest these elections, ensuring that minority groupings could find political representation and a closeness between representative and elected is maintained. The second 200 would be allocated on the basis of the total votes obtained by a party nationally. These seats would be allocated on a proportionate basis and to ensure that parties have a national and realistic profile, a threshold of anything between 3% and 5% could be used so that parties not attaining this threshold would not participate in the allocation of the 1'national list? There would, of course. be only one election and one vote.

Under this system, high profile national parties will succeed in getting their voters out; smaller regional parties, who may not do very well in the regional list, may obtain representation when their votes are totted up in the national list, providing they overcome the threshold.

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12. CONCLUSION

reference to the structure of government. Some commentators have tied one particular electoral system to the consociational or power sharing, government. In my view, this is regrettable. We should, of course, consider the following factors:

Electoral systems can, of course, be chosen without
i) Whether a presidential or prime ministerial government is adopted;

ii) A decision on whether a unitary or federal form of government is to be established;

iii) The extent to which regions are to be identified and whether the regions are based on existing provinces, or on the provinces and Bantustans or on a new geographical division, similar to the 14 ANC regions;

iv) The possibility of the second parliamentary chamber based on a criterion other than direct election in equal constituencies.

These are political issues concerned with power and the electoral system should not be isolated from these factors.

In the meantime, I make two recommendations. Firstly, that the ANC will soon have to take a decision on the electoral system. This should follow debate and discussion at all levels of the structures of the movement. Ultimately, the nature of the electoral system will have to be included in the constitution. The constitution should have a general reference to the right of the people to exercise political power through universal, equal, direct, secret and periodic elections, the right of all citizens over 18 years of age to vote, with exceptions laid down in law, the right of all citizens to hold public office under conditions of equality and freedom. Freedom of association shall include the right to establish or join political associations and parties.

There is a query as to whether a party which advocates racism or sexism could contest elections. Or, could this
Secondly, I am convinced that for the first election, either for a constituent assembly or the first democratic parliament, the electoral system which ought to be used is the national list system. Such an election is in reality a referendum as to how power is to be distributed in such a parliament; it is concerned with determining which party, not individuals, is to operate power. It is a trial of strength and an indication of political support. In the South African context, reliance on the list system will avert such contentious issues as constituency delimitation, precise voter registration etc.

Careful thought must be given to what kind of electoral system would best be suited for South Africa. On balance, my recommendation would be for a combination of the national list system of proportional representation together with a regional list. For regional and local elections, it might be the most progressive position to support the "list" system. South Africa does not have to take a system off the peg from another country. It would be better to establish the principles that should guide an electoral system and then design a system that follows those principles.

Commentators often talk about proportionality or decisive government, as though they were the only principles that mattered but they are only two of at least five: proportionality; accountability-voters should have reasonable access to a representative whom they may wish to turn to; equal value, so every vote counts equally towards the result, with no votes wasted; and effective choice between the real contenders for power, not artificially induced coalitions to blunt the thrust towards reform and redistribution; legitimacy in that voters must feel that the system is fair. It is impossible to devise a system that fully satisfies each principle. Existing systems are a compromise between each one. The system chosen depends on the order of importance in which one puts them. For us in South Africa, therefore, a system which enhances the sense of participation of the voter

to influence or affect political choices and provides
democratic legitimacy for the new constitutional order, would
matter be left to the general law of the land which would appear to be the most appropriate.
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forbid the advocacy of racism, sexism, chauvinism etc.

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ELECTORAL SYSTEMS _

COMPARATIVE

EXPERIENCES.

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Apart from Professor Kader Asmal's Critical Survey of Electoral Systems commissioned by the Constitutional Committee, five other presentations were received in plenary session. These inputs were broadly comparative in nature and included the Namibian, Nicaraguan and British experiences. The presentation by Professor Leon Trakman from Canada, while not being comparative or specifically on electoral systems, was an important adjunct nonetheless, within the context of the workshop agenda. For the purposes of this report on the workshop however, only a precis of these inputs is presented here since they are to be published under separate COVCL

The precis thus proceeds by firstly outlining the common and complementing issues emerging from the presentations. It then provides a brief overview of the presentations.

The following points, emanating from the inputs by Michael Meadowcroft (Electoral Reform Society - UK), Mtshana Ncube (UN Institute for Namibia - Lusaka) and Heinz Klug (ANC Land Commission), together with Kader Asmal's input, provided a general but common understanding of the nature of electoral systems:

- i) electoral systems are not value free;
- ii) that they affect the style and structure of politics in different ways and hence give greater or lesser emphasis to different aspects of democracy;
- iii) that therefore, appropriate mechanisms for ensuring the integrity of the electoral process need to be institutionalised or guaranteed.

This was made quite pertinent in Ncube's presentation on Namibia. In this case there was firstly the historical precedent of Namibia's colonial status and the efforts of the UN to resolve the Namibian question. Problem areas identified in the case of the Namibian elections must be seen in the above context. These problems were the lack of a census, the lack of clarity on who was entitled to vote, a hastily mounted voter registration, the presence of intimidation and the failure of the UN to supervise and control the elections. One point highlighted for its relevance to the South African struggle was the question of the voting age. In his presentation, Ncube suggested that in view of the particular contribution of the youth in the struggle for national liberation in South Africa, consideration should be given to lowering the voting age to 18. Ncube's analysis of the 1978 as well as transitional elections in Namibia thus offered valuable insights into the weaknesses inherent in the processes prescribed by outside forces for Namibians. In his assessment, he deliberately emphasised the problems - so that those charged with the task of creating an electoral system for South Africa could begin looking for other options and other reformulations of electoral systems which would be conducive to producing the desired result of a non-racial, non-sexist and democratic South Africa.

Michael Meadowcroft's presentation was based on the result of meetings between the ERS and South Africans between May and October 1990. Given the heterogeneous nature of the South African population the memorandum noted, the welding of all these groups into a single democracy would be an immense task. Meadowcroft's presentation also pointed to the main criteria which would need to be considered in a preferred election system. These criteria were proportionality, accountability, equal value of votes and effective choice. The memorandum then proceeds to consider what the ERS thought to be the main alternatives in electoral systems in the South African situation.

Taking the comparative experience a step further Heinz Klug considered one particular constitutional mechanism employed in some Central American countries, to protect the democratic process - particularly the conducting of elections. Honduras, Costa Rica and Nicaragua were used as examples where, although each of these countries followed different routes, in each case it involved the establishment of some form of independent institution to monitor and oversee the

election process.

While the establishment of a fourth branch of government to monitor and oversee the election process is not explicitly or coherently designated as such in each of the above countries, Klug argues that:

"The creation of a fourth branch or even a constitutionally mandated tribunal to guarantee the integrity of the electoral system is thus seen to be premised upon the idea of a separation of powers in the state".

He concluded that a stronger assertion of the doctrine of a separation of powers and even the constitutional enshrinement of a fourth branch of government in order to guarantee the electoral process may serve us well in building a democratic tradition in South Africa:

9...given a history of racial oppression and dictatorship over the black majority, we may accept that it will be to our advantage to adopt some form of constitutional mechanism designed to enhance and protect emergent democratic processes in a non-racial, non-sexist and democratic South Africa".

While Leon Trakman's presentation did not deal directly with electoral systems, as noted earlier, his contribution on the question of a constitutional court for South Africa was an important adjunct to the main topic. Professor Trakman's main objective was to present ideas for discussion on a constitutional court for South Africa rather than presenting a lengthy research piece.

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Trakman examined the case against, as well as for, constitutional courts generally. He went on to outline the nature of constitutional courts and the various models. According to Trakman, the case for constitutional courts is seemingly self-evident. Constitutional courts supposedly protect the interests of a constitutional democracy; they subject politics to constitutional limits. They help keep the legislature and executive honest. Specifically, constitutional courts provide special expertise not generally available before ordinary courts, especially insofar as constitutional courts are not hampered by ordinary rules of evidence and procedure. He concluded his presentation by exploring the need for a constitutional court in South Africa. As South Africa was about to embark upon a highly complex reform of its constitution, he argued, the case for a constitutional court system for South Africa is formidable. This however, is the subject of a national conference planned for January 1991, in Johannesburg. C1

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THE PARTICIPANTS WERE:

Prof Donald Horowitz (Duke University), Prof Ahrend Lijphart (University of California in San Diego), Prof Mark Lipsett (George Mason and Stanford Universities). Prof Victor Scanlon (Lecturer at various United States and Canadian Universities, who specialises in the field of elections), Prof Kader Asmal (member of the Constitutional Committee of the ANC, Trinity College, Dublin), Prof John Dugard (University of Witwatersrand), Prof Albie Sachs (member of the Constitutional Committee of the ANC), Prof Gerhard Erasmus (University of Stellenbosch) and Dr Zola Skweyiya (Chairperson of the Constitutional Committee of the ANC).

The objective of the workshop was to DETERMINE THE MOST APPROPRIATE ELECTORAL SYSTEM FOR

SOUTH AFRICA. The tele-conference discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of each system will therefore be dealt with in turn. However, some general observations made during the discussion, should preface the discussion of the particular systems examined.

The electoral system is only one element in the totality of the solution to South Africans problems.

While it is acknowledged that the electoral system is not the only factor of importance in seeking a solution to South African problems, and while it is further acknowledged that there is no such thing as the optimum system, the electoral system is one of the most important instruments of constitutional engineering. When one is writing a new constitution, one has the opportunity to do something about the electoral system and, because different electoral systems will, in South African conditions certainly produce better and worse results, it is important to devise an electoral system which will most adequately minister to the needs of South African society.

The view was expressed that South Africa is a severely divided society and that any system adopted should foster accommodation between the segments of South African society. To this end, South Africa should ignore the arguments for and against electoral systems in homogeneous societies and focus on a system that would foster accommodation and inclusion.

An alternative view emphasising that issues of ethnicity, skin colour and language should not obscure the common humanity of all South Africans was also expressed. The vote, it was argued, should enable all South Africans to vote as South Africans. Ethnicity, for so long enshrined in the constitution, should not form the basis of an electoral system. Rather, the government of South Africa should be broadly representative of the people of the country.

The above view, expressed by one of the South African panelists was seen to be Utopian by one of the American counterparts saying;

2. I thought it was Utopian in a South African... situation because conflict... among ethnic groups, among social classes or people with diverse values and interest cannot lead to the kind of consensual feelings! get about South Africans in order to work together... I,

To which the South African panelist replied:

K. can I say that if we hadn't been Utopian we wouldn't be sitting here today dealing with the very complex practical questions that we are dealing with. Many years ago we said one person one vote and were told impossible in South Africa, it's Utopian. Now even F. W. de Klerk has accepted the principle... and we were told many years ago, until quite recently the ANC was a terrorist organisation beyond the pale constitutionally, and now we are really making the running for the introduction of democracy here. So we will carry on being Utopian"?

It was generally felt by the overseas panelists that it was impossible to reach consensus as to the most suitable electoral system. One view had it that the best approach would be to look at the most comparable situations in other countries and that South Africans had to take into account the differences

in the society and imake your best guess as to what is going to give most groups a feeling of inclusionth.

Whatever electoral system is decided upon, it should be completely non-racial and non-ethnic. Notions such as fixed minority representation and reserved seats should thus be avoided.

THE FIRST-PAST-THE-POST-

/RELATIVE MAJORITY

/PLURALITY SYSTEM

Participants were generally agreed as to the unsuitability of this system for South Africa for the following reasons:

It creates the opportunity for a political party to obtain a majority of seats on less than a majority of votes. The example of the 1948 white elections in South Africa is cited. There is no incentive for appeal across party/group lines in this winner-take-all system.

Generally, with the notable exception of the United States, there is growing dissatisfaction world-wide with the plurality system (UK, India, New Zealand and Canada are cited as examples).

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THE PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION SYSTEM

Views expressed in favour of the PR system:

Examples from elsewhere in the world (Germany, Sweden, Namibia among others) suggest that the proportional representation system works best in countries that have divisions of a significant degree.

Proportional representation results in all votes having an equal value. This allows the proportional representation system to enjoy a great degree of legitimacy.

It is a neutral, simple system which does not dictate which interest groups are to be represented, neither does it prescribe the lines along which such groups should be formed. Rather, the voters determine the nature and composition of the groups that will seek representation.

It allows for the representation in government of minorities as well as majorities.

Views expressed against the PR system:

Although it avoids the artificiality of majority systems it exacerbates divisions in society by giving rise to the formation of many minor parties who, through their alliance with one or other of the major powers, can effectively and at times quite irresponsibly, affect the balance of power through artificial coalitions.

It does not provide any incentive for political parties to appeal to people other than those to whom the party normally appeals.

Responses to the above in favour of the PR system:

One way to reduce the proliferation of smaller parties is to set a cut-off percentage of votes which a party has to achieve in order to be represented as is done in Sweden and Germany.

Whether proportional representation will result in diminishing the effectiveness of government cannot be judged in the abstract and will depend on the degree of accommodation that it (proportional representation) produces.

In spite of the notion that proportional representation needs large constituencies contested by more than one representative in order to obtain any decent kind of proportionality, the German system has shown that proportional representation can function in relatively small districts.

It is quite possible to have effective government in coalition, particularly in non-homogeneous societies.

ALTERNATIVE VOTING

In this system parties win seats by majority. A majority threshold is set and if this majority is not achieved at the first count of votes, the second choices of voters are taken into account until the majority threshold is achieved. The following advantages of this system were identified:

It encourages inter-group conciliation and accommodation by creating an incentive for political parties to appeal across party/groups lines to groups to whom the party does not habitually appeal.

It is particularly beneficial in the election of a President, the argument being that the alternative voting system with its wide appeal makes the President a truly national figure.

It was acknowledged that this system merely amounts to a modification of the first-past-the-post system by extending a relative majority to a majority threshold and then consulting the second choices of voters. However, the view was expressed that this modification made for conciliation, compromise and appeal across group lines and would therefore hold particular benefits for the South African situation if one proceeds from the assumption that South Africa is a deeply divided society. (Not all panelists were agreed as to the nature and extent of these divisions and the disadvantages of the alternative voting system were not discussed.)

THE PRESIDENTIAL SYSTEM

Aspects such as the nature and operation of the Presidential system and whether or not the President should have executive powers were not discussed. However, certain advantages

and disadvantages were discussed insofar as they were relevant to a discussion on electoral systems.

The argument for a Presidential system:

The President, when elected by a system of alternative voting, becomes a truly national figure in that all segments of society have a say in his/her election. The Presidential system is therefore able to produce an effective government in conditions of fragmentation. Nigeria was cited as illustrative of a situation where contentious ethnic issues are reconciled in the person of the President. The example of France was also cited.

The argument against the Presidential system:

This system, in spite of the added feature of alternative voting, remains a winner-take-all system, where the victor is likely to be identified with one major group. It is necessary in a country like South Africa to have a more conciliatory system than this.

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OTHER SYSTEMS

Various other systems were mentioned, though not fully discussed. These included the following:

A combination of the first-past-the-post and proportional representation systems whereby the President is elected on a relative majority and the parliament is elected by a proportional representation system. (Example, Netherlands.)

A first-past-the-post system where the nomination of candidates who seek public office is not made by the party, but by the entire portion of the electorate who support that party. This results in the merging of boundaries to the Right or Left and a situation of political compromise. (Example, United States.)

A combination of plurality and distribution systems, where an absolute majority is not necessary, but the majority must be spread throughout the country. (Example, Nigeria.)

A limited system of proportionalism where the ability of smaller parties to sway the balance of power is curtailed. (Example, Ireland.)

The tele-conference also dealt with a variety of issues relating to electoral systems. through questions put across by the South African panelists to their American counterparts.

The following questions and responses were received:

What are the principles which govern the choice of an electoral system and which is the most important principle?

There was a general consensus as to the identification of the following principles.

Proportionality between seats obtained and votes obtained.

Accountability of representatives to their voters.

The fact that each vote should have an equal value in the determination of an election.

There must be an effective choice between the real contenders for power. (Artificially induced coalitions should be avoided).

Voters must feel that the system is legitimate.

The processes involved in voting should be characterised by simplicity.

There should be a democratic accommodation of the interests of minority groups. (This seventh principle was added by a member of the American panel).

On the question of which was the most important of these principles the view was expressed that legitimacy was the single most important principle governing the choice of an electoral system.

It was also suggested that democratic accommodation was the most important of these principles.

However, it was generally acknowledged that all these principles were vitally important and that violation of any one of them would be fatal.

Which system is the most suitable for the purpose of maximising the chances of the election of women into government?

Statistics compiled by some of the panelists indicated that in countries using the list-proportional representation system, the representation of women in parliament was four times greater, on average, than that in countries using the first-past-the-post system.

Another opinion was that this was not indicative of any greater degree of sensibility on the subject of women in government but merely because in compiling their lists of candidates, parties attempted to appeal to as large a portion of voters as possible and thus include women in their lists in order to attract the votes of women.

What is important is not how many women hold office, but whether women's interests are represented in government. It has been known to happen that a large number of a particular group of people (eg. women) hold office, and yet the interests of the group they purport to represent are not represented.

Thus the important question is not to what group does the representative belong to? But to whom will the repre-

sentative be accountable? Thus the electoral system should be such as to encourage appeal across group lines so that all interests can be represented.

Are the interests of women's groups or trade union groups taken into account in the compiling of party lists, in those countries which practice proportional representation?

Apart from the comments cited immediately above, no direct answer to this question was forthcoming.

Does the system of proportional representation not lead to the entrenching of group rights, of white privileges or minority autonomy and the perpetuation of the inequalities between whites and blacks in South Africa ?

The possibility for the representation of all groups in government should be distinguished from the autonomy of those groups. Proportional representation allows for the representation of any group in government, and as such that is a good thing. However, whether those groups should be given

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autonomy is a separate question. It is possible to ensure that the basis upon which autonomy is granted is legitimate. An example is the Netherlands where religious groups are granted autonomy with regard to their education while getting equal subsidies from central government.

Why should groups defined along linguistic and cultural lines, whose rights are in any case protected in the constitution, also have special representation in government?

The idea is not that those groups must be represented in parliament, there need therefore not be any rules that specifically provide that cultural or linguistic groups should be represented in parliament. However, wherever there are groups in society that desire representation, the structures ought to be such that representation is possible.

Does the list-proportional representation system not mean that representatives are now less accountable to a specific group of voters?

It is possible to have proportional representation without a list system as for example in Germany. In this way the accountability of representatives to their constituencies can be maintained.

One can also specify that the making up of the list should be done democratically within the parties.

Which principles should guide the determination of a cut-off percentage of voters for representation in government in a proportional system ?

One should look at the kind and size of the group and decide whether (presumably on a common sense basis) they should be represented. (In Sweden the cut-off percentage was lowered from 5% to 4% because the Communist Party had been receiving only slightly more than 4% of the vote.

In Western democracies this percentage is somewhere between 1% and 5%.

It is desirable to have a cut-off to prevent extreme fragmentation.

In countries where democratic elections are held for the first time. the cut-off percentage should not be too high.

An eventual cut-off of say 4% or 5% can be envisaged which is achieved gradually after starting at a 1% cut-off. D

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Findings of the

Comissions,

Commission 1: Electoral systems and Democracy;

Commission 2: First-past-the-post system:

Commission 3: Proportional Representation.

Hg:

C onsideration:

The views expressed by the participants at the workshop are not necessarily those of the African National Congress or its Constitutional Committee.

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Commission
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
ELECTORAL SYSTEMS
AND DEMOCRACY

It emerged from the commissions, discussions that the problem for those working on electoral systems was to identify the best way in which the will of the people could be expressed in the organs of the government. The following key considerations to be addressed regarding electoral systems were noted:

The electoral system must be simple;
It must be appropriate for South Africa as a whole;
It must deal with dissenting groups in such a way that these groups remain part of the process.

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It must result in the election of a popular government which addresses the crucial issue of the under-representation of women.

D The electoral system must be non-racial.

ACCOUNTABILITY

The commission also emphasised the need to build a new political culture of accountability. It was considered necessary to devise an electoral system which would encompass both the accountability principle of the single member constituency system and the broad representation of the proportional representation system.

It was recognised that the political culture was not static and could therefore change. A mechanism thus had to be built into the constitution which allowed for the changing of the electoral system. This, it was suggested, could be done by means of a referendum.

UNITARY STATE VERSUS

A FEDERAL STATE

The participants were unanimous in their rejection of a federal state in South Africa for the following reasons:

E1 South Africa has always been a unitary state.

'3 It would divide people and organisations.

D It would create artificial regional divisions.

D It would undermine our struggle for national liberation.

ADDITIONAL POINTS

E1 It was noted that the ANC should not take for granted the fact that the electorate will in fact vote.

D The whole question of ethnicity and electoral systems at local level needed to be examined.

D The question of having the electoral system entrenched in the constitution was important. In this regard, there was support for a first election and then allowing parliament to decide these points.

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The commissions examined the First-Past-The-Post system against the background of the fact that the majority of South Africans were disenfranchised and therefore did not have adequate information on the nature of electoral systems and their significance for a future South Africa. It was also noted that it was important to choose the system most appropriate for South Africans needs and not to merely adopt systems from other countries.

WHAT IS FPPS?

In an FPPS electoral system the country is divided into constituencies with a specific number of people. This is the oldest voting arrangement and still predominates in most English speaking countries. Each party will put up a candidate for each constituency. Each elector has one vote, and the candidate who gets the most wins, even if he/she does not secure an absolute majority. This is also known as the relative majority or plurality or winner-takes-all system. In this system party symbols can be used to represent candidates to address the problem of illiteracy.

ADVANTAGES AND

DISADVANTAGES OF FPPS

The commissions concluded that the first-past-the-post-system contained the following advantages:

- i) It establishes a nexus (linkage) between the electorate and representatives and is thus important in a representative democracy;
- ii) The FPPS is a very simple system designed even for the illiterate;

The following disadvantages were noted by the commission:

- i) there was no correlation between the number of votes and the number of seats.
- 2: First-past-the-post system
- ii) Parties put up one candidate (almost always men!) in an FPPS system. Women therefore seldom get an opportunity to get into parliament;
 - iii) A wide range of interests thus cannot be represented in the FPPS system. There is also a tendency for specific or narrow interests to dominate while the broader needs and interests of the constituency are not catered for;
 - iv) Issues of group rights and nation building are not addressed by the FPPS; racial tensions are thus exacerbated;
 - v) The FPPS tends to create conflict when it comes to the delimitation of constituencies;
 - vi) The FPPS does not address the effects of Group Areas;
 - vii) It depends on the drawing of boundaries - to be able to work;
 - viii) It lends itself to political gerrymandering.

GENERAL

The commissions noted that an electoral system had to create the sense for voters that their vote was effective. An ineffective vote would lead to disillusionment and possibly to the opting out of political involvement.

While it was difficult to devise a quota system within an FPP system, there appeared some value in having a quota system which would cater for the needs, interests and objectives of both parties and constituencies.

QUESTIONS

Considering the ANC.SACP,COSATU alliance - what criteria does the ANC propose in the selection of candidates for a future election ?

Is it possible to secure that a minimum number of women candidates be eligible for elections ?

Commission

3: Proportional Representation (PR)

INTRODUCTION

It was noted that there was a tendency within the ranks of the disenfranchised to discuss proportional representation as one of many devices used by the parliamentary parties as a necessary hedge against majority rule. Given these observations, the commission agreed that:

C1 No electoral system is neutral, or value free;

E1 Electoral systems cannot be analysed in the abstract. Rather, they should be contextualized within specific historical conditions;

D Electoral systems should be considered in relation to other structures of government;

CRITERIA OF AN

APPLICABLE SYSTEM

E1 Simplicity, the extent to which an electoral system ensures participation by people of different educational backgrounds.

E1 Representative nature, the extent to which an electoral system accommodates the range of political opinion.

PROPORTIONAL

REPRESENTATION -

ADVANTAGES

The main strength of the system is the proportionality of votes to seats.

List systems are also easy to understand.

It would bind all sections of the South African community in the democratic process.

It would ensure a multi-party democracy.

It would to a large extent favour the election of women representatives.

DECIDE

It does not necessarily require an expenditure of conflict over boundary definitions.

PROPORTIONAL

REPRESENTATION -

DISADVANTAGES

D It severs the nexus between representative and electorate. This could lead to political alienation and declining levels of participation in elections. This could in part be mitigated by strong local and regional government;

D PR tends to produce weak coalition governments within which small parties may sway the balance of power. (Israel was cited as an example. However, PR does not necessarily have this result and could produce effective government.)

E1 In determining the threshold of exclusion, due regard should be given to the needs of government and the requirement of representation.

E1 There should be some threshold to encourage political forces to solicit significant support;

E1 PR tends to strengthen central party organs and could lead to the marginalisation of certain sectors of society.

(There was, for instance, some empirical evidence suggesting that women were significantly under-represented in PR systems. However, there was general consensus that the social context, political culture etc., were more important determinants. All were agreed that party structures should be democratized, that internal party procedures should be subject to public scrutiny and that lists should be published prior to elections.)

NOTE

Despite the disadvantages of the PR system, the majority of the workshop participants were in favour of PR as an applicable electoral system.

ADDITIONAL POINTS

FOR CONSIDERATION

E1 COMPULSORY VOTING, is voting a RIGHT
or an obligation?

E1 VOTING AGE, 18 or 21 ?

D SECRET BALLOT, should the confidentiality of
the vote be guaranteed ? CI

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Closing address by
Comrade Zola Skweyiya,
Chairperson of the Constitutional Committee
of the African National Congress. 11%

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there was full participation by everybody present at the proceedings. You are aware that this is the first time that the National Liberation Movement in this country has discussed or debated the question of elections. For us it has become very important because it begins to cast light on the mechanisms of choosing a government for a future democratic South Africa. We have been involved in this process, not only as the ANC, but also with the support and nudging of our friends, especially, our friends from Zimbabwe.

In concluding this workshop, I am happy to note that as early as 1986, the government of Zimbabwe in the main Zanu, reminded the ANC of their experiences, before they got independence and cautioned us not to fall into the same traps. We should now start thinking and planning for the future and to involve our people in this crucial process. In this regard, the people and the government of Zimbabwe and Zambia, have been of invaluable assistance. At the same time, there have been many other faithful friends who have provided us with their resources, personnel, experiences and expertise.

Firstly, it is in this spirit that we should thank Gay McDougall from the United States, who came to share with us her experience and those of the American people, in their struggle for Civil Rights. As you may be aware, Gay has been involved in the struggle against apartheid in this country, especially, in providing assistance to the victims of apartheid for their legal defence. We hope her coming here to South Africa, at this stage of our struggle, will indeed strengthen the long existing ties between ourselves, and the democratic forces in the USA.

Secondly, we should thank Mr Meadowcroft from the Electoral Reform Society and Professor Leon Trackman from the South African Exchange Fund in Canada who have contributed tremendously in this exercise and we hope through this exercise we will continue to work together also into the future.

Thirdly, we should thank the academics that have come here from the universities in this country: The Universities of Witwatersrand, Cape Town, Natal, UWC, Turtloop, Potchefstroom, Unisa, Rhodes, Pretoria, Stellenbosch, Fort Hare and Transkei.

And last, but not least of our international guests, we should thank Comrade Mtshana Ncube who has been working with us for a very long time. He has been an active participant in the struggle of the people of this region against colonialism and against apartheid. His contribution to the people of Namibia is very well known and we are looking forward to his continued contribution to the struggle of our people. This will serve to strengthen the ties that exist between ourselves as South Africans, the ANC, the democratic forces in Zimbabwe and the people in the country of Zimbabwe as a whole.

Finally, a special thanks to our South African participants, notably members of the broad democratic movement, especially Cosatu, the Youth League, the Women's League and the Communist Party. We hope that we have all learnt and have become more educated and will be able to bring our people with us. I want to thank the Black Lawyers Association for having honoured our invitation and agreeing to act together in this whole exercise of constitution making. We wish to thank the Lawyers for Human Rights too, for having honoured our invitation. Of course I don't know whether we have to thank National Association of Democratic lawyers because they have been part and parcel of the organisation of this workshop. We hope the comradely relationship which exists between Nadel and the ANC will be strengthened so that we can work in a more organised way in the future.rades and friends, you have come here not only in your capacity as academics, but also as citizens of this country. You have come here to contribute in your capacity as South

Africans, irrespective of cultural and ideological backgrounds, to strengthen our commitment to democracy. We hope that the relationship we have forged in this workshop, will serve to strengthen our working together for the attainment of a democratic, non-sexist and non-racial South Africa.

From the outset it was said that the aim of this workshop was not to formulate prescriptions for the ANC. Our exercise was one which would begin to advise the ANC and the democratic forces of this country of our findings. The Constitutional Committee will compile a booklet on the findings and recommendations of this workshop, which will be available to all South Africans. It is important that all of our regions represented here will take the spirit, the findings and recommendations of this workshop to the branches of the ANC, so that our people can begin to debate and discuss what the most appropriate electoral system for South Africa should be.

On my behalf, Chair may I again before we close thank all for the cooperation and for all the work that they have put into the workshop. I would like to mention the CDS personnel especially - for their outstanding efforts in making the workshop the success it turned out to be. I am sure that we will meet again to work together in workshops and seminars to further our understandings so that we can contribute more dynamically to the liberation of all South Africans.

Zola Skweyiya

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