



Politics

AS and A Level | Edexcel | 8PL0/9PL0



Course Companion for A Level Edexcel

Component 1: UK Politics

Electoral Systems

2026 Edition

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Teacher's Introduction

This pack is designed to provide students with a comprehensive educational resource on electoral systems and referendums for AS and A Level Edexcel.

Remember!

Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

Since devolution in the 1990s, a large number of different electoral systems have been used in the UK. First Past the Post for Westminster elections has been joined by the Additional Member System in the Scottish Parliament and Welsh Parliament, and the Single Transferable Vote for the Northern Irish Assembly. The Supplementary Vote has been introduced for mayoral elections around the country. This course companion explains and analyses all of these electoral systems now in use in the UK. Since 1997, there has also been an unprecedented increase in the use of referendums in British politics. The companion has an explanation of the impact of referendums held in the UK, up to and including the June 2016 referendum on British membership of the European Union. Finally, the course companion covers the impact that different electoral systems have had around the country, and how these can be compared, offering a detailed analysis of the different types of electoral system.

The electoral systems module in the 2017 Edexcel specification covers three main topics: different electoral systems, referendums and how they are used, and electoral system analysis. This course companion has a chapter on each section, with the chapters broken up into smaller sub-chapters in line with the specification. The course companion is as comprehensive as possible, and covers key political developments up to and including the June 2017 general election.

Please use this pack in whichever way you prefer. It has been designed either to be worked through in order, or dipped in and out of to support your own lesson structures. The talking points and activities provided are designed to engage students while provoking the critical thought and analysis that will be required in the exam.

Each chapter contains:

- A brief overview and learning objectives for the chapter
- A list of key terms and key words
- Students' notes and analysis of the key events
- 'Talking point' questions designed to encourage discussion in class and develop key analysis skills

Second edition, April 2020

The second edition of this course companion has been updated to reflect recent developments, contemporary debates and new political contexts that have emerged since its initial publication. In relation to Electoral Systems, this includes (but is not limited to) recent election results, developments in devolved governments, the advancement of debates around the use of referenda and electoral reform, and changes in the positions of prominent political figures.

Third edition, October 2022

The third edition of this course companion has been further updated to include developments such as the political context since the 2019 general election and recent changes to the electoral system (pages 6, 7, 37 and 41).

Fourth edition, January 2026

Bringing the companion up to date with changes and reversions of voting systems, such as for mayoral systems and the Welsh Parliament, as well as up-to-date examples including the 2024 elections.

Unit 3.1: Different Electoral Systems

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Understand what an election is and the main functions of an electoral system
- ✓ Know the features and functions of an electoral system
- ✓ Know the different electoral systems used around the UK: FPTP, AMS, STV
- ✓ Be able to compare the advantages and disadvantages of these systems
- ✓ Know the main issues raised by FPTP and understand the case for reform
- ✓ Be able to compare FPTP as used for Westminster to STV used for the NI Assembly

Key Words

Election	A formal public vote to choose political representatives
Electoral System	The way in which votes are translated into political representatives
Incumbent	The holder of a political office before an election. The incumbent MP in a constituency at a general election, for example.
Constituency	The geographical area in which a political representative is elected. There are 632 constituencies and 650 MPs to represent them in Parliament.
By-election	An election held for a constituency between scheduled general elections.
Safe Seat	A constituency in which there is very little chance of the incumbent party losing. MPs in a safe seat consistently win by a large majority.
Marginal Seat	A constituency held with a small majority in an election, so in the next election it could easily be lost.
Tactical Voting	Choosing to vote for a party other than the one you most identify with in order to prevent a candidate from winning. Can also be done in order to maximise the chance of your preferred party having an impact in an electoral system unfavourable to your preferred party.
PR	Proportional Representation. Any electoral system where the proportion of seats a party wins is closely matched to the proportion of votes cast for them.
Party List	A simple electoral system where voters vote for a party and then the seats are allocated in proportion to the votes won. A type of PR used for European Parliament elections.
FPTP	First Past the Post. The electoral system used in the UK today, where each constituency elects one representative. The candidate who gets the most votes in the constituency wins.
AMS	Additional Member System. An electoral system where some representatives are elected in single-member constituencies and others through a party list.
STV	Single Transferable Vote. A proportional electoral system where voters rank candidates in order of preference. Representatives who each have to win above a predetermined threshold.
SV	Supplementary Vote. An electoral system where each voter selects two candidates. If no candidate wins above 50% of first preference votes, then the seats are shared out between the top two candidates. Whoever gets the most second preference votes wins the seat.

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What is an Election?

An election is the way in which the public pick their representatives in a democracy. In the UK an election is when eligible people vote for who they want to represent them in Parliament. Before we get to the details of how elections work, it is important to know the main functions of elections are:

Elections are first and foremost about representation. In a representative democracy, citizens ensure that their voice is being heard by choosing someone they believe will best represent them and electing that person to a representative body. In the UK the main representative body is Parliament and the people chosen to represent the electorate are called Members of Parliament (MPs). Each MP (there are 650) is chosen to represent a **constituency**, and their job is to represent the people they think the constituency would approve of. If they fail to do this, then in the UK the constituents (the electorate in their constituency) may choose to elect someone else. Since the 2015 Recall of MPs Act for a constituency to trigger a **by-election**, an MP can be removed from office and 10% of the constituency signs a petition. By-elections can also be held when an MP is deciding to stand down.

If the main purpose of an election is to elect representatives, then the second purpose is to elect a government. The UK government is not directly elected (like the US president) but is instead made up of the largest party in Parliament. It is said that whichever party has the most seats is chosen by the electorate to form a government, and is often described as the 'winner-takes-all' system. For most of the time in the UK the government is made up of only one party after the general election. In the 2010 election, a coalition government was formed between the largest party (the Conservatives) and a smaller party (the Liberal Democrats). This led many to question whether the UK had really chosen this government. Regular general elections (usually every five years) is so that the electorate can reject a government if it has underperformed.

The question now becomes, how do elections work? Well, there are many different electoral systems, and this chapter will take you through the ones used in the UK and their strengths and disadvantages.

What is an Electoral System?

An electoral system is the way in which votes are translated into seats in a parliament. In our parliamentary elections we use a system called First Past the Post, where each constituency elects one MP. The winning candidate is the one with the most votes (more on that later). However, this is by no means the only electoral system used all over the world, and a few other ones are used in the UK.

Why are there different electoral systems? The different electoral systems give different results. Some of them favour a strong, single party government, whereas others encourage coalition governments, which offer more equal representation of voters. As we go through the different systems we will also look at their relative advantages and disadvantages, and why they are used for different political systems.

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There are a number of different ways to judge electoral systems, but the criteria that electoral systems are judged are:

1. Is equal value given to different votes across the country?
2. Does the proportion of votes roughly match the proportion of seats won?
3. Is there a link between the representatives and the people they are representing?
4. Does the electoral system restrict the voter choice of candidates?
5. Can the electoral system produce a result that can lead to a government?
6. Is it possible to hold the government to account by changing your representatives?
7. Can voters understand the process of voting and who they are voting for?

First Past the Post

First Past the Post (FPTP), or **single-member simple plurality**, is the system used for general elections in the United Kingdom. Let's get a clear picture of how it works.

How First Past the Post works

1. The UK is divided up into **constituencies** that contain roughly the same number of people in each (about 70,000).
2. Voters in each constituency place a cross next to one candidate. The candidate with the highest number of votes wins. (Notice there is no particular number of votes needed to win.)
3. In the UK it limits the number of winners to one for each constituency. It is a simple system to operate, and there is no minimum number of votes the winner needs to get. There are 650 constituencies in the UK and 650 Members of Parliament representing them.
4. Because a candidate only needs to get more votes than any other candidate, it is a simple plurality system. A majority system, in contrast, requires the winner to get more than half the votes.

Advantages of FPTP

- ☑ **Strong majority governments:** It tends to produce clear winning party governments with working majorities. Only three times since World War II has a coalition government been elected, and only once has there been a coalition government.
- ☑ **Constituency link:** The system retains the link between an MP and all their constituents through single-member constituencies. MPs communicate with their constituents through meetings called 'surgeries'. Because MPs are linked to a constituency they can get a much better understanding of local issues.
- ☑ **Simple:** The system is very simple for voters and the people counting the votes. All voters have to do is tick the box of the person they most want to represent. The only counters have to do is find out who got the most votes.
- ☑ **Voter choice:** It has advantages for the elector in that it is based on voting for individuals rather than party lists. They can choose who they want to represent them, rather than the party choosing.
- ☑ **Public choose the government:** This means that under FPTP it is usual for the public to choose the government, rather than parties choosing the government through internal party processes.

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- ☑ **Fast government formation:** A new government can be formed very quickly. Under a system of proportional representation, it often takes a long time for parties to negotiate a coalition government. Under a proportional system, and in 2010–2011 it took 514 days to form a government.
- ☑ **Stops extremists:** The system tends to keep out extremist parties. They are not able to get into mainstream parties in every constituency because their support in individual constituencies is always smaller than that of the main parties, even if they are supported in many constituencies around the country.
- ☑ **Recall of MPs:** The Recall of MPs Act 2015 allows constituencies to petition a Member of Parliament who has been charged with a criminal offence. As well as this, constituents can choose to petition an MP if they do not agree with their actions.

Disadvantages of FPTP

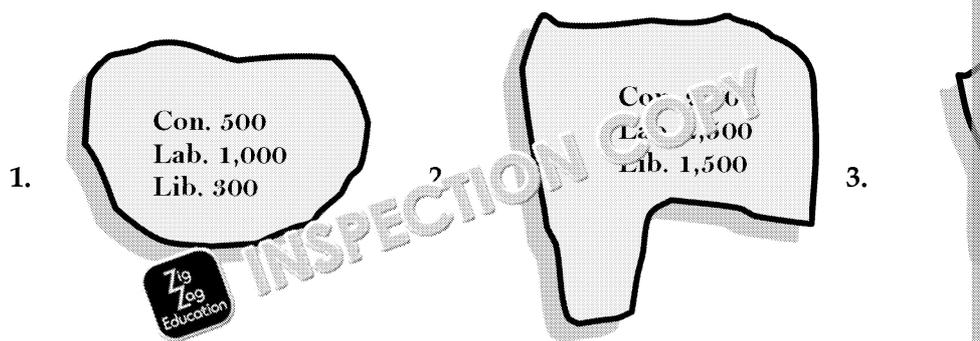
- ☑ **Disproportional results:** An often-criticised feature is the fact that the composition of the House of Commons in the Parliament often bears little relationship to the actual numbers of votes cast. In the 2024 general election, when the Labour Party won 63% of the seats for 331 MPs, the Conservative Party and smaller parties that have complained most about these features of the system. The Liberal Democrats, who in 2005 captured 22% of the votes, but only 10% of the seats. In 2015, the Scottish National Party achieved 37% of the vote and 51% of the seats (331 MPs), compared to the Conservative Party's 33% of the vote and yet only 0.15% of the seats (one MP).
- ☑ **MPs elected on a minority:** Because MPs only need more votes than all other candidates to win, most are elected with less than 50% of the local vote. In fact, the vast majority of MPs do not get over 50% of the vote in their constituency. In 2015, Sinn Féin's Eilish McDonnell in Belfast South won only 24.5% of the vote and still won the seat. In 2024, the Conservative Party's winning share of the vote in a UK election, and McDonnell won the seat with only 24.5% of the vote and still won the seat with 51% of the vote in his constituency by voting for someone else.
- ☑ **Governments elected on a minority:** No government since 1929 has won a majority of the popular vote. Even in the Labour's landslide in 2024, they only won 34% of the vote.
- ☑ **Unequal value of votes:** Votes are not equally valuable under FPTP. In 2024, the Conservative Party's 800,000 votes per seat won (five seats), and the Greens 450,000 (four seats) and the Liberal Democrats 23,000 (411 seats). The way the votes are distributed across constituencies means that the value of a total number of votes is not equal.
- ☑ **Restricts voter choice:** Under First Past the Post, many votes are effectively wasted. The candidate with the most votes wins. This means votes for smaller parties are often wasted, discouraging people from voting for who they truly support. Instead, voters may vote strategically, backing a candidate they think can realistically win, just to block a rival. Resultantly, the system limits genuine choice and distorts the link between votes and election outcomes.
- ☑ **Restricts debate:** Because FPTP makes it harder for smaller parties to be elected, it limits the debate in Parliament to effectively only the mainstream parties. This can lead to a lack of democratic competition. In 2024, 14 parties were elected to seats in Parliament, but only 10 were being officially registered in the UK.
- ☑ **Geography matters:** While in a FPTP system the vast majority of constituencies have a similar number of voters, at a national level there are large differences: in Northern Ireland there are 21,000 voters per seat and in Na h-Eileanan Siar (the Western Isles of Scotland) there are 21,000 voters per seat. These discrepancies are more of an issue with the way constituencies are drawn and not with FPTP itself, but they do show how some MPs get elected with a large majority of the vote. It is also the case that in a safe seat, voters who do not support the winning candidate have no impact in the election.

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This diagram will help you understand the way First Past the Post works and how parties that don't have their votes concentrated in particular constituencies

Three imaginary constituencies



In **constituency 1**, Labour won and, therefore, claimed a seat in Parliament. In **constituency 2**, the Conservatives won and claimed another seat in Parliament. In **constituency 3**, Labour won and claimed a seat in Parliament. Labour have **two seats**, Conservatives **one seat**, and Liberal Democrats **no seats**. The **number of votes** won by each party. Labour have 4,500, Conservatives have 4,500, and Liberal Democrats have 300. If those Lib Dem votes had been concentrated in constituency 1, they would have won a second seat.

Talking Point

Based on the benefits and drawbacks of FPTP, do you think it is the best system for Westminster elections?

Looking at Other Voting Systems Used in the UK

Now we'll look at other voting systems used in the UK. The secret is to take a look at the different types of possible voting systems, and you've only got to know so much about them to understand them. Additional Member Systems (AMS), the Single Transferable Vote (STV) and Supplementary Vote.

Supplementary Vote

Supplementary Vote was previously used for a number of different elections to elect the mayor of London, other elected mayors and the Police and Crime Commissioners. The Electoral Act 2022 discontinued use of SV in English elections, to be replaced by FPTP.

It is still useful to understand SV, however. It is a preferential system, but voters are limited to only a first and second preference. SV can only be used in single-member constituencies.

Vote once in the 1ST column for your preferred candidate.
Vote up to once in the 2ND column for your second preference.

	Zack Bader
	Kemi Farag
	Ed Starmey
	Nigel Dave

An imagined ballot paper

How SV works

- Voters have two choices – a first preference and a second preference.
- Any candidate with over 50% of the vote in the first preferences wins the seat. If no candidate gets over 50% of the first preferences, the top two candidates are kept in the race, and all the other candidates are dropped.
- There is a second count, with all the second preferences of the losing candidates being added to the first preferences of the remaining candidates. Whichever of the two remaining candidates ends up with more votes wins the seat. If no candidate necessarily have to get 50% of first preferences, they only have to get more second preferences than the other remaining candidate.

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Advantages of SV

- ☑ **Fewer wasted votes:** The SV system means that fewer voters will be compared to FPTP. In the 2016 London mayoral election, Sadiq Khan won only 44.2% of the vote, but 56.8% when second preference votes were counted. This indicated that more votes were taken into account than would have been under FPTP.
- ☑ **Broad support needed:** Under SV the candidates need to make sure they appeal to as many people as possible; they must try to appeal to more voters than the other candidates winning with a small level of support, but it does not mean that all candidates as in the second round all second preference votes for candidates other than the top two remaining candidates are discounted. In this way it promotes centrist politics.
- ☑ **Simple:** Voters simply choose their preferred candidate and their second preference. It is not confusing for voters and does not present a challenge to count.
- ☑ **Constituency link:** Under SV the candidates are linked to their constituencies. They are elected from a single geographical location.
- ☑ **More choice:** Unlike FPTP, under SV voters can pick their favourite candidate as first preference or reserve or tactical candidate second.



Disadvantages of SV

- ☑ **Not very proportional.** In the UK, SV was only ever used to elect single representatives (rather than to make up parliaments) so the fact it is not strictly proportional doesn't really matter. However, the process of having a single winner means that many voters' preferences will always be discounted, and only the majority will have representation.
- ☑ **Voters need to vote tactically.** In order to know whether their second preference will be counted, voters need to have some idea of who the top two candidates are.
- ☑ **No majority required:** Candidates do not need an absolute majority. They need to get more support than the other remaining candidate in the second round.

The table below gives an example of how SV works. In the first round, no candidate has a majority. All candidates except for the top two were eliminated, and the second round was held. With all of those counted, Sadiq Khan had more, and he won the mayoral election.

Party	Candidate	1st Round	%	Transferable
Labour	Sadiq Khan	1,148,716	44.20%	161,235
Conservative	Zac Goldsmith	909,755	35.00%	84,888
Green	Siân Berry	150,673	5.80%	
Liberal Democrat	Caroline Pidgeon	120,005	4.60%	
UKIP	Peter Whittle	94,377	3.60%	
Women's Equality	Sophie Walker	57,055	2.00%	
Respect	George Galloway	37,007	1.40%	
Britain First	Mark Golding	31,372	1.20%	
CIS	Lee Harris	20,537	0.80%	
BNP	David Furness	13,325	0.50%	
Independent	Prince Zylinski	13,202	0.50%	
One Love	Ankit Love	4,941	0.20%	

London Mayoral Election 2016, under SV

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Party List

Party List is the system used for the proportional 'top-up' seats in the Scottish Parliament and for the Welsh Parliament (Senedd) elections from 2026. This system was used for the European Parliament in 1999. Lists can be national, as in the 1999 European elections. This is often seen as the most proportional system possible, with votes directly translated into seats.

How the Party List Works

1. Voters choose from a list of candidates drawn up by the party. The percentage of votes for each party is calculated and worked out to match the number of seats given to that party.
2. The list can be either 'open' or 'closed'. On open lists, voters choose the party candidates they want, and on closed lists they simply vote for a party and the winning candidates are chosen for them.
3. The votes are counted and seats are apportioned using the D'Hondt method. Once all the votes have been counted, quotients are calculated for each party using this formula:

$$\text{Quotient} = \frac{\text{The total number of votes received by the party}}{\text{The number of seats that have been allocated to the party}}$$

This is applied until all the seats have been allocated. The D'Hondt method is used for the seats in the Northern Ireland *executive* (not the assembly) for power-sharing.

4. The seats won by each party will closely match their proportion of votes. The Party List system is the most proportional possible.
5. In some PR systems a party may have a threshold of a vote before they are eligible to be awarded to extremists.

Advantages of Party List

- ☑ **Proportional:** The proportion of seats won closely matches the votes cast in any electoral system.
- ☑ **Fair:** The system does not favour any one party or candidate, and seats are distributed as fairly as possible.
- ☑ **Choice:** A voter can choose any party without fear of their vote being wasted. Even marginal parties may still not get any seats.
- ☑ **Relatively simple:** In a closed Party List system, all voters have to do is vote for their preferred party.

Disadvantages of Party List

- ☑ **Constituency link:** There is no link between representatives and any local area.
- ☑ **Choice:** In a closed list system, it is the party which decides which individuals are the representatives. This effectively removes choice from the voter and has the potential to be undemocratic.
- ☑ **Government formation:** It is very difficult for majority governments to be formed in Party List systems. Most of the time coalition governments will be formed. This puts the formation of governments in the hands of the party leaders rather than the voters.
- ☑ **Party leaders gaining strength:** The party leaders become more important in the eyes of voters and in forming governments.
- ☑ **Complications:** Learning all the candidates in order to choose them in a closed list system is difficult. The way in which votes are converted into seats is also fairly complicated. The method being simple in its results, but difficult in its methodology.

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Additional Member System (AMS)

AMS has been used in the elections for the Scottish Parliament, the Welsh Parliament (replaced by a closed party list system for the 2026 elections), and the Greater London Assembly. The Additional Member System is a mixture of FPTP and the Party List system. It is known as a 'mixed' system because it has features of both proportional and majoritarian systems. AMS is more proportional than FPTP, but less so than PR. It is likely to result in coalitions forming, as we have seen in Wales and Scotland in the evolution. Although AMS may seem complicated, it is really just FPTP with some additional representatives chosen through a party list.



The Scottish Parliament

How the Additional Member System Works

1. Each voter gets two votes. The first is to vote for a constituency candidate with most votes in a constituency wins.
2. The second vote is for a party list. These votes are distributed to the party in proportion to the percentage of votes won in a number of giant electoral regions, each with several constituencies.
3. The parliament is made up of some representatives from constituencies and some from party lists. AMS systems usually have about two thirds of the parliament elected through party lists.
4. The Scottish Parliament has 129 MSPs in total. 73 represent individual constituencies and 56 are made up from votes for regional party lists across eight regions, each with several constituencies.

Advantages of AMS

- ✓ **More proportional:** Because AMS is partly elected by a party list it leads to more proportional results. The proportion of votes cast more closely matches the seats won.
- ✓ **Constituency link:** Every constituency still has a representative who is responsible to local interests.
- ✓ **Fewer wasted votes:** Because every voter gets one vote for a party list, every voter's interests will be represented in some way, even if their party does not win in their constituency.
- ✓ **Representation for smaller parties:** The party lists give an opportunity for smaller parties to gain representation in a parliament. The Scottish Parliament after the 2021 election had 56 seats represented across their 129 seats, each with four or more seats. The only party to gain a significant number of votes without any seats was the Alba Party, which got 1.7% of the votes but no seats; however, even under a purely proportional system they would only have got around two. Thus, the system is fairer to smaller parties than FPTP, but still not completely proportional.
- ✓ **Relatively simple:** The voter only needs to vote twice, once for their preferred constituency candidate and once for their preferred party. It is, therefore, relatively easy for voters to understand compared to some other systems.
- ✓ **Relatively strong government:** Although AMS often returns coalition governments, it can return majority governments in the event of high popularity for one party. This happened in the 2011 election in the Scottish Parliament when the SNP won 69 seats.

Vote for one candidate on this side

<input type="checkbox"/>	Kemi Starmer
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Nigel Denyer
<input type="checkbox"/>	Keir Swinney
<input type="checkbox"/>	Carla Farage
<input type="checkbox"/>	John Badenoch

A ballot paper

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Disadvantages of AMS

- ☒ **Overlapping responsibilities:** As every voter has two representatives, confusion about who they should go to in order to voice their concerns may be at odds over their responsibilities.
- ☒ **Increased party power:** Political parties decide who goes on the party list over who gets elected. It would also be the leaders of the political party in coalition in the likely event of no party winning a majority.
- ☒ **Unstable government:** As is the case with most proportional systems, coalitions, meaning that governments are unlikely to be as stable or as long as their programme. Coalitions can also lead to a crisis of legitimacy as not authorised by the electorate.
- ☒ **Allow extremists to get seats:** Unless there is a minimum threshold of votes needed to get on the party list (in Scotland there is no threshold, but in the London Assembly which was denied seats to the BNP), then extremists can get political representation.
- ☒ **Retains safe seats:** The proportion of representatives elected under FPTP on many of the same issues as FPTP has as a system. The problem of safe seats and geography are not eliminated by AMS.
- ☒ **Complicated counting:** Because the D'Hondt method is used to count votes, there can be some unexpected results. The Party List 'tops up' the total seats to a constituency seats won. This is how the SNP won 40% of the Party List seats, whereas the Conservatives won 23% and got 24 Party List seats.
- ☒ **Lack of choice:** The Party List candidates are decided by the party rather than voters.

Party	Constituency			Regional	
	Votes	%	Seats	Votes	%
Scottish National Party	1,291,204	47.5	52	1,094,374	40.0
Conservative	637,131	21.9	5	637,131	23.0
Labour	584,392	21.6	2	485,819	17.5
Green	34,990	1.3	0	220,324	8.0
Liberal Democrats	187,816	6.9	4	137,151	5.0
Alba				44,913	1.6
Others	15,833	0.6	0	93,071	3.4
Total	2,706,761	100.0	73	2,712,783	100.0

Results of the 2021 Scottish Parliament elections.

Talking Point



Do you think the Additional Member System is a compromise?

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Single Transferable Vote (STV)

Single Transferable Vote is a system that combines proportionality with a constituency link by having a number of different representatives elected per constituency. Large areas, therefore, elect a small group of representatives to represent them, and these representatives will reflect the diversity of political opinions in an area. STV is used for electing representatives to the Northern Ireland Assembly (MLAs – Members of the Legislative Assembly). In NI there are 18 constituencies each electing five MLAs.

How the Single Transferable Vote system works

1. Voters rank their candidates in order of preference, with the knowledge of how many candidates will be elected. Voters can vote for as many or as few candidates as they wish.
2. A quota is worked out to decide how many votes candidates need to get elected. If a candidate reaches the minimum quota, then the bottom candidate is eliminated and second preference votes are transferred.
3. This is repeated until the right number of candidates go through to fill the constituency. This usually means large constituencies with several winners.
4. If a candidate gets more votes than necessary, then the surplus votes are distributed to the next choice candidates on his/her papers. The main formula for working out the 'droop' formula and is:

$$\frac{\text{Votes}}{\text{Seats} + 1} + 1$$

The Advantages of STV

- ☑ **STV is a proportional system:** In the NI Assembly elections in 2022, the number of seats won by each party closely matched very closely the number of first preference votes each party won. This shows that STV closely reflects the percentages of the first preference votes won by each party.
- ☑ **STV has a link to constituencies:** In fact, because voters will have a direct link to their constituency representing different viewpoints, they can approach the one that they believe represents them best.
- ☑ **High voter choice:** Voters get to choose who to vote for. They are not limited to one candidate per party, or just a party; they get choice between candidates and parties, and which candidates within a party to vote for.
- ☑ **Power-sharing:** Because STV is likely to lead to no single party winning, it can help to create a consensus as parties are forced to work together in order to get anything done. This is the case between nationalists and unionists in Northern Ireland.
- ☑ **Voters choose their representatives:** Parties can stand multiple candidates and voters can choose who will be elected, as opposed to other proportional systems (like party list) where voters choose a party to vote for and the party chooses who to elect.
- ☑ **Representation of polarised communities:** Because it allows multiple representatives to be elected from a single constituency, STV is good for representing both sides in a politically divided constituency like the one in Northern Ireland. Many constituencies in the NI Assembly have nationalist representatives.



Arlene Foster and
Deputy First Minister

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- ☑ **STV reduces the need for tactical voting:** Because a number of different parties are able to win, every voter should be able to have at least some representation. There is no incentive for negative campaigning. It is not a winner-takes-all system, so it ensures the other parties lose in order for them to win.

Party	Percentage of First Preference Votes	Percentage of Seats
Sinn Féin	29.0	
Democratic Unionist Party	21.3	
Alliance Party of Northern Ireland	13.5	
Ulster Unionist Party	11.2	
Social Democratic and Labour Party	9.1	
Traditional Unionist Voice	7.6	
People Before Profit	1.1	
Green Party	1.9	
Others (including Independents)	5.2	

Total

The Disadvantages of STV

- ☑ **Power-sharing governments can be prone to deadlock:** In Northern Ireland, there was a period of conflict within the Assembly. The election for the Northern Ireland Assembly in 2016 saw Sinn Féin (who advocate Irish unification) become the largest party for the first time. However, the pro-UK DUP refused to nominate a deputy first minister in protest over post-Brexit trade arrangements, specifically the Northern Ireland Protocol. As a result, no Executive could be formed, and devolved government was suspended. From May 2022 until February 2024, Northern Ireland was without a functioning government or legislature for nearly two years of political deadlock. From 2002 to 2007 the Northern Ireland Executive was suspended for almost five years. However, it should be noted that the situation in Northern Ireland is unusual as power sharing between the two largest parties is mandated as part of the peace process, and so mistrust and suspension of the Assembly cannot be attributed entirely to the electoral system.
- ☑ **Could be confusing for voters:** In large multi-member constituencies, the ballot paper can become confusing for voters. The counting of votes is also complex, meaning that voters may not fully understand the system under which they are voting. It is noted that voters sometimes simply list their preferences in the order they appear on the ballot paper. This is known as 'Donkey Voting'.
- ☑ **Can lead to very large constituencies:** This might mean that voters do not have a direct relationship with their representatives.
- ☑ **Can lead to party fragmentation:** Because there is a choice for voters between different parties from the same party, STV can lead to party fragmentation, with voters opposing one another and being internally divided.

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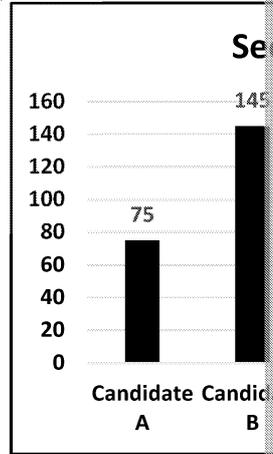
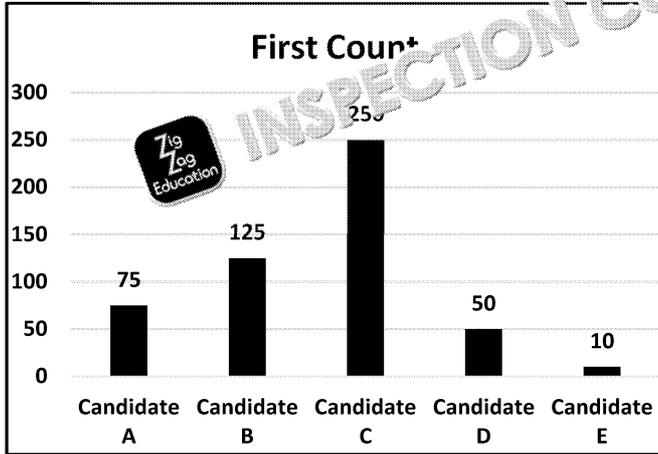


Talking Point — the preferred system of the Electoral Reform Society. Do you think it should be used for Westminster elections?

An Example of STV in Action

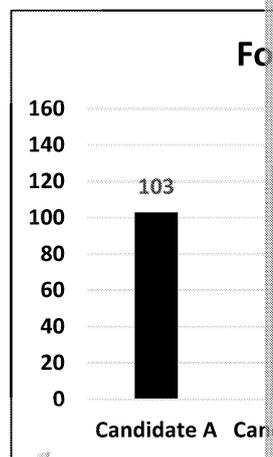
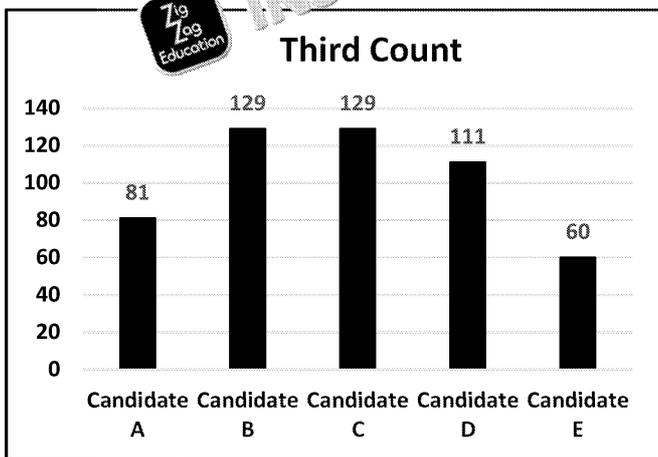
We will now work through an example of STV in order to help explain how it works. In this example, there are three seats available, and five candidates running for the seats. The total vote cast is 510.

Therefore, the quota is: $\frac{510}{3+1} + 1 = 128.5$ (129)



As we can see, in the first count only one candidate got above the quota. So, Candidate C wins the first seat. Candidate C's surplus votes (all votes over the quota needed) are transferred to the second preferences.

After Candidate C's surplus votes are transferred, Candidate B has won the second seat. Candidate A has also won the second seat. Candidate A must be a third count. Candidate D has not won over the quota. Candidate E has not won over the quota. Candidate D's surplus votes are transferred.



After Candidate B's surplus votes have been reapportioned, we can see that there is still no winner who has won over the quota in the third round. In the fourth round, nobody gets over the quota. The lowest performing candidate is eliminated. In this case, that will be Candidate E, and their votes will be reapportioned according to their preferences.

Candidate D has not won over the quota. Candidate D's surplus votes are transferred. Candidate D has not won over the quota. Candidate D's surplus votes are transferred. Now all three seats have been filled. The counting can stop.

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Other Electoral Systems

Alternative Vote (AV)

This was the system that was the subject of a referendum in May 2011, although voters decided by a big majority to keep FPTP. 67.9% of voters voted against the system on a turnout of 42%. Under AV, each voter marks several choices in order of preference. Anyone with more than 50% of first preference votes wins. If not, the second choices of the candidate with least first preferences are redistributed and a second round takes place. This goes on, eliminating candidates with fewer votes, and redistributing the second preferences until someone gets 50% plus 1. In some versions, third and lower preferences were used if the first and second candidates have been eliminated. This system is used for electing the Australian House of Representatives. The system has many of the same benefits and issues as SV, but tends to mean that a higher number of votes are carried over into the second, third and subsequent rounds because not only major party candidates but also minor party candidates are discounted after the first vote.

Second Ballot

A candidate needs 50% of the vote to get through. If there is no winner, there is a second ballot, and there is a second vote. The winner only has to get 50% of the vote in the second ballot. He or she will then have at least 50%. This is the system used for electing the French president, where a second vote takes place two weeks after the first. In quite volatile first rounds, but a moderate candidate usually wins in the second round, as when moderate Macron beat the more radical right-wing candidate, Le Pen.

Talking Point

The Liberal Democrats supported changing to AV in 2011. Which party did not support the change?



Comparing FPTP to Other Systems around the UK

Since the Labour Party came to power in 1997, there have been major changes to electoral systems in the UK. Most elections in the UK had been conducted using the FPTP system, but in 1999 the elections for the Scottish Parliament and Welsh Parliament took place, and the elections for the European Parliament that took place in June 1999. In the first two examples, a version of the **Additional Member System** was introduced. In Scotland 73 single-member constituencies under FPTP, and was 'topped up' with 13 additional seats from party regional lists. For Wales, the corresponding balance was 40 seats under FPTP and 13 additional seats under the list system. The same system was used in Scotland following devolution elections held in 2003, 2007 and 2011, producing a close result in 2003 and 2007, and clear wins in 2011, 2016 and 2021.

The Welsh Parliament (Senedd in Welsh) opted to employ a 'closed list' system for the 2026 devolved general election, aiming to improve the proportionality of the elections. In using the Additional Member System with a single, fully proportional list of Members of the Senedd, voters cast a single vote for a political party or an individual candidate, rather than voting separately for a constituency representative and a regional list. The system uses multi-member constituencies, each electing six Members of the Senedd using the Additional Member System.

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The European elections in June 1999 were conducted for the first time using **Regional List** system, which produced multi-member constituencies as the country was divided up into new regions to elect the MPs. In addition to these European contests for the election of the Mayor of London and the Greater London Authority in 2000, 2004, 2008 and 2012 were conducted through Supplementary Voting and the Additional Member System respectively. In 2000, this managed to produce a non-party winner in Ken Livingstone.

STV is used for the Northern Ireland Assembly, for local elections in Scotland and for the election of the leader of the Liberal Democrats.

Both the Liberal Democrats and Greens continue to call for change to the voting system. In their 2010 manifestos, the Liberal Democrats called for the STV system to be used for general elections, while the Greens supported changing all voting systems in the UK to proportional representation.

Electoral systems around Britain

We've already said a lot about voting systems and alternatives to First Past the Post. We've also looked at the strengths and weaknesses of some of these. We've shown that some have been introduced into the UK for elections to the Scottish Parliament, Scottish local councils, Northern Ireland assemblies, European elections, and the elections for the Mayor of London and the London Mayor. Local elections and general elections have not yet been replaced. The latter are a cause of argument at present. You can use your knowledge of the theoretical advantages and disadvantages, but you're going to need to know more about this properly.

In 1998, the Jenkins Report had proposed that a hybrid system called AV+ be used in Westminster. That would mean that voters would cast two votes, one for a candidate and another for a party chosen from an open list of candidates. Most of the MPs would be elected in single-member constituencies under the AV system, and the rest (about 15–20%) would be elected on party lists. The Labour Government was not enthusiastic about following this and the Conservatives were against change altogether. By August 2000, Jenkins himself said that

However, in 2011 the UK electorate was asked in a referendum to decide whether the First Past the Post system should be replaced by the AV system to elect MPs to the House of Commons. The Liberal Democrats were in favour of reform and they were able to insist on a referendum being held as a condition of their joining a coalition government in 2010. Their coalition partners, the Conservatives, were against the voting system and their campaigning for a No vote helped ensure the proposal was rejected.

Talking Point

Why are political parties so divided over the issue of electoral reform?

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FPTP case study: The 2015 general election

One election that resulted in heavy criticism for the FPTP system was that considered by many reformers to be one of the most unrepresentative elections in British history.

The campaign started officially following the dissolution of Parliament on 5 May 2015. As with previous elections, this started the publication of a steady stream of opinion polls indicating voting intentions. According to the polls there was a clear intention throughout the six-week election campaign. The Conservatives were in the popular vote, by a margin enough to indicate they would end up with a majority. This is because the total electorate in each constituency varies and Labour's Conservative majority, having many more safe seats in the smaller constituencies, needed fewer votes to win, say, 100 seats, is fewer for Labour than for the Conservatives. The polls suggested, however, that neither of the two parties was heading for a coalition government was on the cards.

All this prompted the media to speculate about the make-up of the next government. Debates with party leaders were often dominated by questions about which other party they would ally with. David Cameron and Ed Miliband both refused to get into a public debate about fighting for a majority and were confident of being successful. Leaders of other parties were open to the discussion. Nick Clegg indicated they were open to joining a coalition government. It had to be seen which of the two main parties had the greater number of seats. The Conservatives, with the Conservatives if UKIP were also to be involved. Other senior figures in the Labour Party seemed to suggest they were closer to Labour on policy terms, particularly on the economy. Nigel Farage, the UKIP leader, was prepared to do a deal with the Labour Party. Nicola Sturgeon, the SNP leader, called for an understanding with Labour but rejected any such possibility, saying he would not have a Labour government. An understanding with the SNP did, however, open up the possibility of a Labour government.

As results came in it became increasingly clear that the Conservative Party would win the seats and David Cameron would stay as prime minister, but this time a Conservative administration.

The minor parties were experiencing mixed fortunes at the hands of the people. The Democrats were seeing their vote squeezed from all sides and looked certain to lose their seats, although not the 49 they actually did. The Greens and UKIP were up and down, while they had the chance to win one or two extra seats, the FPTP election prevented them from getting more. The main interest was which of the main parties they would ally with and how this would play out in the many Conservative/Labour marginal constituencies. Caroline Lucas retained her seat, but she remained the Greens' only MP. UKIP won in a by-election but lost the other, while Nigel Farage and all the other UKIP MPs were elected despite their party taking 2.1% of the national vote.

In Scotland the SNP seemed as if they were going to do well, but it was only at the end of the campaign that the polls suggested they were going to do serious damage to the Labour Democrats. On election day they took 40 seats from Labour and 10 from the Tories. They took 56 of the 59 Scottish seats on 50% of the vote. The Tories, Labour and UKIP were left with one MP each in Scotland despite being supported by the bulk of the

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Here was a demonstration of how the FPTP voting system can result in a majority of overall votes, but this time it was the Conservative and Labour parties who

In Scotland FPTP resulted in massive overrepresentation of the Scottish National Party regional support (and it is geographical support that matters in FPTP) meaning 13 seats despite not having many votes nationally. The table below demonstrates

In the last few days before polling day the public's opinion began leaning towards Labour. It was more likely to end up as a minority government, either leading a minority Labour coalition with the Liberal Democrats with possible SNP backing. This view was based on the closeness of the polls, with polling in the Conservative/Labour margin being very tight. Miliband's campaign was doing better and highlighting the difficulties that David Cameron was putting a coalition together. The general dislike of coalition governments became a major theme in the 2015 election campaign, when the Conservatives warned that if they did not win they would go into coalition with the SNP. It is one of the quirks of FPTP that the votes cast would result in seats as in most other systems they most likely would have.

Party	Seats	% of Total Seats	Votes	% of Total Votes
Conservative Party	330	50.8	11,299,609	37.0
Labour	232	35.7	9,347,273	30.0
SNP	56	8.6	4,154,436	13.4
Liberal Democrats	8	1.2	2,415,916	7.8
Democratic Unionist Party	6	0.9	184,260	0.6
Sinn Féin	4	0.6	176,232	0.6
Plaid Cymru	3	0.5	181,704	0.6
Social Democratic and Labour Party	2	0.3	99,809	0.3
Ulster Unionist Party	1	0.2	114,935	0.4
UKIP	1	0.2	3,881,099	12.5
Green Party	1	0.2	1,157,630	3.7

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Talking Point

Do you think the 2015 election suggests that electoral reform is needed? FPTP is supposed to create majorities in Parliament.



Why have there been Calls for Change?

'I have become convinced of the need for electoral reform in Britain.' Tony Blair

1. In recent years there has been increased concern about the effects of FPTP on our political system. Until 2010 many argued that it seemed to be destroying accountability by producing governments with such large majorities in Parliament that it was increasingly unable to provide effective scrutiny of opposition. Laws were being passed by rubber-stamped in the face of powerful governments driving their bills through Parliament, using the support of party backbenchers.
2. The growth of third parties, especially from the 1980s, has highlighted the apparent unfairness of the results. Although relatively successful in elections that use different voting systems, smaller parties have had little success in gaining seats in Parliament.
3. The 1997 Labour manifesto had stated 'We are committed to a referendum on the voting system for the House of Commons', but the commitment was not kept, despite the introduction of several new systems of voting for various other elections. FPTP remained the voting system for Westminster and the use of systems such as AMS and the list system in other elections sharply reduced.
4. The Jenkins Report had come up with a new voting system called AV+ (Alternative Vote and FPTP) for Westminster Elections, but the report was not used despite Blair at the time describing it as 'well-argued and powerful'. AV was the subject of a referendum in 2011 but voters chose to keep the FPTP system as a condition of the Liberal Democrats forming a coalition government with the Conservatives. Cameron's party, however, were against AV and campaigned for FPTP.
5. In addition to the unfair distribution of seats to votes, it was known to be the case that the popular vote and the majority of seats in the Commons, as has been the case since 1979 and 1997.
6. Current electoral rules allow bigger parties to spend up to £19.5 million on advertising, not counting what each of the candidates can spend. Under the current system, it is worth smaller parties trying to compete with those amounts, knowing that they can win many seats if their support is thinly scattered across different constituencies.
7. The difficulties of FPTP were highlighted in the general election of 2005, when Blair's Government came to power for a third term with the support of only 35% of the votes. The Labour Party got just over 35% of the vote, but, given that only 50% of the electorate actually turned out, this meant that the party formed a government with only 17.5% of the total possible vote. There were serious doubts about whether government would represent the people any more, many of them coming from MPs and cabinet members of the Labour Party itself. The hung parliament produced in 2010 convinced some that FPTP would not always necessarily produce a strong government with a workable majority.
8. A further cause for concern has been that in recent elections has been that the number of seats won has been above the historical average. It has been argued that too many similarities between the current system and the realisation that FPTP does not allow smaller parties gaining any real influence.
9. The 2010 general election also showed how FPTP can distort representation depending upon how concentrated their support is. UKIP, with nearly 3 million votes and just one MP in the House of Commons, whereas the SNP, with a total of 1.6 million votes, ended up with 56 MPs. Clearly the SNP were only standing in Scotland, but the seats in that country on the basis of obtaining 50% of the total vote there. The Liberal Democrats, who won seats across the UK, obtained 12.5% of the total vote but just 0.2% of the seats.

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Comparing FPTP and STV

Perhaps the best way to understand the differences between two electoral systems is to compare the results that they create. We will compare FPTP and STV as they are used in Stormont elections respectively. FPTP and STV are probably the most radical electoral systems used in the UK and produce very different results.

Is equal value given to different votes across the country?

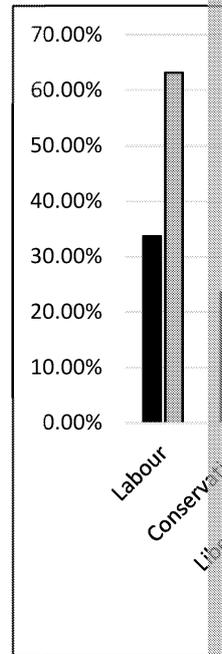
Under FPTP, where votes are received in a 'winner-takes-all' manner have little say in who will be elected. If votes are spread out across the country the party that wins a large number of votes can get no representation and a party that gets few votes, but concentrated in one area, can win seats. This was the position with UKIP and the SNP at the 2015 general election where UKIP got nearly 4 million votes and only one seat, whereas the SNP got 1.3 million votes and 56 seats.

STV gives more equal value to votes. Because multiple representatives are elected in each constituency there are no 'safe seats'. Candidates who vote for losing candidates have the chance that there is less chance that they will be completely discounted than under FPTP. Because of the more equal valuing of votes that under STV there is no need for tactical voting. There are some small areas of unequal value of votes, such as if the turnout in different constituencies varies, but these situations are not often a problem. Closely related to the idea of equal valuing of votes is the idea of proportionality.

Does the proportion of votes roughly match the proportion of seats won?

Under FPTP the results can be very disproportionate, often favouring the two largest parties in less representation for smaller parties. The prior example of UKIP and the SNP at the 2015 general election is a good example of this. The disproportionality of the system can be to minor parties. On the other end of the spectrum, Labour and the Conservatives tend to be overrepresented. In 2005 Labour won only 35.2% of the vote and 55.1% of the seats. In 2017, when the two largest parties won over 80% of the vote, the results were less disproportionate, because FPTP favours a two-party system.

In the 2024 general election, FPTP favoured Labour, who won a much higher share of seats in Parliament relative to their vote share. In contrast, Reform UK and Greens lost out.



Proportionality of seats won

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Is there a link between the representative and the people they are representing?
 In FPTP every constituency gets one MP, and that MP is the one who receives the most votes. This means that every MP has a strong local link. However, there are some flaws. Some constituencies do not have a strong local link, but people who disagree with their one MP might be unable to turn to any other representative. As well as this, FPTP encourages the creation of marginal seats, meaning that constituency interests can be ignored in a 'safe seat'.

There is also a constituency link under STV. Every voter is represented by a different member of the party they identify with. On the other hand, voters are unsure of who to vote for, and the large size of the multi-member constituencies means that the local link is often lost, because they will often be representing large geographic areas.

Does the electoral system maximise voter choice of candidates?

Under FPTP, voters are usually given the choice of only one member of each party in their constituency. They can, therefore, only choose out of a choice made up of only one member of each party. It would not be strategically sound for parties to offer multiple candidates as they would inevitably be taking votes from one another. In some constituencies huge numbers of different parties can run, but voters must choose one they believe has a realistic chance of winning or their votes will not be effective. There can be a very large number of parties competing under FPTP. The table below shows all of the parties who stood against Rishi Sunak in Richmond and Northallerton in the 2024 election. Note that, despite the competition, his majority meant that all choices other than Conservative were essentially wasted votes.

	Candidate	
Conservative	Rishi Sunak (winner)	
Labour	Tom Wilson	
Reform UK	Lee Taylor	
Liberal Democrats	Daniel Callaghan	
Green	Kevin Foster	
Count Binface Party	Count Binface	
Independent	Niko Omilana	
Independent	Rio Goldhammer	
Yorkshire	Howling Laud Hope	
Monster Raving Loony	Sir Archibald Stanton	
Workers Party	Louise Dickens	
Independent	Angie Champion	
Independent	Jason Bennett	

Under STV, the choice of candidates is greater than under FPTP. Often multiple parties will run, meaning that voters can choose not only between, but also between multiple parties. Because multiple members are elected per constituency, it is less likely that votes are wasted, meaning that voters do not have to vote in order to make sure their votes are consistently seen as one of the systems that maximises voter choice.

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Can the electoral system produce a result that can lead to a government?

This is seen by many as one of the most important benefits of FPTP. Minor governments are rare under FPTP, and the hung parliaments of 2010 and 2017 are atypical of the three hung parliaments after elections in the UK since 1929. Because FPTP produces single-party governments it is often seen as giving a clear mandate to govern, and providing a clear majority of seats in Parliament it needs to govern effectively.

STV, on the other hand, tends to produce coalition governments. In the NI Assembly the Good Friday Agreement (and the St Andrews agreement) requires the first minister and the deputy first minister to be from different parties as part of the process of cross-community voting. Because STV is more likely to produce coalition governments under most circumstances.



Talking Point



What do you think the most important criteria are when judging an electoral system?

Is it possible to hold the government to account by changing your representative?

This is an important question for any electoral system. FPTP offers a fairly simple system, and if enough voters change their mind then it is likely that the incumbent will be elected. The electorate (at least those in marginal constituencies) are able to elect a government and stop them from governing. The exceptions to this are rare under STV.

Under STV, this might be more difficult. Because coalitions are made by parties, they can include parties that the electorate has given very little support to, including the governing party, even if they have a great deal of support.

Overall, both electoral systems allow for changes in government and representation (at the local level). This is essential for a democracy, so it's a good thing that both



Can voters understand the process of voting and who they are voting for?

FPTP is a very simple system. Voters get only one vote, and they give it to the candidate they think will win. The candidate with the most votes wins the single seat that is available. This is easy for voters and counters. On the other hand, learning how to use your vote is no easy task, and has led to many websites popping up that use algorithms to tell you who could most effectively vote for.

STV is a more complicated system, both for voters and counters. There are many candidates, and the votes can take a long time to count. However, in principle it is simpler for the voter only has to decide their order of preference for candidates. Voters are often confused by ensuring that they are using their votes effectively, because STV ensures that

Talking Point



Now we have compared the two systems, which electoral system do you think is better: FPTP or STV?

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Unit 3.2: Referendums and How They Work

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Be able to explain what a referendum is and in what circumstances one is held
- ✓ Understand the increased use of referendums since the 1990s
- ✓ Know the impact referendums have had on British politics
- ✓ Know the case for and against the use of referendums in a representative democracy



Referendum	A public vote taken on a single political issue
Direct Democracy	A form of democracy in which the public are consulted directly rather than through their representatives. Referendums are a mechanism of direct democracy.
Initiative	A petition that can force a referendum if it gets enough signatures. In some circumstances that allow for initiatives in the UK.
Turnout	The proportion of the electorate that votes in an election or referendum, expressed as a percentage of the number of registered voters.

What is a Referendum?

In recent years referendums have become an important part of UK politics. To understand this, we have to know both what a referendum is, and why one is held. A referendum is a public vote on a single political issue. Referendums are generally held on issues of particular political significance, such as a major change to the constitution.

Who can vote in a referendum in the UK is decided by the government at the time. For example, on Scottish independence, only those in Scotland could vote. When the UK was exiting the EU, the whole of the UK was allowed to vote (but not European citizens living in the UK). In other parts of the world, referendums often have a minimum required turnout, or need to reach a certain percentage of the vote in order for the motion to pass (e.g. 60%). Luckily for us students of UK politics, we usually do not have a minimum turnout, and motions are typically adopted if a majority of the population votes in favour.

In the UK a referendum is non-binding. It is up to Parliament to decide what to do with the results of a referendum; referendums have no formal constitutional power (unlike the US, where parliamentary sovereignty is absolute). Referendums are held when a government and Parliament agree that it is necessary. There is no situation in the UK in which a referendum is required. Constitutional changes have been decided with referendums. Parliament has the power to call a referendum.

Referendums are a type of **direct democracy**. They are a way for the public to have a say in the governance of the country without the need for representatives as intermediaries. However, because referendums are non-binding, they all need to be passed by Parliament before they can be implemented. Even if they are successful they are implemented by the government (although they are often implemented by the public).

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In some democracies there are ways for the public to call for a referendum. Initiatives expand the powers of the public relative to their representatives. In some countries, citizens can demand a referendum if they get a petition with over 50,000 signatures. In others, a referendum is required if a requirements is met. There is no equivalent to the initiative system for national referendums in the UK.

Although referendums have no specific power under UK law, they are politically significant. If a decision has been made by referendum, the public is given the government the result of the referendum, as well as the responsibility for implementing it. This is usually uncontroversial, but since the 2016 vote to leave the European Union, the responsibility has become much more contentious. Some parliamentarians have argued that the government should not leave the country without a referendum (because it was non-binding), or there should be a second referendum or they argue over the way in which the leave vote should be interpreted.

Referendums are not a traditional part of UK politics, and their use has increased in recent years. The question, therefore, becomes, why are they used?

Talking Point



What are the main differences between elections and referendums? Why are these important?

Why Might a Referendum be Used?

Since the election of the Labour Party in 1997, referendums have become more prominent in British politics. They are often used to decide on important constitutional changes, such as changing the electoral system. They can also be used to bring an end to an issue, such as devolution, with mixed results. It is worth noting that the line between constitutional and political decisions is less than in the UK, which has no entrenched constitution and therefore, no special measures for amendment. All referendums held in the UK have been held on an issue of constitutional significance, even if the arguments used for many of them (in particular the Scottish Independence referendum and Brexit) are as much about the economic or political ramifications as they are about possible constitutional change.

Referendums have been made to fulfil promises made in party manifestos. The devolution referendums were held for Scotland and Wales in the late 1990s. A party's manifesto is a way of the party signalling that it will seek public support after getting the mandate during an election. In doing this, they are effectively giving a mandate in the event that the referendum passes, as in the case of devolution. It is also a clever political move as it does not mean that the party will necessarily be introducing a referendum as they believe that the public will come to fight against the party's referendum rather than during the election. Another advantage of promising a referendum is that it can be later ignored if it stops being politically salient. The 1997 Labour government promised a referendum for the House of Commons after a commission was never held. A referendum can also be used as a compromise. This is how the AV referendum went ahead under the Liberal Democrat – Conservative coalition. The Lib Dems supported changing the voting system and the Conservatives

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Referendums can be held in order to grant further legitimacy to major constitutional reforms. This has often been the case with many constitutional reforms in Britain, especially those that require a government to implement without public approval, such as the devolution of powers. A referendum can also withhold legitimacy and not allow a proposed reform to proceed. A referendum on changing the voting system to AV in 2011.

A referendum can also settle an internal party dispute. Both the 1975 vote on membership of the European Community and the 2016 vote on membership of the EU have been interpreted as attempts by the government to settle the issue of Europe within their own parties (Labour and the Conservatives respectively). In these cases, it is undeniable that the parties were split on these issues, but whether a referendum is held to unify a party is more questionable, not least because it has not historically been used to settle an internal party dispute. A referendum can also serve to highlight the divisions in a party if they are held in the context of a referendum.

On a small scale, referendums can be held for any number of issues. They are held to legitimise planning decisions, to decide whether a mayor should be elected, and to decide other issues in local politics. Although referendums are frequently used, there is only one situation in which citizens themselves can call for a referendum in the UK (known as an initiative). This is when a petition is received by 5% of the registered voters in a local authority asking for a referendum on having an elected mayor. In all other situations, only elected representatives can authorize the use of a referendum.

Did you know?
There have been more referendums held in the UK since 2010 than in the entire history of British politics before then.

Talking Point

Why do you think referendums have become more common in the UK since 2010?

Referendums in the UK

Referendums held in the UK

- 1973 – on joining the Irish Republic (Northern Ireland voters only)
- 1975 – on remaining in the European Community (all UK voters)
- 1979 – on devolution in Scotland and Wales (Scottish and Welsh voters only)
- 1997 – on having a Scottish Parliament and separate tax powers (Scottish voters only)
- 1997 – on having a Welsh Assembly (Welsh voters only)
- 1998 – on having a Northern Ireland Assembly (Northern Ireland voters only)
- 1998 – on having a Mayor for London (London voters only)
- 2004 – on a regional assembly in the north-east of England (NE voters only; see below)
- 2011 – on using the AV voting system for general elections (all UK voters)
- 2011 – on giving lawmaking powers to the Welsh Assembly (Welsh voters only)
- 2014 – on Scotland becoming an independent country (Scottish voters only; see below)
- 2016 – on remaining in the European Union (all UK voters)

Between 2004 and 2011, there were proposed referendums on joining the European Community (all UK voters). Both of these referendums were subsequently cancelled. Local referendums are held about issues such as elected mayors.

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Some useful points concerning referendums

1. In the UK, governments are not always obliged to follow the result.
2. Referendums can be used by prime ministers to stop arguments in the government and obliging opponents in the cabinet to follow it, e.g. Harold Wilson used the referendum to unite the government on the issue of Europe.
3. Governments will sometimes set a minimum quota on votes, below which they will not accept the answer. This happened with the 1979 devolution referendums when the first referendum failed to reach the required 50% of the electorate.
4. It is the government that will set the wording of the question, and which will usually stage a publicity campaign to support the answer it wants. The Neill Report on referendums suggested that governments should stay neutral in relation to referendums, but this is hardly followed.

Results of the 1979 Scottish and Welsh referendums 1997

(What conclusions can you draw from the results?)

	Scottish Parliament	With Taxation Powers
YES	74.3	63.5
NO	25.7	36.5
% TURNOUT	60.1	60.1

Look especially at the Welsh result, and at the turnout. Does the referendum really reflect the feelings of the Welsh voters at that time on the issue? Are these examples of direct democracy or just a little about what people really want?

Three Recent Examples of Referendums

Case Study 1: Regional Devolution Referendums

There were three major devolution referendums in 1979 and 1998. These three referendums were about moving powers away from Westminster and towards Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. The Northern Ireland referendum was slightly more complicated as it was over the Good Friday Agreement. We will focus on the devolution referendums in Scotland and Wales.

The Labour government led by Prime Minister Tony Blair that had been elected to Westminster in 1997 decided to hold a referendum on the issue of devolution. The Scottish referendum was held on 11th September 1979. It followed a previous referendum in 1979 which required a 75% turnout to be implemented. This time the creation of a Scottish Parliament required 63.5% of voters on a turnout of 60%. The vote led to the creation of a Scottish Parliament, which entrenched another layer of government in the United Kingdom. In this case, the referendum was used for legitimising the creation of a new political system.

The referendum in Wales was held the week after, on 18th September 1997. The overall call for devolution in Wales, and the referendum result reflected this with 50.3% of voters supporting devolution on a turnout of only 50.2%. This was a much lower level of support overall compared to Scottish devolution. However, there was a significant increase in support for this, and the Welsh Parliament has not suffered a crisis of legitimacy since 2011, in a referendum for further devolution (63.5% of the electorate supported it on a small turnout of only 35.6%).

The referendums on devolution indicate that referendums can be effective in legitimising and entrenching constitutional change. Without a referendum on these two issues, the Good Friday Agreement would have been seen as illegitimate and the new institutions may have been seen as illegitimate if they had been created.

Case Study 2: Referendums for Regional Governments in England

It can be argued that referendums do provide a very good example of local democracy. In 2003, Parliament passed legislation to allow referendums to take place on whether to be called 'mini' parliaments in certain regions of England. These new electorates would have limited powers over issues such as economic development and planning, transport and culture. The cost to local people would be about the same as putting five people on the council. There were some conditions, and one of the most important was that County Councils would have to be abolished to make way for a new layer of local government.

At this point, the government was very sure that the referendums would pass. Three referendums were planned – for the North East, the North West, and Yorkshire. Feelings seem to be changing, however, and in July 2004, the government announced that it was not in favour of a regional assembly in the North West and in Yorkshire. The government was still certain that it was in favour of a regional assembly in the North East, and that referendum went ahead. The idea was resoundingly rejected by a majority of 78%, despite strong government support. Immediately, the government scrapped the idea of holding any more referendums, and the whole policy.

Perhaps this demonstrates that however much a government controls the media and wages a campaign for a particular point of view, it is still local decision-making that counts in the end. On the other hand, the referendum itself has been criticised for not really being a participatory government, but more of a demonstration against the Labour Government. Perhaps participatory government really produced the answer that everybody wanted.

Case Study 3: The Scottish Independence Referendum in 2014

The referendum on Scottish independence developed out of the support there had been over the years since devolution, and was immediately triggered by the SNP's result in the Scottish Parliament election of 2011 when they won an overall majority. The referendum was an attempt to settle the issue from the Westminster level. It was held in 2014 by a coalition led by the Conservatives under David Cameron.

In 2011 the SNP won an overall majority, taking 69 of the 129 seats, having campaigned on promising a referendum on independence. There had been an issue over whether the Scottish legislature had the legal right to run a referendum, since any matter relating to the constitution lay with the UK Parliament. The Scottish government argued that an advisory referendum on extending the powers of the Scottish parliament would have no legal effect on the UK constitution. However, everybody would expect it to have a major political effect. The Scottish government was given temporary powers to run the referendum which allowed it to set the date, decide the wording of the question. The date was set for 18th September 2014 and the franchise was for 18-year-olds.

All three main political parties lined up in the 'No' camp with Alistair Darling, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, becoming the agreed leader. They campaigned under the slogan 'No to independence' with emphasis mainly on the risks Scotland would be running by going it alone. The 'Yes' campaign would use the slogan 'Yes we can be a country'.

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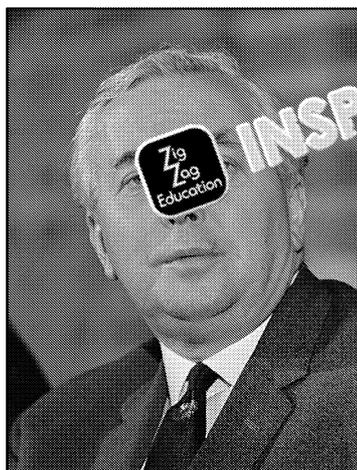
The 'Yes' camp ran under the slogan 'Yes Scotland'. It was essentially led by Alex Salmond, the leader and deputy leader of the SNP. They underlined the point that Scotland's country had complete control over its resources and could make all its own decisions.

Opinion polls at the beginning of the campaign showed the 'No' camp with a lead that was expected to narrow, and with just a week left to go the media were reporting a real possibility of a 'Yes' snatching victory. The 'No' camp responded by securing the support of the former Labour Prime Minister Gordon Brown in to rally support. He is credited by many for his role in articulating the positive case for staying together and stopping the momentum of the 'Yes' campaign in the last few days.

The referendum campaign seemed to engulf the whole nation. The turnout was 72.1%. The 'Yes' vote won by 44.6% reflected this. The 'No' vote won by 55.4%, with 2,001,926 to 1,617,989.

The referendum had some fairly dramatic immediate results. The SNP did not win the 2015 general election, but they won the election of 2015, winning nearly all of the seats in Scotland, effectively denying the Labour Party its historic strongholds.

The effects of the 2014 referendum are still playing out today. Although the Labour Party lost the 2017 general election, they regained their dominant position in Westminster in 2024. The UK-wide vote to leave the European Union in 2016 has increased demand for Scottish independence. This is because Scotland voted to remain in the EU, and because the UK's membership of the EU was a key argument used by the 'Yes' camp. Therefore, that this debate will continue in the coming years.



Harold Wilson – Labour Party leader and Prime Minister at the time of the 1975 referendum.

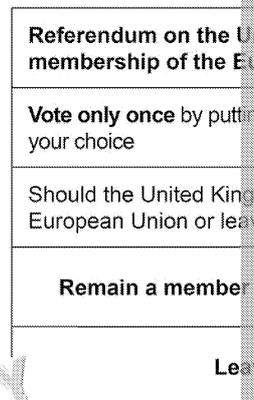
Case Study: The referendum on British membership of the European Union (EU)
The European Communities – EC has been a controversial part of British history. Britain joined the single market in 1973. Britain joined the EC in August 1961. In 1963 Britain's membership application was vetoed by French president Charles De Gaulle, and the application was blocked, again by De Gaulle, in 1967. Britain joined the EC in 1973. A referendum was held in 1975 under a Conservative government where 67% voted to remain in the EC. This led to the UK integrate further economically and eventually become the EU, and the EU enlarge to include other countries, particularly after the break-up of the Eastern Bloc.

In the early years it was politicians on the left who were most opposed UK membership of the EC. It was not until the Maastricht Treaty in 1992–1993 that modern Euroscepticism became a salient force in British politics.

The issue of Euroscepticism became a major campaign issue for the Conservative Party during John Major's term as PM. In the years before the 1997 general election the Eurosceptic party came to exist as the Conservative Party campaigning for a referendum on membership of the EU. In 1997 the Eurosceptic party won 2.6% of the national vote. After 1997, two political parties began to become louder on the issue of British membership of the EU. One was the Eurosceptic party of UKIP, and the other was the Eurosceptic party of the Brexit Party. UKIP continued to win votes in elections, reaching their height with 24.1% of the vote in 2019, where they got 12.6% of the vote, and the 2014 European Parliament election where they were the largest party with 26.6% of the vote compared to Labour's 24.4% and the Conservative Party. The Brexit Party campaigned uncompromisingly for a referendum on UK membership of the EU and became a force in electoral politics, exerting pressure on the major parties.

Conservative Party had been something of an ever-present force since the 1980s (leader 2001–2003) and Michael Howard (leader 2003–2005) were prominent. The Conservative Party had some high-profile defections in 2014 when MPs Douglas Carswell and Boris Johnson left to join UKIP. The Conservative Party's pro-EU leader and prime minister was coming under increasing pressure to reform Britain's place in the European Union in a referendum on membership. In the 2015 Conservative manifesto, a referendum was promised, and a renegotiation. The renegotiation went on from 2015 to 2016 and Cameron finally called a referendum. A referendum was called for 23rd June 2016.

The referendum had an official campaign group on each side of the debate. The group that argued Britain should leave the European Union was called Vote Leave, and was supported by the Conservatives, Labour and UKIP. Some major figures in the government, including the former Mayor of London (and future Conservative Prime Minister) Boris Johnson, cabinet member Michael Gove, the only UKIP MP Douglas Carswell, and Liberal Democrat leader Tim Farron. There was also an alternative group campaigning for a Remain vote called Remain.EU, the group supported by Nigel Farage. The official campaign to remain in the EU was called Britain Stronger in Europe. A Remain vote was supported by Conservative Prime Minister David Cameron, Labour leader Jeremy Corbyn, and Liberal Democrat leader Tim Farron. Labour and the Liberal Democrats were officially backing Remain, while the Conservatives stayed neutral and UKIP backed Leave. British withdrawal from the EU was given its lasting name – Brexit.



The ballot paper used for the referendum.

It was a hard-fought campaign with many close calls. Despite the majority of the media and establishment backing Remain (the leader of the Remain campaign was a former international politician and economic groups), the campaign was so close that the public could go either way on the issue. The campaign consisted of a number of television debates, a leaflet produced by the government backing Remain, a leaflet produced by the Leave side, and accusations from the Leave side that Remain was campaigning on the basis of pessimism, and from Remain that the Leave side was spreading misinformation. One week before the referendum, the pro-Remain Labour MP John Healey was killed by a man associated with far-right organisations. Campaigning was halted for a week in respect, and began again on 19th June.

At the end of the campaign the referendum was won by the Leave side. The Leave side won 51.89% compared to Remain's 48.11%, on a turnout of 72.21%. The UK overall voted to leave, as did Scotland 62% to remain, as did Northern Ireland by 56%. London, and the South East, voted strongly to remain. Leave voters were in general more likely to be lower educated and older than Remain voters. Areas with large ethnic minority populations were also more likely to vote to remain. The British Overseas Territory of Gibraltar voted 98% to remain in the EU, and the relationship to Britain came into question.

There was a dramatic and immediate political reaction to the result. The Prime Minister, David Cameron, announced on 24th June that he would resign by October. The Conservative Party, Jeremy Corbyn, faced a leadership challenge after he was accused of being a traitor. Nigel Farage stood down as UKIP leader on 4th July. The SNP argued that a different vote suggested that a second independence referendum was needed.

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On 13th July after a leadership election, Theresa May (a Remain voter) became prime minister. May promised to act on the referendum and take Britain out of the EU with a majority in parliament in the 2017 snap general election. This made the process difficult and also led to her eventual resignation. The referendum has had a profound impact on British politics, changing the political geography of the country, as well as the constitutional arrangements in the UK once the negotiations are complete. This referendum has, therefore, become an important one in British political history, and its significance as if its result will continue to shape the future of British politics for years to come.



Talking Point

What do you think the next major referendum in the UK will be?

The Impact of Referendums on UK Politics

The increased use of referendums has had a profound effect on British politics. Since the June 2016 referendum on membership of the European Union, it seems that it will be the result of a referendum that defines the next stage of the political development of the UK. This in itself demonstrates one of the unique aspects of the impact referendums can have. Because referendums are usually binary options (one option is usually a change, and the other no change), it means that one result can have a major impact on politics, and the other can result in no – or minimal – change.

Constitutional Impact

The referendums that have been held in the UK on various constitutional issues have had an immediate impact on the constitutional arrangements in the UK. The devolution of powers to Scotland, Northern Ireland and Wales resulted in a new relationship between the central government and the devolved administrations. The effect this has had on the UK constitution is significant. The constitutional arrangements in place to govern how these devolved institutions exercise their powers and responsibilities should be. Even the referendums that have not had a direct constitutional impact. The result of the AV referendum in 2011 was something of a constitutional impact. The result of the AV referendum in 2011 was an elected regional assembly in the North East in 2004 left no doubt that these changes. They cemented the existing constitutional structure by rejecting the AV system.

Referendums have also changed the way we think about constitutional reform. Constitutional decisions are left up to a referendum now. Despite this, Parliament still has the power to provide referendums on any of these constitutional issues, and there is no reason to think this will continue. The 1998 Human Rights Act was brought in without a referendum. The House of Lords and the establishment of the Supreme Court in 2009. It has had a mixed experience in using referendums to reform the constitution. While referendums can add a level of electoral authority to constitutional change, they can also be a double-edged sword.

When a constitutional change does not have some form of electoral authority, it can lead to public resentment. Many referendums have been held on the Lisbon Treaty (some of them more than one, such as the 2001 referendum on this choice). This has featured in the debates over EU membership when it is clear that the EU has in Britain is not based on any legitimacy granted by the people.

This brings us on to the most important constitutional impact of referendums on UK politics, Parliament is sovereign; there are no laws that Parliament cannot pass.

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Referendums present a challenge to this authority. A referendum result carries more weight than a parliamentary decision, and even though there is no constitutional requirement that referendum results are treated as irreversible. Referendums can be an important part of a political system without an entrenched constitution.

Political Impact

The increased use of referendums has had a major impact on the way politics is conducted. Let's put aside for a moment the specific impact of the Scottish independence referendum and the Brexit referendum (both of which will have a huge and lasting effect on UK politics) and consider the impact of referendums in general, rather than any specific referendum. Referendums are used to address major concerns, as with the Brexit referendum. They have been used as a check on a party coalition, as with the AV referendum in the Conservative coalition. Finally, a referendum can be called by a government in order to settle an issue that has been a source of conflict for a long time.

Because a referendum gets so many more votes than any individual MP, it is seen as having greater electoral authority, and thus the power to settle an issue. The 2016 referendum, in which who voted to leave the EU was 17,400,000, one of the largest mandates ever. However, whether referendums can really settle anything is brought into question by the Brexit referendum who say that the referendum offered a binary option of two solutions. The only votes were to remain and leave; the referendum did not offer any other options, should leave, or which institutions the UK should stay in, both of which were debated in British politics.

The Case for and against Referendums

For:

- ☑ They are a form of direct democracy. It can be argued that referendum democracy is a more direct form of democracy involving the public directly with political issues rather than leaving power in the hands of politicians (who are largely not trusted) and the public. Direct democracy is the purist form of democratic engagement, and the referendum is valuable in addressing a democratic deficit in a country such as the UK where the current representation largely leaves the public out of decisions except at elections.
- ☑ They provide the electorate with the chance to prevent 'elective dictatorship' by allowing the public directly in political issues and can stop the government from doing things the public disagree with. In an issue such as Brexit, many politicians felt that the UK should have kept the UK in the EU against the public's wishes because they were considered undemocratic. Referendums can act as a protection against government overreach.
- ☑ They provide valuable feedback to politicians between elections. In the referendum, the public gets a chance to have their voice heard on policy every five years. In between, the government is giving another opportunity to the public to have their say, which is especially important if a large number of things have changed since an election. Referendums complement representative democracy by giving the public a direct say in the things they believe a policy should be changed. They complement representative democracy by giving the public a direct say in the things they believe a policy should be changed. They complement representative democracy by giving the public a direct say in the things they believe a policy should be changed.
- ☑ Referendums can settle an issue that would otherwise still be an unknown. The 2016 Brexit referendum is now an established part of UK democracy because of the referendum in its establishment. When a referendum results in a 'no' vote, it can be particularly effective in convincing the public that the issue should be settled. However, if a change option is decided, or if another political development occurs, it can easily come back into the public consciousness.

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- ☑ Referendums enhance citizen participation and education. The public participate in another vote, but also to learn about another political issue. There was a near-constant presence on television and online during the campaign, providing an opportunity to learn about the issue. Therefore, the electorate can become more educated.
- ☑ They show that the opinion of the people is valued in a democracy. They do not presuppose that the public is too ignorant to understand what it is voting on, with very complex issues such as EU membership. Referendums, therefore, show a level of respect towards the public. There is a risk of being missing in a representative government.



Against:

- ☑ Referendums in the UK represent a challenge to the principle of parliamentarism, creating an alternative form of authority that is seen as inviolable, referring to the sovereignty of Parliament. They also undermine the power of representatives by forcing them to enact policies that they personally think are harmful.
- ☑ Those in power will often frame the question or hold the referendum to suit their interests. The use of the referendum as a tactical device is problematic for democracy because the public is not really exercising its power, but only being used as a tool. They tend to only force a referendum if there is no chance of them getting out of office, or if they think they are going to win. This is a criticism often made of the use of the membership of European institutions referendums in 1975 and 2016, which were used to keep their parties together.
- ☑ Referendums can have a bias against change. The best example of this occurred in 1959 a referendum on male votes rejected the idea of votes for women. It was not until 1973 that men coupled with the idea of tyranny of the majority that referendums can be used as instruments to delay progress.
- ☑ Referendums can ignore the voice of minority groups. They can lead to a 'tyranny of the majority' by having no mechanism for protecting minority interests. Because a referendum usually only offers two options, the opinion of those in the group that loses will usually be completely ignored. Many have argued that the effect Brexit has had on EU citizens living in the UK and some UK citizens living elsewhere in the EU is tantamount to tyranny of the majority, as these groups are likely the most affected although were unable to vote on the issue. Referendums can offer a simple answer to a complex question.
- ☑ Ordinary people do not have the time and resources to become well educated on major issues of national importance. Referendums are, therefore, decided more on the basis of feelings than on a careful consideration of the facts. In a representative democracy we elect politicians precisely because we do not have time to learn about all of these questions, so asking the public to vote on them is unjustifiable.
- ☑ Referendums do not settle issues. The two EU referendums, as well as the 2016 Brexit referendum, are an issue in British politics even after the 1975 referendum, prove that even in the short term by a referendum, it does not guarantee that the issue will be resolved. In the long term by a referendum, it does not guarantee that the issue will be resolved. In the short term by a referendum, it does not guarantee that the issue will be resolved. In the long term by a referendum, it does not guarantee that the issue will be resolved. The two Irish referendums on the Lisbon Treaty are an example of this.

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- ☒ Referendums can entrench or cause divisions. In the case where major parties actually having a referendum on this issue might cause the party to collapse. In general, if the political establishment is not prepared for the result of the referendum, it could cause political chaos.
- ☒ By far the most powerful information campaigns will come from the side opposing the referendum. Governments have the most resources. This was certainly the case in the 2016 referendum, when the government produced a leaflet detailing the possible consequences of Brexit and why the government believed it was better to stay in, and this was distributed across the UK.
- ☒ Referendums can oversimplify a complex issue. There is no way that a referendum can capture a single issue, and in doing so a referendum can oversimplify a political issue, making it less recognisable. This can also leave the results up to interpretation. Theresa May called a referendum and the debates over whether it indicated support for a 'hard Brexit' led to her resignation as prime minister in 2019 due to her Brexit Withdrawal Agreement being rejected by Parliament three times, as the government faced opposition from all sides.

Talking Point



Based on the arguments for and against referendums, do you think referendums should be used in the UK?



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Unit 3.3: Electoral System Analysis

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Understand why different electoral systems were chosen for the different systems
- ✓ Understand the impact of the electoral system on the types of government
- ✓ Understand the impact of electoral system on voter choice
- ✓ Understand the impact of the electoral system on the party system
- ✓ Understand majoritarian and proportional systems and the debate between them

Key Words

A Single-party Majority Government	A government in which one party gets over half of the seats (in the assembly) and can form a government on its own. This is known as FPTP.
A Two-party Coalition Government	A government in which no party gets enough seats to form a majority on its own, so they join with another party in order to get a majority.
A Single-party Minority Government	A government in which no party gets over half the seats but the party in power chooses to govern alone without a majority. They can still pass laws with other parties to help get decisions through the parliament. The Conservative Party did this with the DUP after June 2017.
Majoritarian	An electoral system designed to make a single-party majority government more likely. Majoritarian systems are less likely to make governments that do not match the seats won. FPTP is such a system.
Proportional	An electoral system designed to make the number of seats won match the number of votes cast for each party. They do not usually create party majorities. Party list PR is a proportional system.
Mixed Systems	An electoral system designed to take elements from both majoritarian and proportional systems, such as AMS.

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Electoral Systems around the UK

Why have different electoral systems been introduced?

Now we know that the different electoral systems around the UK result in different forms of government, the question becomes, why AMS in Scotland and Wales and STV in Northern Ireland also have to think about why FPTP is the system used for Westminster elections, and for the elected mayors, the Labour Party under Tony Blair thought FPTP was the electoral system should be. However, all of these electoral systems have been introduced for different reasons and under different circumstances.

Why FPTP Westminster elections?

FPTP is the traditional system used for electing seats to Parliament. It has been used ever since there have been elections to Parliament. Although it has changed over time, when first introduced, most notably the extension of the franchise to include every man over 21 in 1928, the basics of FPTP have never fundamentally changed. Constituencies elect one MP to them in Parliament. It has survived in part because it protects the interests of the ruling party, who in turn make sure it is not reformed. Labour offered a referendum on electoral reform in their 1997 manifesto, after having been out of power for 18 years, but did not do so while in power.

There are many issues with FPTP, stemming from the fact that it is disproportionately represented. It can be highly disproportionate when looking at regional votes. In the 2019 general election, the result was different in each nation: the Conservatives in England, Labour in Wales and Scotland, and the DUP in Northern Ireland. This is part of the reason why other electoral systems are considered appropriate in the devolved regions.

FPTP is not favoured by the voters who are excluded because of it. Minor parties often support FPTP if they are geographically spread out. In 2015, UKIP and the Greens got 24% of the national vote but were largely denied representation due to their vote being spread across many diverse constituencies. This is why minor parties favour electoral reform.

Despite the voting patterns in general elections suggesting that voters are not happy with their choices, when offered electoral reform for Westminster elections, the electorate has generally rejected it. In 2011 there was a referendum held on whether to introduce the Alternative Vote. The Conservative – Liberal Democrat coalition had proposed it after a vote was held in the Democrats' 2010 manifesto. The referendum resulted in a 68% vote against reform on a 42% turnout. This result seems to have cemented FPTP for the time being. The simple and familiar over the new and untried. Many of the arguments that have been put to the public to choose FPTP focused on its ability to create strong governments and the support of minor parties consistently campaign in favour of changing the system, and in recent years, the issue has gained more prominence. Although party support has fallen with the 2024 general election producing a landslide Labour majority, however, the government will pursue electoral reform in much of a hurry.

 **Thinking Point**
Has FPTP been working in the way it is supposed to work?

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Why AMS for Scotland and Wales?

AMS was introduced as a compromise that Labour had to make in order to win acceptance of its devolution plans. The other political parties in Scotland and Wales (especially the nationalist parties) would be very unlikely to provide backing to devolution if the electoral system used to elect the devolved assemblies reduced their chances of holding political power, as FPTP would have done. Remember, FPTP always favours the largest parties. AMS was introduced as a compromise, as the Liberal Democrats in Scotland would have preferred STV, but Labour would have done better out of FPTP. Labour also wished to maintain the constituency link. AMS is a partly proportional system, and, therefore, was an ideal middle point for the parties. Labour has played a part in many of the devolved governments since, AMS has also allowed other minor national parties to gain more representation than they usually get at general elections. The Welsh Parliament voted to change to a 'closed proportional' system for its devolved election, which divides the nation into 16 constituencies which elect one member each. This system aims to be more proportional than AMS. Alongside the increase in membership from 60 to 96, such a move away from Westminster reflects a growing institutionalisation of the Welsh Parliament.



The Senedd

Why STV for Northern Ireland?

STV was chosen for Northern Ireland Assembly elections after the 1998 Good Friday Agreement to represent the different parties as fairly as possible. Northern Irish society is divided between the nationalist and unionist camps, often resulting in violent confrontations. One of the key provisions of the Good Friday Agreement was that no single party should be able to dominate the Northern Irish parliament. STV was used when the Northern Irish parliament existed.

STV was one of a number of constitutional arrangements constructed in Northern Ireland to ensure power sharing (a necessary compromise) mandatory. It is also the case that the first minister and deputy first minister share power with equal power and responsibilities despite the nationalist and unionist parties. STV has never resulted in single-party dominance in Northern Ireland. As discussed before, Northern Irish government has not always been stable, and there have been periods when a government could not form.

Why SV for Mayors?

The Labour government decided on the electoral system that would be used to elect the London Mayor in 2000. SV and AV were both considered as possible systems that allow for ranking in elections with a single winner. SV was chosen for London. SV also usually benefits the two major parties (as it goes through to the second round) whereas AV usually results in the least-worst compromise candidate, who may well have not been one of the two main parties.

SV has resulted in most elected mayors coming from either Labour or the Conservatives, with some from other parties or independent candidates. Because all mayors are elected to represent the whole of the city, it is difficult to determine how representative the results are.

Following the Local Elections Act 2022 passed under Boris Johnson, the 2024 mayoral elections used FPTP. The government argued this was to reduce the number of void ballots caused by voter confusion, though some critics have suggested the change was politically motivated to favour Conservative candidates, and it was changed back to SV by Labour.



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The Impact of the Electoral System on the Government

As we have already seen, the type of electoral system used for an election can affect both the type of party system that evolves, and the types of government that emerge. In general, FPTP systems tend to result in a two-party system and single-party government, while PR systems more often result in multi-party systems and coalition or minority governments. This is evident from all the different governments formed across the UK since 1997.

Governments

One of the most important consequences of adopting a proportional (or party list) electoral system is that it has the potential to result in a single-party majority government. In Northern Ireland, coalition governments and minority governments have been formed. Governments elected using AMS, have had varying degrees of stability (see Table 1.1). Governments elected using STV in Northern Ireland have often been unstable, but that could be due to Northern Ireland's divided and polarised politics, rather than a result of the electoral system.

The fact that more coalition governments have existed in the UK since the 1990s (and also more levels of government in general) has had a marked effect on the way that parties interact. Negotiation and consensus between parties are much more central to the way that devolved administrations than they are in Westminster. A good example of this is the large number of cross-party parliamentary groups that exist in Scotland for issues such as education and health.

By contrast, even with the lack of single-party dominance in Westminster, Westminster remains an institution defined by the dominance of a few major parties and the need for cross-party consensus. Governments in Westminster avoid forming cross-party consensus in order to remain in power, as seen by the willingness of Theresa May's Conservative government to form a confidence and supply coalition with only 10 seats in parliament after the 2017 election, in order to avoid going to a general election. The Conservative government as a minority government with only the slim support of the DUP is very positive evidence that the other parties would not have been open to negotiating a coalition with the Conservatives if the fact that this would give them increased power over policies and the government was not a consideration. The 2010–2015 coalition, and the effects it has had on the Liberal Democrats, show that coalitions in Westminster (and the associated level of consensus) are uncommon. The parties cannot yet see a definite benefit from governing in coalition, and this outweighs simply waiting for another election under FPTP and hoping that the Conservatives will be replaced by Labour.

The type of electoral system definitely affects the governments that can form. The debate on electoral systems about whether **majoritarian** or **proportional** systems are better is a debate that we will come back to later in the chapter.

Policies

The different governments that have been formed under different electoral systems have had different policies. The question of what sort of policies different electoral systems result in. The devolved governments have limited powers to implement policies. They have used their powers to implement policies that are different from that of Westminster. The Liberal Democrat – Labour coalition in Scotland would not have implemented tuition fees. The fact that Scottish Labour could form a left-wing coalition with the Liberal Democrats meant that they did not have to drift rightwards in order to remain in power. The Labour Party across the UK did with New Labour under Tony Blair. AMS allowed Scotland's more left-wing population to be represented in the policies of the Scottish Government.

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Years	Type of Government	Parties
1997–2001	Single-party majority	
2001–2005	Single-party majority	
2005–2010	Single-party majority	
2010–2015	Two-party coalition	Conservatives and Liberal Democrats
2015–2017	Single-party majority	Conservatives (under David Cameron)
2017–2019	Single-party minority	Conservatives in confidence
2019–2024	Single-party majority	Conservatives (under Boris Johnson and Rishi Sunak)
2024–	Single-party majority	

Table 1: Westminster Governments – Elected using FPTP

Years	Type of Government	Parties
1999–2003	Two-party coalition	Labour and Liberal Democrats
2003–2007	Two-party coalition	Labour and Liberal Democrats
2007–2011	Single-party minority	Scottish National Party
2011–2016	Single-party majority	Scottish National Party (under Alex Salmond and Nicola Sturgeon)
2016–2021	Single-party minority	Scottish National Party and Greens
2021–	Coalition/Minority	Scottish National Party and Greens (under Nicola Sturgeon agreement 2021–2024); SNP

Table 2: Scottish Governments – Elected using AMS

Years	Type of Government	Parties
1999–2000	Single-party minority	Labour – government ended
2000–2002	Two-party coalition	Labour and Liberal Democrats
2003–2007	Single-party minority	
2007–2009	Single-party minority	
2007–2009	Two-party coalition	Labour and Plaid Cymru (leader Rhodri Iwan Jones)
2009–2011	Two-party coalition	Labour and Liberal Democrats
2011–2016	Single-party minority	
2016–2021	Two-party coalition	Labour and Liberal Democrats
2021–	Single-party minority	Labour (with support from Plaid Cymru and Gething's reform)

Table 3: Welsh Governments – Elected using AMS

AMS is a partly proportional system, and you can see the impact this has had on the governments that have been produced. Both the Scottish and Welsh governments have had more coalitions and minority governments than Westminster. In fact, the major coalition in Holyrood (2011–2016) should be seen as something of an anomaly, reflecting the need for a political party under AMS. Northern Ireland has not been included here as it requires coalitions to be formed.

In contrast, FPTP tends to lead to single-party majority governments. The fact that there have been two hung parliaments (resulting in a coalition and a minority government respectively) is fairly anomalous in UK politics. General elections nearly always return single-party majorities. It is not yet clear whether the prevalence of hung parliaments is a consequence of a changing party system, or a coincidence that does not suggest a wider trend.

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Majoritarian and Proportional Systems – The Central Debate

We have now looked at a large number of different electoral systems used in the world. You may have noticed that there are some patterns emerging. One pattern is the debate over whether the electoral system should produce strong vs more proportional representation of voters. This is an old debate, and comes down to a question of whether a system should be pluralistic, majoritarian or proportional.

A pluralistic majoritarian system (such as FPTP) is based on the winner-takes-all principle: the candidate who receives the most votes in a constituency wins, and no other candidates are returned to office. This tends to mean that at a national level, the winning party gets a disproportionately large number of seats, but that the winner wins by enough to secure them a strong government. This was the case in the UK, and can result in some very strong governments from a single party. In the 2024 Labour landslide, Keir Starmer's party won 63.2% of the seats in Parliament with only 33.7% of the vote. Majoritarian systems reward those who win the most votes with a majority to govern.

On the other hand, there are proportional systems (STV or Party List PR). These aim to represent all parties and voters equally. As the name suggests, these seek to represent voters in proportion to the number of votes they receive. This results in more equitable representation, but can also lead to coalitions, as it is unlikely that any single party will get over 50% of the seats. This is inherently negative, but they are usually less stable than a majority government. They can also lead to programmes based on what they can negotiate through parliament, rather than implementing more radical policies.

The key distinction here is whether the system should be based on **single-party rule** or **equal representation**. This is not an easy question to answer, and different electoral systems around the world suggests that it is very much a debatable issue. One more complication is that those who have the power to change a system are often the people who benefit from the current system. There is also the problem of systems that are neither proportional nor majoritarian, such as AMS. These can be considered **mixed** systems, with aspects from both proportional and majoritarian systems.



Talking Point

Which matters more: fairness in representation or strength of government?

The Effect of Electoral Systems on Political Parties

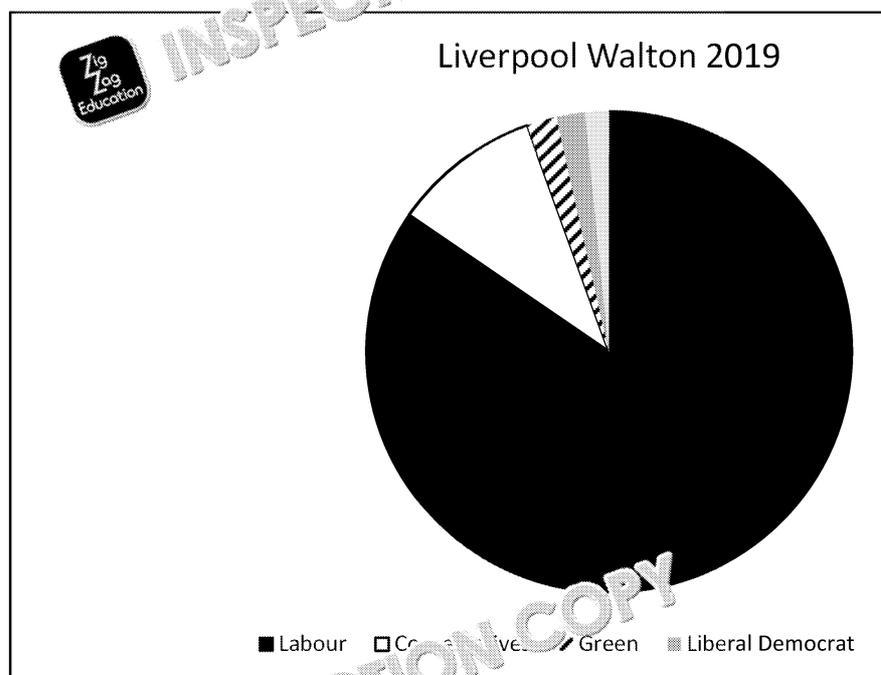
The main beneficiaries of FPTP are always the major parties. Because FPTP awards seats to the party that are the biggest in a constituency, the party's likely to be the biggest across the country to win. It is because FPTP denies equal representation to minor parties that it can be so dominant. As we have already seen, under FPTP a party can get a majority in Parliament with only a minority of the vote (as was the case with Labour in 2005). In fact this is by far the most common outcome in an election: one of the major parties will get under half of the votes, but will win a majority of seats.

Having said this, the main two parties are not untouchable under FPTP. They can be challenged. The first is that a minor party that has very dense support in a specific area can still be successful. This was the case with the SNP in Scotland, and the Greens in the UK.

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where it receives a much higher proportion of the vote than it does anywhere else. The Conservative vote share is spread out, so they can be threatened by strong regional parties. FPTP can also work against the major parties if their vote is too geographically spread out. An extreme example of this in the 2019 general election was in the Liverpool Walton constituency. Labour MP Dan Carden won 34,500 votes while the second-placed Conservative candidate won 24,000. Because the candidate only needs to win the largest number of votes, the Conservative vote threshold, roughly 30,000 Labour votes in Liverpool Walton were not necessarily wasted because of Labour's huge majority. If these votes had been spread across the country, they could have won Labour a few more seats.



The 2019 general election in the Liverpool Walton constituency. Remember that the Labour candidate only needed to win more votes than any other party to win, so all their votes over what was needed to beat the Conservatives were effectively wasted.

However, there are some small issues that FPTP causes for the major parties should be considered. FPTP greatly favours them. FPTP pushes the party system towards being a two-party system. Parties, especially geographically spread out ones, are completely without representation. A famous example of this is the 4 million votes won by UKIP in the 2015 election, with only one seat being won. UKIP got the third most votes of any party, more votes than the SNP, yet managed to win only one seat to the SNP's 56 and the Liberal Democrats' 13. This makes a two-party system much more likely, even if the balance of other votes is not favourable.

The devolved administrations, with their more proportional electoral systems, treat political parties more equally, and thus the party systems have more parties than under FPTP. Since the introduction of AMS to Scotland, the party system has developed in such a way as to make FPTP elections to Westminster appear very ill-suited to the current political opinion. In the 2019 general election, the way the seats and vote share were distributed was among the least proportional in the country. Labour won 19% of the vote but 32% of the seats, whereas the Conservatives won 35% of the vote and 10% of the seats, and the Liberal Democrats won 7% of the vote and 81% of the seats. The fact that there was a split across multiple parties in the devolved assemblies was entirely predictable. This is not the case in terms of seats. AMS is a more proportional system of Scotland by allowing voters to become attached to multiple parties.

You can see from the governments that have formed in Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland that there are at least three parties in the devolved assemblies that have become serious political forces.

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more proportional a party system is, the more likely it is to allow for a multi-party system. Voters also become more accustomed to voting for minor parties in a proportional system, and can do so without the fear that their vote is wasted.

The single most proportional system (Party List Proportional Representation using the D'Hondt method, nearly guarantees a multi-party system. There are no 'wasted' votes for larger parties, and no votes are discounted because they are for a too-small party (they receive a really tiny number of votes - but every voter can count every vote).

The Effect of Electoral Systems on Voter Participation and Engagement

As we have already briefly discussed, different electoral systems can have different effects on that voters choose to vote, and even whether they choose to vote at all.

Voter choice is higher under AMS than FPTP because a voter gets to choose a specific representative, but also a party. They can be assured that at least one of their preferences is in a representative, unless they have very marginal opinions. Voters get even more choice under STV because they can choose not only between parties, but also between candidates. Because of STV being more proportional there is also even less chance of a 'wasted' vote, which gives more choice by allowing for a secondary choice.

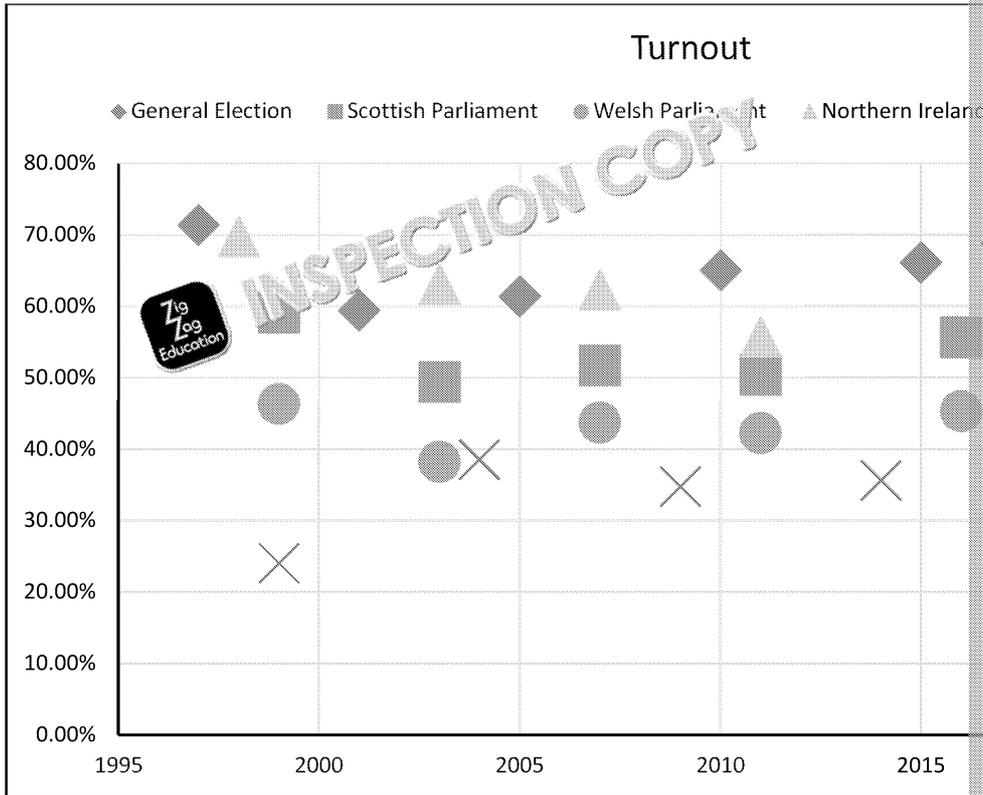
All the systems used in the UK other than FPTP provide more choice. They allow voters to pick multiple options, or be safe in the knowledge that their vote is unlikely to be 'wasted' because the counting systems do not allow for some votes to be completely ignored.

One way to measure voter engagement is through **turnout**. The turnout in an election is the number of registered voters who cast their vote compared to the total number of registered voters. Turnout figures are in general connected to the electoral system used. Under FPTP, turnout is generally higher than in other systems, which partly explains why FPTP is often used in high-stakes elections (such as presidential elections), so it is hard to determine whether turnout has changed in electoral systems.

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We can compare the turnout in various types of elections throughout the year. The electoral system results in high voter turnout.



The turnout chart shows that general election turnout is nearly always higher than other types of election. The only one that comes close is turnout in the Northern Ireland Assembly elections.

Based on the chart, the level of importance of an election (where general elections are the most important, and local council elections are the least important) is seen to be a feature determining turnout rather than the electoral system.

Talking Point



Who benefits the most from FPTP? Why has this made...

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