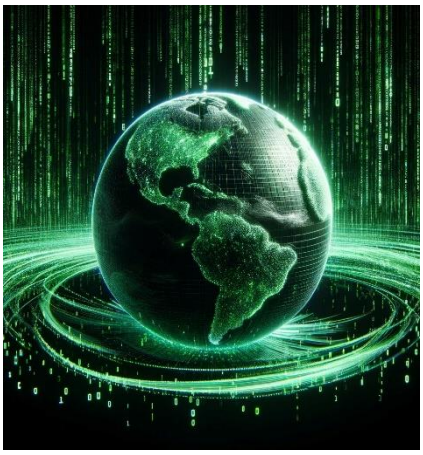
Varieties of Political Regimes (Va-PoReg)



Country Reports R-Z

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Overview

The following country reports are part of the Va-PoReg supplementary materials. We provide these materials to transparently trace how we have classified political regimes between 1900 and the present. For details on regime classification, please consult the codebook. The countries and territories covered by the dataset are listed in alphabetical order in the document. In each case, the history of political regimes in the named territory from 1900 to the most recent cut-off date (currently 07/01/2023) is listed. The description begins in each case with an entry starting 01/01/1900. This is followed in each case by the regime type at that time. The time at which this regime began is indicated in square brackets behind it. All following entries indicate the end of a regime and the start of a new regime. The entries conclude with a note indicating which regime was continued at the last cut-off date, specifically 07/01/2023. Please note that regime periods which begin after 07/01 of year x and end before 07/01 of the following year appear in the following regime narratives but not in the country-year dataset. If the regime type is mentioned in brackets after protectorate, this always refers to the country that is a protectorate. If after colony a regime type is mentioned in brackets, this refers to the colonizing country if it is mentioned first.

Acronyms for datasets

AF	Anckar and Fredriksson (2020, Political Regimes of the World Dataset, v.2.0)
BMR	Boix, Miller, and Rosato
BR	Bjørnskov and Rode (2019)
CGV	Cheibub, Gandhi, and Vreeland
FH	Freedom House (ff.)
GWF	Geddes, Wright, and Frantz (2018)
LIED	Lexical Index of Electoral Democracy, dataset v6.4 (2022)
MCM	Magaloni, Chu, and Min (2013, Autocracies of the world)
REIGN	Rulers, Elections and Irregular Governance Dataset
RoW	Regimes of the World

Other abbreviations

EU	European Union

NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
USA	United States of America

Réunion

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy]: Initially uninhabited, Réunion was explored by Portuguese navigators in the early 1500s. It saw settlement in the mid-1600s when the French East India Company created a stopover for ships traveling to India via the Cape of Good Hope. Enslaved Africans were introduced to work in coffee and later sugar plantations. In 1848, following the abolition of slavery, indentured laborers from mainland Southeast Asia, India, and Eastern Africa were brought to the island. Réunion remained under French colonial rule until 1946.[1]

03/19/1946 End Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy]/Start Part of Other Country [France, Democracy]: On this date, Réunion became an overseas department of France.[2] Réunion is classified as an Overseas department and region of France (referred to in French as a Département et Région d'Outre-Mer or DROM). It operates under the jurisdiction of Article 73 of the French Constitution, ensuring that laws and regulations are universally applicable, similar to those in metropolitan France.[3]

Part of Other Country [France, Democracy] as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Romania

01/01/1900 Constitutional Monarchy [Start: 03/25/1881]: On 01/24/1859 the Autonomous Principality of Romania was founded. In 1866 Romania became a kingdom and achieved independence from the Ottoman Empire in 1878. Romania reached international recognition of on 07/13/1878 by the Treaty of Berlin. On 03/25/1881 the Kingdom of Romania was established as a constitutional monarchy.

11/23/1916 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start Occupation Regime [by Germany, Constitutional Monarchy]: On this date Mackensen's elite troops crossed the Danube at two points close to

[1] https://www.britannica.com/place/Reunion#ref6135
[2] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/R%C3%A9union#History
[3] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/R%C3%A9union#Politics

Svishtov.[4] By early 1917, the Romanian army was defeated, and three-quarters of the country were occupied by German and Austro-Hungarian forces.[5]

11/12/1918 End Occupation Regime [by Germany, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Constitutional Monarchy: On 11/11/1918, a day before Germany surrendered, King Ferdinand mobilized the Romanian army once more to support the Entente Powers.[6] Universal suffrage for men was established by Royal Decree in November 1918, the first elections based on universal suffrage took place in November 1919.[7] Literate women were given the right to vote in the local elections in 1929.

02/10/1938 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start Absolute Monarchy: King Carol II organized a self-coup in which the constitution was suspended, martial law was proclaimed and in which he seized emergency powers.[8] The electoral law of 1939 extended the active voting rights to all literate citizens which were 30 years old or older. However, this was meaningless, since he established a dictatorship, which abolished the parliamentary system, dismissed the government, and banned political parties (Hitchins 2014: 168, 174, Casey et al. 2020: 15). The 1938 Constitution of Romania was the fundamental law of Romania from the time of its adoption until 1940. It formed the legal basis for the royal dictatorship of King Carol II.[9] The constitution was severely authoritarian and corporatist in nature. It codified Carol's emergency powers, turning his reign into a legal dictatorship. It abandoned the principle of separation of powers in favor of royal supremacy.[10] The king exercised legislative power through a Parliament elected according to corporatist principles. He exercised executive power through a government that he appointed and dismissed without parliamentary involvement. He could dissolve Parliament at any time and rule by decree, and was the sole person empowered to amend the Constitution.[11]

09/14/1940 End Absolute Monarchy/Start Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy: After signing in 1940 lopsided treaties with Nazi Germany that resulted in the loss of large Romanian territories, Carol appointed General Antonescu as the new leader. General Antonescu quickly consolidated power and forced Carol to abdicate. After this, Antonescu became the leader of Romania and formed a coalition with the fascist Iron Guard. He eliminated political parties and repressed political opponents (Hitchins 2014: 204-5, 208, Casey et al. 2020: 16). The so-called National Legionary

[4] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Romania_in_World_War_I
[5] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Romania#World_Wars_and_Greater_Romania
[6] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Romania#World_Wars_and_Greater_Romania
[7] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[8] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Carol_II_of_Romania#The_1937_election_and_the_Goga_government
[9] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1938_Constitution_of_Romania
[10] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1938_Constitution_of_Romania
[11] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1938_Constitution_of_Romania

State formed. Several antisemitic decrees were enacted by the National Legionary State. Jewish-owned rural property was expropriated on 10/04 October, followed by forests on 11/17, and finally by river transport on 12/04. On 01/02/1941, the Iron Guard attempted a coup, combined with a pogrom against the Jews of Bucharest.[12] Within four days, Antonescu successfully suppressed the coup. The Iron Guard was forced out of the government. After the Legionary Rebellion, more than 9,000 individuals were implicated and later apprehended. Out of this number, precisely 1,842 individuals received sentences of varying lengths, spanning from a few months to life imprisonment.[13] German officials, under the directives of Hitler, including the newly appointed Ambassador Manfred Freiherr von Killinger, assisted Antonescu in eliminating the Iron Guardists.[14] While the so-called National Legionary State dissolved on 02/14/1941 the fascist dictatorship continued under Antonescu. Antonescu completely accepted Hitler's ideas about Operation Barbarossa as a "race war" between the Aryans, represented by the Nordic Germans and Latin Romanians on the Axis side vs. the Slavs and Asians, commanded by the Jews on the Soviet side.[15]

08/23/1944 End Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy/Start Absolute Monarchy: Ion Antonescu was overthrown so King Michael could join the Allies in the Second World War and stop supporting the Axis.[16] In August 1944, during a Soviet offensive into Romania, King Mihai ordered the arrest of Antonescu and appointed General Constantin Sănătescu as prime minister. Sănătescu formed a new government and sought peace with the Allied Powers (Hitchins 2014: 214-218, Casey et al. 2020: 16).[17]

09/12/1944 End Absolute Monarchy/Start Occupation Regime [by USSR, Communist Ideocracy]: Shortly after, the Sanatescu regime formally joined the Allied effort as Soviet troops entered Romania. The Red Army occupied most of Romania as enemy territory prior to the signing of the Moscow Armistice of 09/12/1944. On 03/06/1the Soviets forced King Michael to appoint Petru Groza, a communist sympathizer, as prime minister He, in turn, appointed a communist dominated coalition government and a communist commander of the armed forces. With control over the police, military, judiciary, communication, propaganda, and public works, the communists consolidated their political power for the following three years. King Michael was forced to abdicate by the leader of the communist party on 12/31/1947 (Hitchins 2014: 219,

[12] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Legionary_State
[13] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Legionary_State
[14] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ion_Antonescu
[15] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ion_Antonescu
[16] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1944_Romanian_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[17] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constantin_S%C4%83n%C4%83tescu

Van Dyke 1947: 373-78, Sudetic 1990, Tismaneanu 2003: 90-95, Casey et al. 2020: 16, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 90).

02/10/1947 End Occupation Regime [by USSR, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Communist Ideocracy: On this date, the Peace Treaty with Romania was signed. Soviet troops were withdrawn after the conclusion of the Peace Treaty in 1947. On 12/31/1947 King Michael was forced to abdicate a gun point by the leader of the communist party. As a result, the party secretary gained additional powers. The universal suffrage was granted by the 1948 Constitution of Romania.[18]

12/22/1989 End Communist Ideocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: In March 1989, an open letter to President Nicolae Ceaușescu, authored by six notable figures from the Romanian Communist Party (PCR), was published. This letter openly challenged Ceaușescu, criticizing his approach to governance and the economic strategies he had implemented.[19] In December after a period of extreme austerity, ethnic tensions rose and became anti-government, which led to a campaign of violent repression, the riots grew and attracted support of the military. On 12/22/1989, in reaction to a popular uprising, Ceausescu and his wife escaped the capital. Following a brief military show trial, they were executed by firing squad on 12/25/1989 (Bachman 2006, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 90).[20] Roman became the effective leader as prime minister (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 54). During the uprisings, the political organization National Salvation Front took over the governing part, and soon became a political party.[21]

05/20/1990 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Semidemocracy: On this date general elections were held. Ion Iliescu became president. In the elections, the NSF secured a significant victory, partly due to its media dominance and the opposition's inability to organize a strong effort. The opposing side comprised revamped National Peasant and Liberal parties, led by former emigrants whose agendas from the interwar era appeared unfamiliar to most voters.[22] The State Department of the United States raised apprehensions regarding organized violence and irregularities in the election process. However, they ultimately determined that these issues did not impact the results and declared the elections to be free and fair.[23]

[18] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[19] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Letter_of_the_Six
[20] http://tinyurl.com/965e5ty
[21] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Salvation_Front_(Romania)
[22] https://www.britannica.com/place/Romania/National-communism#ref253522
[23] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1990_Romanian_general_election

11/17/1996 End Semidemocracy/Start Democracy: On this date, general elections were held. The government of lon Iliescu, a successor to the Communist party, was defeated in a regularly scheduled election by Emil Constantinescu of the liberal Democratic Convention. The 1996 election was the first relatively clean election, and the first time the post-Communist successor party had been forced to yield power (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 54-55). On 01/01/2007 Romania joined the European Union.[24] Romania has a dual executive with a bicameral parliament, consisting of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. Romania has a multiparty system with parties operating freely in a competitive environment.[25] According to FH, "[c]ivil liberties are generally respected but have come under growing pressure as entrenched political interests push back against civic and institutional efforts to combat systemic corruption."[26] The judiciary operates generally independent, the lifting of the Mechanism for Cooperation and Verification (CVM) by the European Commission at the end of 2022 reflected progress.[27] On 12/06/2020 parliamentary elections for both houses were held. Like every election since 1990, this one was generally free and credible.[28] LIED classifies the country from 2006 on as a polyarchy (liberal democracy), while RoW does not and classifies it as an electoral democracy. We agree in this case with RoW. According to our observation Romania is a democracy, however, does not fulfill the high standards of a liberal democracy in a comparative perspective. In October 2021, the governing party (PNL) was defeated in a vote of no confidence. Subsequently, in November, a coalition government was established, headed by Nicolae Ciucă of the PNL, in partnership with the Social Democratic Party (PSD) and the Democratic Union of Hungarians in Romania (UDMR).[29]
Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Gallagher 2005, Gilberg 1990, House 1989, King 1980, Paun 2008, Verheijen 1999, Gelius 2013)

Russia/Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

[Regarding the time from 1917 to 1991 Russia and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics are subsumed under the same code in almost all data sets. For instance, Gleditsch and Ward assigned

[24] https://european-union.europa.eu/principles-countries-history/country-profiles/romania_en
[25] https://freedomhouse.org/country/romania/freedom-world/2023
[26] https://freedomhouse.org/country/romania/freedom-world/2023
[27] https://freedomhouse.org/country/romania/freedom-world/2023
[28] https://freedomhouse.org/country/romania/freedom-world/2023
[29] https://freedomhouse.org/country/romania/freedom-world/2022

Russia and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics with the same code (365). Certainly, when considering the classification of Russia during the Soviet era in a dataset on political regimes, it is not appropriate to code Russia as "Part of other country." Instead, Russia should be viewed as the core territory of the Soviet Union, due to several key reasons: 1. Central Role: Russia held a central political, economic, and military role within the Soviet Union. It was not merely one of the Soviet republics but served as the heartland from which the Soviet system was governed. Moscow, located in Russia, was the capital of the Soviet Union and the seat of its central government. 2. Historical Continuity: There is a significant historical continuity between the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic (RSFSR) within the Soviet Union and the contemporary Russian Federation. After the dissolution of the Soviet Union in 1991, the Russian Federation was recognized as its principal legal successor. This includes inheriting the Soviet Union's permanent seat on the United Nations Security Council, among other international roles and responsibilities. 3. Dominant Influence: The Russian SFSR, by virtue of its size, population, and economic capacity, exerted a dominant influence over the policies and direction of the Soviet Union. This influence extended beyond mere governance, impacting the cultural, social, and economic life across the Soviet territories. Therefore, coding Russia during the Soviet era as "Part of other country" like Ukraine and all other Soviet republics would not accurately reflect its unique status and role within the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics Soviet Union. Instead, recognizing Russia as the core area of the USSR is more appropriate, considering its central governance role, historical continuity, and dominant influence over the union's affairs.]

Russia

01/01/1900 Absolute Monarchy [Start: 11/02/1721]: On 11/02/1721 the Russian Empire was formed, making Russia into a monarchy.[30] From 1894, Tsar Nicholas II reigned the Empire, making him the last Emperor of Russia. Under him, the opposition, especially from the far left and center was repressed.[31] On 01/22/1905 the so called First Russian Revolution began as a massive wave of political and social unrest. The displeasure of the demonstrators was directed against the Tsar. As a result, Tsar Nicholas II was compelled to enact several reforms.
05/06/1906 End Absolute Monarchy/Start Constitutional Monarchy: On this date, the Russian Constitution of 1906 was adopted, which created the State Duma and a multi-party system.

[30] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_Empire
[31] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nicholas_II_of_Russia

However, the Duma had limited powers and was outranked by the Tsar.[32] Therefore, the Russian Empire stopped functioning as an absolute monarchy, and a constitutional monarchy was nominally established.

02/25/1917 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: The February Revolution ended the rule of the Tsar. On 03/15/1917 universal suffrage was established by a declaration of the Provisional Government.[33] The provisional government aimed to organize elections for the Russian Constituent Assembly and its convention. Initially led by Prince Georgy Lvov, the provisional government embarked on a series of short-lived reforms in its early weeks under his prime ministership. These reforms aimed to significantly liberalize Russia, introducing universal adult suffrage, granting freedoms of press and speech, abolishing capital punishment, and removing all legal restrictions based on religion, class, and race.[34] In July 1917 Alexander Kerensky took over.[35]

11/07/1917 Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Communist Ideocracy: On this date the Communists seized power in Petrograd by armed military and civilian supporters (Brooker 1995: 51, Skallerup 1991). However, "a partially democratic election of the Constituent Assembly still took place later in November. On 01/18/1918, this assembly passed a decree declaring Russia to be a democratic federal republic.[36], but had been dissolved by the Bolsheviks on the day after the proclamation. After the communist party under the leadership of Vladimir Lenin took over, there were still many who opposed the Communist Party. This conflict sparked the Civil War, pitting the White Army against the Red Army. The White Army comprised the opposition party, while the Red Army consisted of the government's armed forces and those who supported Vladimir Lenin. The Civil War led to the loss of 10–30 million lives.[37]

Union of Soviet Socialist Republics

12/28/1922 Start Communist Ideocracy [as Union of Soviet Socialist Republics]: On this date, the Russian Soviet Federative Socialist Republic became part of the USSR. The communist regime continued to rule. From that point on the country in the dataset is listed as USSR. Following Lenin's death in 1924, Joseph Stalin came to power. During this period, the Gulag's system of forced labor camps was further extended. Additionally, Stalin executed the Great

[32] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_Revolution_of_1905
[33] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[34] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_Republic, https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Russia_1918.pdf
[35] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_Provisional_Government
[36] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_Republic
[37] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_communism_in_the_Soviet_Union

Purge, aiming to eliminate both real and perceived adversaries.[38] After the outbreak of World War II, Germany invaded the USSR.[39] In the aftermath of World War II, the territory occupied by the Red Army formed various Soviet satellite states. The beginning of the Cold War saw the Eastern Bloc of the Soviet Union confront the Western Bloc of the United States, with the latter grouping becoming largely united in 1949 under NATO and the former grouping becoming largely united in 1955 under the Warsaw Pact. Following Stalin's death in 1953, a period known as de-Stalinization occurred under the leadership of Nikita Khrushchev.[40] The internal development of the USSR underwent significant changes. This period was symbolized by Khrushchev's "Secret Speech" in 1956, which criticized Stalin's methods and indicated a shift towards more lenient domestic policies. There was an increased focus on improving living standards and consumer goods production, alongside sustained investment in heavy industry. Khrushchev also initiated agricultural reforms, most notably the Virgin Lands Campaign, which had mixed success. Leonid Brezhnev's leadership from 1964 to 1982, often referred to as the Era of Stagnation, marked a return to more conservative and bureaucratic elements, reversing many of Khrushchev's reforms. This period was characterized by an emphasis on heavy industry with less attention paid to consumer goods and agriculture, leading to economic stagnation. Political and social life remained tightly controlled, with limited tolerance for dissent. Brezhnev's foreign policy was defined by the Brezhnev Doctrine, which justified Soviet intervention in Warsaw Pact countries to maintain communist regimes. These shifts in leadership and policy within the USSR reflected the evolving nature of the Soviet regime, impacting both domestic and international dynamics during this critical period of the Cold War. For a detailed exploration of these transformations, the following sources provide extensive information.[41] On 03/11/1985 Mikhail Gorbachev took over as General Secretary of the Communist Party. Implementing his policy of glasnost ('openness'), a significant cultural thaw unfolded under Mikhail Gorbachev's leadership. Freedoms of expression and information saw substantial expansion, enabling the press and broadcasting to express unprecedented candor in their reporting and criticism. The government eventually completely rejected the country's legacy of Stalinist totalitarian rule. Gorbachev's perestroika ('restructuring') policy aimed at the initial, modest efforts to democratize the Soviet

[38] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Soviet_Union
[39] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Soviet_Union
[40] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Soviet_Union
[4141] https://www.britannica.com/place/Soviet-Union; https://www.britannica.com/topic/Communist-Party-of-the-Soviet-Union

political system. Some elections to party and government positions saw the introduction of multicandidate contests and the use of the secret ballot.[42]

08/21/1991 End Communist Ideocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: On 06/12/1991 a free and fair presidential election in Russia took place, which was won by Boris Yeltsin.[43] The communist candidate, Nikolai Ryzhkov roughly received 17.2 per cent of the vote. On the level of the USSR civilian and military communist hardliners, including Vice President Gennady Yanayev greatly opposing Michail Gorbachev's domestic reforms and his plan to break up the Union into independent republics launched a coup on 08/21/1991. The coup was broken by public action and a reluctance by the hardliners to shed blood. In the aftermath, Gorbachev was not in effective command with power in effect being transferred to Boris Yeltsin.[44] Since Yeltsin only was elected on the Russian level, we classify the regime on the level of the USSR in this period as a non-electoral transitional (multiparty) regime.

Additional sources (Brzezinski 1956, Huber et al. 2015, LaPorte/Morgan/Worley 2008, Malia 1994, Voslensky 1984, White 2010, Zaslavsky/Brym 1978)

Russia

12/21/1991 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Democracy: On 12/21/1991 the USSR was officially abolished when representatives of eleven of the constituent republics signed an accord that replaced it with the Commonwealth of Independent States. On 12/25/1991, the Russian Federation officially became an independent state (Roeder 1993: 244).[45] Nevertheless, in 1990, the Congress of People's Deputies was elected under Soviet regulations, allocating the majority of seats to members of the Communist Party and other affiliated "public organizations." The Congress convened biannually to deliberate on constitutional matters and approve government personnel changes. The Supreme Soviet, a smaller standing legislature, was elected from the ranks of the Congress members. Civil and political liberties were overwhelmingly safeguarded (McColm 1993: : 424-428). From this point on the regime is

[42] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mikhail_Gorbachev
[43] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1991_Russian_presidential_election
[44] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1991_Soviet_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat_attempt; https://www.britannica.com/place/Soviet-Union/The-attempted-coup
[45] http://tinyurl.com/4xqb473

classified as democratic since the presidential elections from 06/12/1991 in Russia are classified as free and fair.

09/21/1993 End Democracy/Start Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy: Boris Yeltsin, facing political deadlock and resistance to a shock therapy agenda moved to eliminate his political opponents. The final act of his self-coup was to suspend the legislature which he did effectively. When the parliament refused to dissolve, voted to impeach him and proclaimed vice president as acting president, Yeltsin ordered troops to storm the parliament.[46] With his vice president already suspended, Yeltsin had full executive control.[47] In December 1993, a new federal assembly was elected under revised rules. Eight parties that had backed the parliament against Yeltsin were barred from participating (Ellison 1993, Simes 1994: 67-70, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 90). Hence, the elections were clearly not free and fair. After Yeltsin retired at the end of 1999, incumbent prime minister and acting president Vladimir Putin won the presidential elections in the first round. During the 2004 and 2008 elections, state-controlled media had displayed clear bias in favor of the incumbent and observers described the elections as neither free, nor fair.[48] After two four-year presidential terms from 2000 to 2008 in office, Putin remained the de facto leader, while working as prime minister while Dmitry Medvedev took over as president.[49] Putin returned to the presidency in 2012, violating the constitution's two-term limit.[50] Medvedev became prime minister from 2012 to 2020. Alleged forgeries were reported 2012 that could have affected Putin's victory in the first round.[51] Since 2003, politics in Russia has been dominated by the pro-Putin United Russia party which holds a supermajority in the State Duma, the ruling party effectively controls proceedings, rendering the parliament little more than a rubber stamp for Kremlin and government agendas.[52] Presidential elections took place in Russia from 03/15 to 17/2024, marking the eighth such election in the country. Incumbent President Vladimir Putin secured a fifth term with a reported 87% of the vote, the highest margin in post-Soviet Russia. However, the process was widely anticipated as predetermined, with prominent opposition leader Alexei Navalny barred from running due to a controversial prior conviction. Navalny's death in prison just before the election raised suspicions, further undermining the credibility of the electoral process. Increased political repression under Putin's administration, particularly following the conflict with Ukraine, led many international observers to doubt the fairness and

[46] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aleksandr_Rutskoy" \o "Aleksandr Rutskoy
[47] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1993_Russian_constitutional_crisis
[48] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2004_Russian_presidential_election
[49] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dmitry_Medvedev
[50] https://freedomhouse.org/country/russia/freedom-world/2022
[51] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2000_Russian_presidential_election
[52] https://www.europarl.europa.eu/thinktank/en/document/EPRS_BRI(2021)698018

freedom of the election. The elections also took place in Russian-occupied territories of Ukraine, where reports of irregularities, including ballot stuffing and coercion, surfaced.[53]
Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources Russia 1900-1917, 1991 onwards (Beichelt 2004, Evans 2008, Fish 2005, Kubicek 1994, Remington 2000, Shevëtìsova/Tait 2007, Van Herpen 2013, Cameron 1994, Cameron 1998, Dawisha/Parrott 1997, Hanson 2006)

Rwanda
[Also known as Ruanda]

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of Germany, Constitutional Monarchy] [Start: 07/01/1890]: On this date, Rwanda became a part of German East Africa and specifically part of the military district of Tanganyika-Kivu on 07/01/1890. From 1899 to 1907 Rwanda was part of the military district of Ruanda-Urundi.
05/01/1916 End Colonial Regime [of Germany, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Occupation Regime [by Belgium, Semidemocracy]: Belgian forces invaded Rwanda and Burundi during World War I. The Belgian occupation had a lasting effect in Rwanda. The territory captured was administered by a Belgian military occupation authority ("Belgian Occupied East African Territories").[54] The most lasting effect was how the colonial authorities racialized the differences between Hutu, Twa and Tutsi. This had a profound effect on Rwanda as it would be a constant source of internal conflict and violence. The Belgian occupation force expanded labor conscription; 20,000 men were drafted act as porters for the Mahenge offensive, and of these only one-third returned home, most of them were Hutu.[55] The people categorized as Tutsi were then favored for the most prestigious work and with a greater amount of power and decision making through the aristocracy and the King.[56]
07/20/1922 End Occupation Regime [by Belgium, Semidemocracy]/Start (de facto) Colonial Regime [of Belgium, Semidemocracy as International Mandate]: The League of Nations officially awarded Ruanda-Urundi to Belgium as a B-Class Mandate on 07/20/1922. As a mandate, it was subject to international oversight through the League's Permanent Mandates

[53] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2024_Russian_presidential_election
[54] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ruanda-Urundi
[55] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ruanda-Urundi
[56] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rwanda

Commission (PMC) in Geneva, Switzerland.[57] Administratively, the mandate was divided into two pays, Ruanda and Urundi, each under the nominal leadership of a tribal chief. On 12/13/1946, the newly formed United Nations voted to end the mandate over Ruanda-Urundi and replace it with the new status of "Trust Territory". To provide oversight, the PMC was superseded by the United Nations Trusteeship Council. The transition was accompanied by a promise that the Belgians would prepare the territory for independence.[58] Rwanda became United Nations trust territory (Ruanda-Urundi). Rwanda constituted the northern half of the Belgian mandate of Ruanda-Urundi after World War I and of the Belgian administered trust territory of the same name after World War II. The Decree of 07/14/1952 by the Belgian authorities introduced an element of democracy to the Rwandan political system, implementing a complex electoral system for parliament. In 1954, an election was held. Between 1946 and 1959 Rwanda is a borderline case between a de facto colony and a semi-sovereign protectorate (according to our classification). Resistance to the Tutsi monarchy by the more numerous Hutus intensified in the 1950s and culminated in November 1959 in a bloody revolt that overthrew the monarchy and led to the emigration of thousands of Tutsis (Lansford 2021: 1392).[59] The following months were marked by violence and the death of many Tutsis. The Tutsi king fled the country in 1960.[60]

10/18/1960 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [of Belgium, Democracy as International Mandate]/Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: On this date Rwanda gained autonomy. Belgium saw itself forced to organize elections in 1960, following the violent uprising. Under the leadership of Grégoire Kayibanda, the Party of the Movement for Hutu Emancipation (Parti du Mouvement de l'Emancipation du Peuple Hutu) also known as Parmehutu emerged as the spearhead of the revolution. Communal elections were held in 1960, resulting in a massive transfer of power to Hutu elements at the local level through an overwhelming victory of the Party of the Movement for Hutu Emancipation (Lansford 2021: 1392). The monarchy was not officially abolished until a constitutional referendum in 1961 (Limpitlaw 2016). However, since the monarch fled the country Rwanda was de facto already a republic in this period. Since the Hutu party was only elected for at the local level its government on the national level is considered as a non-electoral regime. On 01/28/1961 Rwanda proclaimed itself a republic, under the leadership of Dominique Mbonyumutwa.

09/25/1961 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, the countries' first multiparty parliamentary elections were held under UN auspices,

[57] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ruanda-Urundi
[58] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ruanda-Urundi
[59] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kingdom_of_Rwanda
[60] https://www.britannica.com/event/Rwanda-genocide-of-1994#ref1111304

with Parmehutu gaining a victory on the national level.[61] Kayibanda assumed the presidency on 10/26/1961, marking the formal end of trusteeship on 07/01/1962. His rule was marked by increasing power centralization and the attempt to build a court that was more akin to a presidential monarchy.[62] Subsequently, Tutsi émigrés sought to reinstate the monarchy, leading to their defeat in December 1963. This defeat sparked widespread reprisals against the remaining Tutsis, resulting in 10,000 to 15,000 fatalities and the displacement of 150,000 to 200,000 Tutsis to neighboring countries (Lansford 2021: 1392). Universal suffrage was introduced in 1961.[63]

07/01/1962 End Electoral Autocracy [as International Mandate]/Start One-Party Autocracy: Rwanda attained independence under the governance of Parmehutu, a single-party system established to advance the interests of the predominant Hutu ethnic group. Prior to independence, a popular uprising led by Hutus resulted in armed ethnic conflict, leading to the loss of tens of thousands of lives and the exile of over 100,000 Tutsis. Tutsis were excluded from representation in the government elected in September 1961, which promoted Hutu dominance and pursued a policy of violent repression against Tutsis (Weinstein 1977: 55-64, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 90-91).[64]

07/05/1973 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Military (Personalist) Autocracy: General Juvénal Habyalimana overthrew Tutsi President Kayibanda and at first attempted to equalize the two ethnic groups. Later, his policy reflected extreme favoritism to his Hutu ethnic group (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 90-91).[65] Habyarimana's regime was also corrupt. He and his associates enriched themselves through embezzlement and other forms of theft. The regime's corruption had a devastating impact on the Rwandan economy and led to widespread poverty and inequality. There were no elections during Habyarimana's rule. Habyarimana established a one-party state in which he was the only candidate for president. In 1975 he founded the National Revolutionary Movement for Development (Mouvement Révolutionnaire National pour le Développement, MRND). It was the only legal political party in Rwanda during his rule. All other political parties like the Parmehutu party, which had been dominated by Hutus from southern Rwanda, were banned.[66] However, the MRND served more or less as a mere vehicle for Habyarimana to consolidate his power and to control the political regime.[67] Nevertheless, the

[61] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1961_Rwandan_parliamentary_election
[62] Filip Reyntjens (2018) Understanding Rwandan politics through the longue durée: from the precolonial to the post-genocide era, Journal of Eastern African Studies, 12:3, 514-532, DOI: 10.1080/17531055.2018.1462985
[63] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[64] http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2861.html
[65] http://tinyurl.com/3upnvxt; http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2861.html
[66] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Revolutionary_Movement_for_Development
[67] https://www.britannica.com/topic/National-Revolutionary-Movement-for-Development

government remained almost entirely in military hands until 1978.[68] A new constitution promulgated in December 1978 provided for a return to civilian rule. The new constitution created a presidential republic with no term limits for the President and made the National Revolutionary Movement for Development the sole legal party.[69]

12/24/1978 End Military (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Personalist Autocracy: On this date, a constitutional referendum and presidential elections with Habyarimana as the sole candidate took place. Parliamentary elections followed in 1981, with two MRND candidates contesting each of the 64 seats. Habyarimana was re-elected again in 1983 and 1988, whilst parliamentary elections were held under the same system in 1983 and 1988.[70] From this point on it seems extremely hard to classify the regime as a military autocracy. However, GWF, HTW, MCM, REIGN and BR all classify this regime still after this point as a military autocracy/regime. We would emphasize here that it is a borderline case between a personalist and a military autocracy in the phase until 1978, afterwards it is a borderline case between a personalist and a one-party autocracy. We classify the regime as a personalist autocracy because, firstly, the military no longer exercised control over Habyarimana. Secondly, the MRND was only founded by Habyarimana in 1975, thus at a time when he was already in power. This is a case of a regime party that was founded for the sole purpose of allowing the ruler to remain in power. Therefore, it could not exercise independent control or elect its leader. Another point in favor of this view is that the MRND was banned after Habyarimana´s death in 1994 and there was no legal successor to the party.[71] Therefore, both the parliamentary and presidential elections served only to confirm the candidates. Following Habyarimana's demise in a plane crash, ethnic extremists instigated the Rwandan genocide on 04/06/1994.[72] Habayrimana was succeeded as president by Théodore Sindikubwabo. As the genocide began, Major General Paul Kagame of the Rebel forces of the Rwandese Patriotic Front (RPF), made up mostly of exiled Tutsi Rwandans who had served in Museveni's insurgent force or the Ugandan army, warned of resuming the civil war if killings persisted. The next day, the RPF repelled a government attack on the national parliament, launching their own offensive from the north to connect with isolated troops in Kigali. Kagame refused dialogue with the interim government, doubting its commitment to stopping the genocide.[73]

[68] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Juv%C3%A9nal_Habyarimana
[69] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1978_Rwandan_constitutional_referendum
[70] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Revolutionary_Movement_for_Development
[71] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Revolutionary_Movement_for_Development
[72] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pasteur_Bizimungu;
https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Rwanda_2015?lang=en
[73] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rwandan_genocide

07/04/1994 End Personalist Autocracy/Start Military (Rebel) Autocracy: On this date the Tutsi RPF led by Major General Kagame took Kigali. On 07/19/1994 President Theodore Sindikubwabo fled the country when the invading Rwandese Patriotic Front rebels defeated the security forces and ended the genocide. Augustin Bizimungo was installed as president. Yet, Paul Kagame was regarded as Rwanda's de facto leader during his tenure as Vice President and Minister of Defense under Bizimungu from 1994 to 2000.[74] A Tutsi-led ruling group was established, which became more inclusive over time (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 91).[75]

08/25/2003 End Military (Rebel)Autocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: Rwanda held its first direct presidential elections on 08/25/2003, following the Rwandan Civil War and marking the first multi-party presidential elections in the country's history. Paul Kagame, representing the Rwandan Patriotic Front (RPF), won the election with 95% of the vote and was elected for a seven-year term. However, outside observers widely criticized the elections as fraudulent. According to scholar Timothy Longman, the elections did not serve as a transition to democracy but rather as a means for the RPF to consolidate their rule through forced mobilizations, which left the Rwandan population disillusioned.[76] Prior to the presidential elections, the constitutional court ruled that the MDR and the PDC were illegal parties because of their role in the events of 1994 (Lansford 2021: 1394). Parliamentary elections were held in Rwanda between 09/29/2003 and 10/02/2003. They were the first parliamentary elections since 1988 and the second multi-party national elections in the country's history. They were held following the approval of a new constitution in a referendum in August 2003.[77] During the 2008 legislative elections, the FPR once more established an electoral coalition, which secured 42 seats in the direct elections. Additionally, the Social Democratic Party obtained seven seats, and the Liberal Party secured four. Despite the boycott by the primary opposition groups, international observers deemed the elections to be free and fair (Lansford 2021: 1394). In the 2017 presidential election, Kagame secured a significant victory, obtaining 98.8 percent of the vote according to official records. Frank Habineza of the Democratic Green Party of Rwanda (DGPR) and independent candidate Philippe Mpayimana shared the remaining percentage. However, the electoral process faced several challenges, including political intimidation, unfair registration procedures, and accusations of fraud during the voting process itself.[78]

Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

[74] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Paul_Kagame
[75] http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2861.html; https://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-13431486
[76] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2003_Rwandan_presidential_election
[77] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2003_Rwandan_parliamentary_election
[78] https://freedomhouse.org/country/rwanda/freedom-world/2021

Additional sources (Eriksen 2005, Stolz 1999)

Saint Barthélemy

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy as Part of Guadeloupe)] [Start: 03/16/1878]: By 1648, the French settled on the island, initially with about 50 to 60 settlers, supported by Phillippe de Longvilliers de Poincy, the lieutenant-governor of the French West India Company. However, the island faced economic difficulties and was frequently targeted by pirates and the British, who attacked it in 1744. Consequently, King Louis XVI considered it of little value and traded the island to Sweden in 1784 in exchange for trade privileges in Gothenburg. Slavery was practiced on the island under the 1787 Ordinance concerning the Police of Slaves and free Colored People. The last legally owned slaves in the Swedish colony were granted freedom by the state on 10/09/1847. In 1852, a devastating hurricane struck the island, followed by a fire, which severely impacted the economy. In response to these challenges, Sweden sought to relinquish control of the island. After a referendum in 1877, Sweden sold the island back to France in 1878, and it was subsequently administered as part of Guadeloupe.[79]
03/19/1946 End Colonial Regime [of France, Democracy as Part of Guadeloupe)]/Start Part of other Country [as Part of Guadeloupe, France, Democracy]: On this date, the inhabitants of the island were granted full French citizenship with all associated rights and privileges. Saint Barthélemy was a French municipality within Guadeloupe, an overseas region and department of France, for an extended period. In 2003, following a referendum, the island's inhabitants expressed their desire to break away from Guadeloupe's administrative control.[80]
02/22/2007 Continuation as Part of other Country [as Overseas Collectivity of France, Democracy]: Saint Barthélemy transformed into an Overseas Collectivity (COM) and established a territorial council for self-governance, granting the island a measure of autonomy. A senator now represents the island in Paris, and it has maintained its free port status. On 01/01/2012, Saint Barthélemy stopped being an outermost region of the European Union (EU) and instead became an Overseas Country or Territory (OCT).[81] The island is governed by a president elected every five years, a unicameral Territorial Council comprising nineteen members elected by the public

[79] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saint_Barth%C3%A9lemy#History
[80] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saint_Barth%C3%A9lemy#History
[81] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saint_Barth%C3%A9lemy#History

for five-year terms, and an executive council consisting of seven members. The first elections for these councils took place on 07/01/2007, with the most recent election occurring in 2022.[82]
Part of other Country [as Overseas Collectivity of France, Democracy] as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Saint Helena, Ascension and Tristan da Cunha

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 08/14/1816]: In 1657, Oliver Cromwell granted the English East India Company a charter to administer Saint Helena, and the subsequent year, the Company chose to strengthen the island's defenses and establish a settlement with planters. Ascension Island, previously unoccupied, was strategically occupied by the Royal Navy on 10/22/1815. Similarly, Tristan da Cunha was annexed as a dependency of the Cape Colony (British South Africa) on 08/14/1816, as part of the resolution of the Napoleonic Wars, driven by similar strategic considerations.[83] On 08/28/1833 Saint Helena became a crown colony by the Government of India Act.[84] Ascension Island became a dependency of Saint Helena in September 1922, with Tristan da Cunha following suit in January 1938. These three islands were collectively governed under the flagship of "Saint Helena and Dependencies".[85] St. Helena gained a degree of self-rule with an Order in Council and Royal Instructions in 1966 (implemented in January 1967), establishing local executive and legislative councils.'[86]
01/01/1983 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, (Monarchical) Democracy]/Start Democracy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: The British Nationality Act of 1981 reclassified Saint Helena and other crown colonies as British Dependent Territories. As a result, the residents lost their designation as 'Citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies,' as outlined in the British Nationality Act of 1948, and were deprived of their right of abode in Britain.[87] The implementation of the Saint Helena Constitution occurred in 1989, stipulating that the governance of the island would be overseen by a governor, a commander-in-chief, and both an elected executive and legislative council. The inception of the Commission on Citizenship in

[82] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saint_Barth%C3%A9lemy#Politics_and_government
[83] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saint_Helena,_Ascension_and_Tristan_da_Cunha#English_colonisation
[84] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Government_of_India_Act_1833
[85] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Saint_Helena,_Ascension_and_Tristan_da_Cunha#Formation_and_Constitution,_1922%E2%80%93present
[86] https://www.britannica.com/place/Saint-Helena-island-South-Atlantic-Ocean/History
[87] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Saint_Helena#British_rule,_a_Crown_colony,_1834%E2%80%931981

1992 marked the reinstatement of the residents' privileges, encompassing the right of abode. Subsequently, in 2002, the restoration of the right to British citizenship was accomplished.[88] The relationship with Great Britain evolved, leading to the approval of a new constitution by both parties in July 2009. This constitution, in effect from 09/01, included a bill of rights, curtailed some of the governor's powers, and granted more authority to elected council members.[89]
Democracy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy] as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Saint Kitts and Nevis

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 09/03/1783]: In 1882 the islands were united as Saint Christopher-Nevis-Anguilla (Saint Christopher also called Saint Kitts). The islands were part of the Leeward Islands from 1833 to 01/01/1960 (see under Antigua and Barbuda). Despite being one of the smallest territories in the West Indies, St. Kitts holds historical significance as Britain's first colony in the region, established in 1623. Ownership of the island was disputed with France until 1783 when Britain gained undisputed control through the Treaty of Versailles. St. Kitts, along with Nevis and Anguilla, formed a tripartite entity and joined the West Indies Federation in 1952 (Lansford 2021: 1401). On 10/06/1952 the first general elections with universal suffrage were held.[90]
02/27/1967 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Democracy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: On this date St. Kitts and Nevis achieved independence as an independent state in association with the United Kingdom as a member of the West Indies Associated States. This arrangement granted the islands full internal self-government, while the United Kingdom retained responsibilities for defense and foreign affairs.[91] Three months later, Anguilla rejected governance from Basseterre (Lansford 2021: 1401). Anguilla received its own constitution on 02/10/1976, leading to the formal dissolution of its union with Saint Kitts and Nevis in 1980.[92]
09/19/1983 Continuation Democracy [as independent country]: On 09/19/1983 independence was reached as the Federation of Saint Christopher (or Saint Kitts) and Nevis. Nevis got limited

[88] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saint_Helena#1981_to_present
[89] https://www.britannica.com/place/Saint-Helena-island-South-Atlantic-Ocean/History
[90] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1965_Laotian_coups
[91] https://www.britannica.com/place/Saint-Kitts-and-Nevis/History
[92] https://www.britannica.com/place/Saint-Kitts-and-Nevis/History

self-government.[93] In 1984, early elections were held, resulting in the Nevis Reformation Party (NRP) winning all three seats in Nevis, while the People's Action Movement (PAM) secured six seats in St. Kitts. In contrast, the Labour Party won two seats. Despite the Labour Party winning the popular vote nationwide, the distribution of seats favored the NRP and PAM.[94] Throughout its history, St. Kitts and Nevis has been known for conducting elections that are characterized by fairness and freedom. However, the 1993 elections faced significant opposition and led to protests from the opposing party. The situation escalated to the point where the Regional Security System (RSS) was temporarily deployed to restore order in the country. Following the general election held on 08/05/2022, Terrance Drew got elected as the fourth and current Prime Minister of Saint Kitts and Nevis. His victory came as his party, the St. Kitts-Nevis Labour Party (SKNLP), won the election.[95] Periodic elections are held under universal suffrage with regular changes in government.[9697]
Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Hillebrands/Schwehm 2005)

Saint Lucia

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 05/30/1814]: From 1782 to 1803, St. Lucia changed hands multiple times between Britain and France. During this period, the British had to quell a strong revolutionary movement supported by rebellious slaves before finally gaining control in 1803. On 05/30/1814 Saint Lucia was officially transferred to Britain through the Treaty of Paris[98], subsequently becoming a crown colony.[99] St. Lucia was part of the Winward Islands from 1838 - 01/01/1960 (see under Grenada), along with Dominica, Grenada, and St. Vincent (Lansford 2021: 1404). Throughout the 20th century, St. Lucia experienced a significant increase in self-government. In 1924, a constitution was established, granting the island its initial system of representative government. This introduced

[93] https://www.gov.kn/the-constitution/#:~:text=The%20Constitution%20of%20Saint%20Kitts,the%20citizens%20of%20the%20federation.; https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/St_Kitts_and_Nevis_1983?lang=en
[94] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Saint_Kitts_and_Nevis#Saint_Kitts_and_Nevis_(1883_%E2%80%93_present)
[95] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Saint_Kitts_and_Nevis
[96] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1952_Saint_Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla_general_election
[97] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2022_Saint_Kitts_and_Nevis_general_election
[98] https://www.britannica.com/event/Treaties-of-Paris-1814-1815
[99] https://www.britannica.com/place/Saint-Lucia/History

a limited number of elected members to the legislative council, which was previously composed entirely of appointed individuals. In 1951, universal adult suffrage was implemented, resulting in elected members becoming the majority in the council. The 1951 general election on this date allowed all adult citizens to vote regardless of wealth, gender, social status, ethnicity, political stance, or any other restriction.[100] The introduction of ministerial government took place in 1956. St. Lucia briefly became a part of the West Indies Federation in 1958, a semi-autonomous dependency of the United Kingdom. However, the federation collapsed in 1962 when Jamaica withdrew, leading to an unsuccessful attempt at creating a smaller federation. Subsequently, the United Kingdom and the islands of Grenada, St. Vincent, Dominica, Antigua, St. Kitts and Nevis, Anguilla, and St. Lucia established a unique form of cooperation known as associated statehood.[101]

03/01/1967 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Democracy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: On this date associated statehood for St. Lucia was brought by with the West Indies Act, according to which, each state possessed complete authority over its constitution, granting them internal self-government. However, the United Kingdom maintained responsibility for external affairs and defense.[102]

02/22/1979 Continuation Democracy [as independent country]: After initially calling for a referendum, the opposition St. Lucia Labour Party (SLP), led by Allan Louisy, participated in a constitutional conference held in London in July 1978. Following approval of the proposed constitution by the St. Lucia House of Assembly on 10/24 and a draft termination order by both houses of Parliament in December, independence within the Commonwealth was proclaimed on 02/22/1979, with Premier Compton assuming the office of prime minister.[103] Following a sweeping triumph by the leftist-oriented SLP on 02/07/1979, Compton was succeeded by Louisy (Lansford 2021: 1404). On 07/02/1979, general elections took place in Saint Lucia, which were won by the Saint Lucia Labour Party. The party secured twelve out of the seventeen seats.[104] The last general elections in St. Lucia were held on 07/26/2021. During the elections, voters chose all 17 members of the House of Assembly. The outcome marked a victory for the opposition Saint Lucia Labour Party, which secured 13 out of the 17 seats in the House. In contrast, the ruling United Workers Party experienced a significant setback, losing nine out of its eleven seats.[105]

[100] https://www.govt.lc/news/saint-lucia-observes-universal-adult-suffrage
[101] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Saint_Lucia#20th_century_to_21st_century
[102] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/West_Indies_Associated_States
[103] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/St_Lucia_1978?lang=en
[104] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1979_Saint_Lucian_general_election
[105] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2021_Saint_Lucian_general_election

With a freedom score of 92, Freedom House classifies Saint Lucia as a free, stable democracy. However, issues such as corruption remain an issue, the Corruption Perceptions Index giving it a 55/100.[106] St. Lucia operates as a parliamentary democracy with competitive elections and a history of peaceful transitions of power between opposing parties. However, ongoing issues include instances of government corruption and a lack of transparency, reports of police brutality with a perception of impunity, and instances of discrimination against the LGBT+ community.[107] Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Hillebrands/Nohlen 2005)

Saint Martin

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [France, Semidemocracy as part of Guadeloupe][Start: 23/03/1648]: Saint Martin, initially a Spanish territory, piqued the interests of European powers, mainly France and the United Provinces, resulting in a decline in the native Amerindian population due to introduced diseases. In 1631, the Dutch established Fort Amsterdam on the island for salt mining, but Spanish control was regained in 1633. Despite Dutch attempts in 1644, they couldn't retake the island. The end of the Eighty Years' War in 1648 rendered the island less valuable to Spain, leading to its abandonment, with the Dutch and French dividing it by the Treaty of Concordia on 03/23/1648.[108] French Saint Martin, led by Governor Robert de Longvilliers, saw border adjustments over time, settling by 1817. Slavery was abolished by the French in 1848 and the Dutch in 1863, but enforcement became challenging as slaves could move freely between the Dutch and French sides. In 1763, Saint Martin merged with France's Guadeloupe colony.[109]
03/19/1946 End Colonial Regime [of France, Democracy as part of Guadeloupe]/Start Part of other Country [France, Democracy (as Part of Guadeloupe)]: On this date, Saint Martin (together with Saint Barthélemy) was officially incorporated into the Guadeloupe département as an arrondissement.[110]
07/15/2007 Continuation as Part of other Country [as Overseas Collectivity of France, Democracy]: On this date, Saint Martin was separated from Guadeloupe and transformed into a

[106] https://www.transparency.org/en/cpi/2023/index/lca
[107] https://freedomhouse.org/country/st-lucia/freedom-world/2023
[108] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Treaty_of_Concordia
[109] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collectivity_of_Saint_Martin#History
[110] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collectivity_of_Saint_Martin#20th%E2%80%9321st_centuries

territorial collectivity, complete with its Prefect and Territorial Council.[111] The President of France serves as the Chief of State and is locally represented by a Prefect appointed by the President based on the Minister of the Interior's advice in France. Saint Martin elects a single representative to the French Senate and one to the French National Assembly (it's important to note that the latter position is shared with Saint Barthélemy). Saint Martin is Part of the European Union.[112]

Part of other Country [as Overseas Collectivity of France, Democracy] as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Saint Pierre and Miquelon

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy] [Start: 05/30/1814]: Starting in the late 17th century, Saint Pierre and Miquelon faced English attacks, causing the French settlers to leave the islands. The British held control from 1713 to 1763, after which France regained ownership. However, when France joined the American Revolutionary War against Britain, the British launched an attack, leading to the deportation of the French settlers. Over the next 38 years, Saint Pierre and Miquelon changed hands several times between France and Great Britain. The islands endured ongoing invasions, the voluntary or forced removal of residents, and upheaval connected to the French Revolution. On 05/30/1814, the islands were finally ceded to France by the Treaty of Paris. During the War of the Seventh Coalition, the islands were occupied by the British temporarily, but in 1815, following Napoleon's second abdication, France ultimately regained permanent control of the islands.[113]

10/27/1946 End Colonial Regime [of France, Democracy]/Start Part of Other Country [France, Democracy]: On this date, the colony attained the status of a French Overseas Territory. [114] Saint Pierre and Miquelon acquired a unique status as an overseas collectivity in March 2003. Previously, the archipelago had moved through different statuses, starting as an overseas territory in 1946, then becoming an overseas department on 07/19/1976. Finally, it achieved territorial collectivity status on 06/11/1985, with two communes, Saint-Pierre and Miquelon-Langlade. The third commune, Isle-aux-Marins, was merged with Saint-Pierre in 1945. The residents are French citizens with voting rights. Saint Pierre and Miquelon elect a senator and a deputy to represent

[111] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collectivity_of_Saint_Martin#20th%E2%80%9321st_centuries
[112] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Collectivity_of_Saint_Martin#Politics_and_government
[113] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Saint_Pierre_and_Miquelon
[114] https://www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Saint-Pierre_and_Miquelon

them in the French parliament, and they have a degree of autonomy in managing taxes, customs, and excise.[115] The islands themselves are governed by a French-appointed prefect, supported by a privy council and an elected general council.[116]
Part of other Country [France, Democracy] as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Saint Vincent and the Grenadines

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy as part of the Windward Islands] [Start: 02/10/1763]: From 02/10/1763, Saint Vincent passed through various stages of colonial status under the British administration. A representative assembly was authorized in 1776, the Crown Colony government was installed in 1877, and a legislative council created in 1925, but franchise was limited, and most descendants of slaves were disenfranchised. The 1951 constitutional reform introduced universal adult suffrage and direct election of the majority of the legislative council members.[117] (Lansford 2021: 1408). Therefore, in line with the typical constitutional evolution of the British West Indies after World War II, Great Britain permitted the gradual formation of an autonomous local government in the colony (Hillebrands/Trefs 2005:595).
01/03/1958 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy as part of the Windward Islands]/Start Democracy [as associated state of United Kingdom]: On this date, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines joined the West Indies Federation, founded by ten British insular colonies, to form a territorial union that was economically and politically independent from Great Britain. The federation was dissolved in 1962. On 10/27/1969, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines were granted associated statehood status as an internally self-governing territory as part of the collective West Indies Associated States (Lansford 2021: 1408). From 1974 onwards, elections have been held regularly.
10/27/1979 Continuation Democracy [as independent country]: On this date, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines gained full independence following a referendum.[118] After gaining special membership in the Commonwealth in 1979, Sir Sydney Gun-Munro, the former governor, assumed the honorary position of governor-general. Concurrently, Premier Robert Milton Cato became the prime minister. Cato retained his position following the 05/12/1979 election, where his St. Vincent Labour Party (SVLP) won 11 out of 13 elective parliamentary seats (Lansford

[115] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saint_Pierre_and_Miquelon#Politics
[116] https://www.britannica.com/place/Saint-Pierre-and-Miquelon
[117] https://2009-2017.state.gov/outofdate/bgn/saintvincentandgrenadines/11730.htm
[118] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/St_Vincent_and_the_Grenadines_1979?lang=en

2021: 1408). During Cato's tenure, the government faced growing opposition from the population due to perceived ineffective social and economic policies. The repression of trade unions and opposition groups led to the formation of the National Committee in Defense of Democracy in 1981. Following the 1984 parliamentary elections, the New Democratic Party (NDP) led by James F. Mitchell came to power, ending the ten-year rule of the Saint Vincent Labor Party (SNLP) under Milton Cato. The SVLP's electoral defeat was attributed to corruption scandals and a deteriorating national economy (Hillebrands/Trefs 2005). St. Vincent and the Grenadines is a parliamentary democracy with unicameral system. The constitution mandates the direct election of 15 representatives to the unicameral House of Assembly, while the governor general appoints six senators to the chamber. Regular elections occur, facilitating numerous transitions of power between various parties. Although civil liberties are typically respected, journalists may encounter the threat of criminal defamation charges, and same-sex relationships are prohibited by law. Violent crime remains a significant concern within the country.[119] The Unity Labor Party won the elections and Ralph Gonsalves remained prime minister. The 2020 elections were deemed free and fair.[120] St. Vincent and the Grenadines is a parliamentary democracy with unicameral system. The constitution mandates the direct election of 15 representatives to the unicameral House of Assembly, while the governor general appoints six senators to the chamber. Regular elections occur, facilitating numerous transitions of power between various parties. Although civil liberties are typically respected, journalists may encounter the threat of criminal defamation charges, and same-sex relationships are prohibited by law. Violent crime remains a significant concern within the country.[121] The Unity Labor Party won the elections and Ralph Gonsalves remained prime minister. The 2020 elections were deemed free and fair.[122]
Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Samoa

01/01/1900 (de facto) Colonial Regime [of Germany, Constitutional Monarchy] [Start: 12/02/1899]: Samoa became the final German colonial acquisition in the Pacific basin when it was received through the Tripartite Convention. This agreement was signed on 12/02/1899 and

[119] https://freedomhouse.org/country/st-vincent-and-grenadines/freedom-world/2023
[120] https://freedomhouse.org/country/st-vincent-and-grenadines/freedom-world/2023
[121] https://freedomhouse.org/country/st-vincent-and-grenadines/freedom-world/2023
[122] https://freedomhouse.org/country/st-vincent-and-grenadines/freedom-world/2023

the ratifications were exchanged on 02/16/1900 in Washington. The German colonial period lasted for 14 years. Wilhelm Solf became the first governor.[123]

08/29/1914 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [of Germany, (Constitutional) Monarchy]/Start Occupation Regime [by New Zealand, Democracy]: On this date, during the early stages of World War I, the New Zealand Expeditionary Force successfully landed on Upolu without facing any opposition. They took control from the German authorities in response to a request from Great Britain, who sought New Zealand's assistance in carrying out this significant and time-sensitive imperial duty.[124]

12/17/1920 End Occupation Regime [by New Zealand, Democracy]/Start (de facto) Colonial Regime [as International Mandate of New Zealand, Democracy]: On this date, the League of Nations officially granted New Zealand a Class C Mandate over Samoa, which was formerly a German colony. This mandate was established through the Samoa Constitution Order of 1920, replacing the military occupation with a civil administration starting from 05/01/1920. Between 1920 and 1962, Samoa was administered by the Department of External Affairs, a government department which had been specially created to oversee New Zealand's Island Territories and Samoa.[125] The Samoa Act of 1921, effective from 04/01/1922, solidified the governance structure. According to the Samoa Act, the New Zealand Governor-General appointed an administrator stationed in Apia to exercise executive power and report to the New Zealand Minister of External Affairs in Wellington. The administrator and a local legislative council held the authority to create laws, although ultimate decision-making power rested with Wellington.[126]After 1945, the mandate's classification was altered to that of a United Trust Territory.[127]

01/01/1962 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [as International Mandate of New Zealand, Democracy]/Start Electoral Oligarchy: On this date, Samoa gained independence from New Zealand and adopted the name "Western Samoa." Upon gaining independence, Western Samoa implemented the 1960 Constitution, which took effect and became the governing framework. This constitution draws inspiration from the British Westminster model of parliamentary democracy, while also incorporating elements of Samoan traditions and customs. The constitution framed Samoa as a parliamentary representative democracy that used a single member district plurality electoral system. However, only "Matai" were entitled to vote or stand

[123] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/German_Samoa
[124] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Samoa
[125] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Samoa
[126] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Western_Samoa_Trust_Territory
[127] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Western_Samoa_Trust_Territory

as candidates in elections in Samoa.[128] This restriction is reflected in the percentage of the population that participates in elections. According to Vanhanen between it ranges between 4.1 (1964) and 10.5 (1988) (Vanhanen 2019). In Samoa, the term "Matai" refers to the heads of families and extended families, and they play a central role in Samoan society. The Matai system is a traditional system of governance and social organization in Samoa, where each family group, or 'aiga, has its own Matai. The Matai are responsible for the welfare of their family group and play significant roles in village governance and decision-making processes. They are chosen based on their leadership skills, wisdom, and ability to serve and care for the family and the wider community. The selection process is usually based on consensus among family members, and a Matai can be either male or female. Due to this circumstance, Samoa is for example classified as oligarchy in other datasets (LIED). During the first ten years after independence the system resembled consensus politics. Most members of parliament were elected unopposed in their constituencies. In 1970 a period of 'parliamentary factional politics' started. For the first time more than one candidate contested the office of Prime Minister. Furthermore, political parties emerged. As parliamentarians increasingly vied for ministerial roles and influence, the competition for constituency seats became more intense. This trend reached its zenith with the establishment of political parties and heightened competition among candidates for parliamentary seats, ultimately culminating in the adoption of universal suffrage in 1990 (So'o 2001: 781).As the constitution was adopted, it was anticipated, that future heads of state would be chosen from among the four matai paramount chiefs in line with customary protocol. This is not a constitutional requirement, so Samoa can be considered a parliamentary republic, rather than a constitutional monarchy.[129] At the time of independence, two out of the four highest-ranking paramount chiefs, known as Tama a 'Aiga, were appointed as joint heads of state, serving lifetime terms. Additionally, Fiamē Mataʻafa Faumuina Mulinuʻu II, another paramount chief, was elected to parliament and assumed the role of the country's first Prime Minister. Following the passing of his colleague Tupua Tamasese Mea'ole in 1963, Malietoa Tanumafili II held the position of Head of State alone.[130]

11/12/1990 End Electoral Oligarchy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date a constitutional referendum took place. The voting system was changed by the Electoral Amendment Act which introduced universal suffrage. However, the right to stand for elections remained with matai title holders. Of the approximately 220.000 inhabitants of Samoa, only 25.000 are matai, of whom

[128] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Samoa;
https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Samoa_2017?lang=en
[129] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/O_le_Ao_o_le_Malo
[130] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Samoa

only 5% are women. Due to the deficits in the right to stand for elections, Samoa cannot be classified as a full democracy.[131] Western Samoa was renamed in State of Samoa on 07/04/1997. On 06/16/2007 Tui Ātua Tupua Tamasese Efi was elected by the legislature to succeed Tanumafili after his death in May 2007. Tanumafili served a five-year term starting from June 2007.[132] In 2021, an extraordinary political crisis unfolded in Samoa following controversial election results in April. The opposition party seemed poised to overthrow the ruling party, marking the potential end of their three-decade-long reign. Fiame Naomi Mataafa, the daughter of Fiame Faumuina Mataafa, was on the verge of becoming Samoa's first female prime minister. However, the ruling party contested that the composition of the newly elected legislature did not meet constitutional requirements, a claim dismissed by the judiciary. On May 24, when the newly elected members arrived at the parliament building to assume their seats, they were denied entry. Despite this, Mataafa took her oath of office outside the building. Meanwhile, Tuilaepa Sailele Malielegaoi, who had been the prime minister since 1998, declared his intention to continue as a caretaker until the dispute was resolved. In late June, the Supreme Court ordered the convening of parliament within seven days. However, when the head of state attempted to postpone the proceedings, the Court of Appeal ruled in July that Mataafa's oath of office had been valid and legitimate.[133] In the 2021 elections, the opposition party Fa‘atuatua i le Atua Samoa ua Tasi (FAST) overtook the longstanding HRPP. When HRPP lawmakers did not accept the election results, the incoming government declined to swear them in. The supreme court intervened to address the crisis, showcasing its capability and autonomy. Overall, civil liberties and political rights are upheld and honored.[134]

Semidemocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Samoa, American

01/01/1900 (de facto) Colonial Regime [of USA, Semidemocracy] [Start: 12/02/1899]: In 1872, the chief of the eastern Samoan islands granted permission to the United States to establish a naval base in exchange for military protection. Subsequently, in 1878, the U.S. Navy constructed a coaling station in Pago Pago Bay for its Pacific Squadron and appointed a local Secretary. The origins of American Samoa can be traced back to the Second Samoan Civil War and the Tripartite

[131] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Samoa
[132] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Samoa
[133] https://www.britannica.com/place/Samoa-island-nation-Pacific-Ocean/History#ref224603
[134] https://freedomhouse.org/country/samoa/freedom-world/2022

Convention of 1899, where Germany, the United States, and the United Kingdom reached an agreement. The Convention was signed on 12/02/1899 and resolved international rivalries by dividing the Samoan archipelago between Germany and the U.S.[135] The eastern Samoan islands became U.S. territories, ultimately forming American Samoa, and the U.S. formally took control the following year, particularly focusing on the strategic harbor of Pago Pago.[136] In the Treaty of Cession of Tutuila in 1900, several chiefs from the island of Tutuila pledged allegiance to the United States and formally transferred the island to American control. The final ruler of Manu'a, Tui Manu'a Elisara, endorsed the Treaty of Cession of Manu'a in 1904. These agreements were subsequently confirmed by the United States through the Ratification Act of 1929.[137] After World War II, the U.S. Department of Interior sponsored Organic Act 4500, aiming to incorporate American Samoa. However, the attempt was thwarted in Congress, largely due to the efforts of American Samoan chiefs. Their resistance led to the establishment of a local legislature, the American Samoa Fono, situated in the capital village of Fagatogo. Over time, the Navy-appointed governor was replaced by a locally elected one. [138]

07/01/1967 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [of USA, Democracy]/Start Democracy [as Protectorate of USA, Democracy]: On 07/01/1967 a constitution was enacted, which granted American Samoa a higher degree of self-government. Notably, the U.S. Territory of American Samoa is listed as a non-self-governing territory by the United Nations. A listing which is disputed by the territorial government officials, who do consider themselves to be self-governing.[139] The governance system follows a structure of a presidential representative democratic dependency, where the Governor of American Samoa serves as the head of government. Legislative authority is vested in the American Samoa Fono, while the judiciary operates independently of the executive and legislative branches.[140] The head of government in American Samoa is the Governor, who, along with the Lieutenant Governor of American Samoa, is elected together on a single ticket through popular vote for a four-year term.[141] American

[135] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tripartite_Convention

[136] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_American_Samoa#European_and_American_Colonial_Division_of_the_Samoan_archipelago

[137] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_American_Samoa#Colonization_by_the_United_States

[138] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_American_Samoa#Current_status_of_the_territory_and_attempts_of_incorporation_in_the_United_States

[139] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_American_Samoa#Current_status_of_the_territory_and_attempts_of_incorporation_in_the_United_States

[140] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Government_of_American_Samoa

[141] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/American_Samoa#Government_and_politics

Samoa operates as a parliamentary democracy, maintaining the preservation of political rights and civil liberties. However, corruption poses a significant challenge, and although investigative journalists are active, the fear of substantial fines for defamation may lead to self-censorship. Additionally, there is a notable underrepresentation of women in politics within the country.[142] In March 2022 the parliament and judicial council adopted reforms aimed at combatting corruption.[143]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 [as Protectorate of USA, Democracy] continued.

San Marino

01/01/1900 Electoral Oligarchy [Start: 10/08/1600]: Around 1200, San Marino was governed by the Council of the Heads of State, the Arengo. Two Captain Regents ruled the city-state, selected for six months and representing the state equally. However, the Arengo gradually transferred its powers to the Grand and General Council, formed in the 14th century. This council comprised 20 nobles, 20 burghers, and 20 land-owning peasants. The Grand Council eventually evolved into an oligarchy dominated by a few influential families. On 10/08/1600, a new constitution was introduced, which formalized the existing institutional system (Baukhage 2010). When Napoleon invaded Italy in 1797, he respected San Marino's independence, further confirmed by the 1815 Congress of Vienna. After political upheavals in Italy ended in 1862, the newly formed Kingdom of Italy officially recognized San Marino.[144] Until 1906, the 60 members of parliament were appointed for life.[145] Overall, until 1906 the political system of San Marino bore more resemblance to an oligarchy than a democracy (Baukhage 2010: 1669). On 03/25/1906, the *Arengo* was reconstituted through a referendum, which ended the non-electoral oligarchical system and restored its power to elect the Grand Council. Since then, the Grand Council has been elected in direct, equal, and secret elections. However, voting rights were restricted to male heads of households and academics, excluding women, clergy, the mentally disabled, and felons (Baukhage 2010).

06/19/1909 End Electoral Oligarchy/Start (Male) Semidemocracy: Suffrage was expanded to male citizens aged 21 or older in 1909. However, women gained the right to vote only in 1957. In this period San Marino experienced an unstable and restricted democratic phase. San Marino remained neutral during the First World War. Between 1918 and 1923, a period characterized by

[142] https://freedomhouse.org/country/san-marino/freedom-world/2023
[143] https://freedomhouse.org/country/san-marino/freedom-world/2023
[144] https://www.britannica.com/place/Sao-Tome-and-Principe/Government-and-society
[145] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/San_Marino#Die_Zeit_bis_zum_Ende_des_Zweiten_Weltkriegs

relatively unstable governments ensued (Veenendaal 2020, Baukhage 2010).[146] AF classifies San Marino between 1906 and 1925 as a parliamentary democracy, LIED as a male democracy between 1909 and 1920 and as a multiparty autocracy until 1922. We classify this period as (male) semidemocracy, as there are no indications of serious deficits that would lead to classification as an electoral autocracy.

03/03/1923 End (Male) Semidemocracy/Start Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy: On this date, a fascist government was elected, but the country remained neutral during the Second World War. Under the fascist administration, suffrage was again restricted to the heads of households, academics, militia members, and citizens who paid income tax of at least 150 Lira per year (Baukhage 2010, Edwards/Michaelides 1996).

09/13/1944 End Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy/Start Occupation Regime [by Germany, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy, afterwards by Allied forces]: On this date, Germany invaded San Marino. From 09/17-20/1944, the German and Allied forces engaged in battle on San Marino's soil during the Battle of San Marino. Afterward, Allied troops occupied San Marino, but they only stayed for two months before returning the Republic's sovereignty.[147]

03/25/1945 End Occupation Regime [by Allied Forces]/Start (Male) Semidemocracy: On this date, San Marino held general elections mandated by the British Army to remove all fascist-friendly politicians. From this date, San Marino had the world's first democratically elected communist-socialist government, a coalition between the Sammarinese Communist Party and the Sammarinese Socialist Party. Male citizens of San Marino, aged at least 24, were eligible to vote.[148] For the elections on 09/13/1959, absentee voting was introduced, benefitting the Sammarinese Christian Democratic Party (PDCS) as many of its voters lived in the United States of America. However, absentee voting was abolished in 1966 due to pressure from leftist parties.

09/13/1964 End (Male) Semidemocracy/Start Democracy: On this date, the first elections with female suffrage, introduced in 1957, were held. Formal equality between men and women was achieved in 1974 with the Declaration on the Civic Rights and Fundamental Principles of the Order of San Marino, which lowered the voting age to 18 (Baukhage 2010). San Marino is a parliamentary democracy with a unicameral system. Free and fair elections are held regularly and civil liberties as well as political rights are safeguarded. However, corruption remains a problem.[149] On 04/01/2022, Paolo Rondelli was elected as one of the two captain regents,

[146] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1909_San_Marino_general_election
[147] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_San_Marino#19th_century
[148] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1945_San_Marino_general_election
[149] https://freedomhouse.org/country/san-marino/freedom-world/2023

becoming the first openly gay head of state.[150] While the captains have a ceremonial role, the secretary of state for foreign and political affairs is the head of government. Luca Beccari of the Sammarinese Christian Democratic Party (PDCS) was elected to this post in the elections on 12/08/2019.[151]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Marxer/Pállinger 2009, Baukhage 2010)

Sao Tome and Principe

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of Portugal, Constitutional Monarchy]: São Tomé and Príncipe were uninhabited before being colonized by the Portuguese in 1486.[152] The islands became a Portuguese crown colony in 1753. On 06/11/1951[153], Portugal official started to refer to its colonies as Oversea Provinces, in order "to retain the remaining colonies and to appease anticolonial demands from the United Nations"[154].

07/12/1975 End Colonial Regime [of Portugal, Democracy]/Start One-Party Autocracy: São Tomé and Príncipe gained its independence as Democratic Republic of São Tomé and Príncipe. In 1960, the Committee for the Liberation of São Tomé and Príncipe was formed and later became the Movement for the Liberation of São Tomé and Príncipe (MLSTP), which advocated for independence. In 1973, the Organization of African Unity recognized the MLSTP, and Portugal granted the islands local autonomy. After negotiations, independence was proclaimed on 07/12/1975, and a transitional government was formed under MLSTP leadership. Universal suffrage was introduced in 1975.[155] The MLSTP was the only party in the country and therefore the sole party that nominated candidates in the 1975 elections.[156] Pinto da Costa became the president, and Miguel Trovoada became the prime minister (Lansford 2021: 1421). The MLSTP won the elections in the following years, due to the lack of competition.[157] On 08/22/1990, a democratic constitution introduced by the Central Committee of the Movement for the Liberation of Sao Tome and Principe (ML-STP), was overwhelmingly approved in a referendum on

[150] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_San_Marino
[151] https://freedomhouse.org/country/san-marino/freedom-world/2022
[152] https://www.worldhistory.org/article/1763/the-portuguese-colonization-of-sao-tome-and-princi/
[153] https://uca.edu/politicalscience/home/research-projects/dadm-project/sub-saharan-africa-region/portuguese-mozambique-1951-1975/
[154] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Overseas_province
[155] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[156] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/S%C3%A3o_Tom%C3%A9_and_Pr%C3%ADncipe
[157] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1985_S%C3%A3o_Tom%C3%A9an_legislative_election

08/22/1990. The upcoming constitution aims to establish multi-party democracy for the first time since independence, while also imposing a two-term limit on the President.[158] In October 1990, Manuel Pinto da Costa was succeeded as Secretary General of the party (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 56).

01/20/1991 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Democracy: On this date, democratic legislative elections were held (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 56). The Democratic Convergence Party-Reflection Group won the election, defeating the ML-STP.[159] São Tomé and Príncipe holds regular, competitive national elections and has undergone multiple transfers of power between rival parties. Civil liberties are generally respected, but poverty and corruption have weakened some institutions and contributed to dysfunction in the justice system. Threats to judicial independence have been a growing concern in recent years.[160] Overnight on 11/24&25/2022 an unsuccessful coup led by Delfim Neves took place. Universal suffrage is granted and a new constitution, promulgated in 1990, secures civil liberties. Sao Tome is a semi-presidential democracy, the president being the head of state and the prime minister the head of government.[161] The oppositional party ADI won elections in 11/2022, however the process was tainted by irregularities and incompetence of the electoral commission during the voting procedure. While civil liberties are generally upheld, poverty and corruption have undermined certain institutions and led to dysfunction within the justice system. In recent years, there has been an increasing worry regarding threats to judicial independence.[162]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Saudi Arabia

01/01/1900 Part of Other Country [Ottoman Empire, Absolute Monarchy] [Start: 09/15/1818?]: The First Saudi State was established in February 1727 and gained control of most of present-day Saudi Arabia through conquests, including Mecca and Medina, until it was defeated by the Ottomans in the "Wahhabi War" on 09/15/1818.[163] The Al Saud regained power in 1824 but only controlled the Najd region, leading to a long struggle for control with the Al Rashid. The Al Saud were eventually defeated in 1891 and forced into exile in Kuwait. The Ottoman Empire

[158] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1990_S%C3%A3o_Tom%C3%A9an_constitutional_referendum; https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Sao_Tome_and_Principe_2003?lang=en
[159] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1991_S%C3%A3o_Tom%C3%A9an_legislative_election
[160] https://freedomhouse.org/country/sao-tome-and-principe/freedom-world/2022
[161] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_S%C3%A3o_Tom%C3%A9_and_Pr%C3%ADncipe
[162] https://freedomhouse.org/country/sao-tome-and-principe/freedom-world/2023
[163] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wahhabi_War

maintained nominal control over the Arabian Peninsula in the early 1900s, with a collection of tribal leaders, including the Al Saud, ruling under the Sharif of Mecca's authority.[164]

02/16/1902 End Part of Other Country [Ottoman Empire, Absolute Monarchy]/Start Absolute Monarchy: The Emirate of Riyadh was the initial version of the Third Saudi State from 1902 to 1913, headed by the House of Saud. This state was established when the Saudi forces conquered Riyadh from the Emirate of Ha'il during the Battle of Riyadh.[165] It was succeeded by the Emirate of Nejd and Hasa and was considered the earliest legal predecessor of modern-day Saudi Arabia.[166] The second form of the Third Saudi State was the Emirate of Nejd and Hasa, which lasted from 1913 to 1921. It was a monarchy under the leadership of the House of Saud. The state was created after the Ottoman garrison lost control of Al-Ahsa to Saudi forces during the Conquest of al-Hasa.[167] The Sultanate of Nejd, which lasted from 1921 to 1926, was the third manifestation of the Third Saudi State and served as a forerunner to present-day Saudi Arabia. It was governed by the House of Saud as a monarchy, and emerged when Abdul Aziz ibn Saud, the Emir of Riyadh, became sultan over Nejd and its surrounding areas.[168]

01/08/1926 Continuation Absolute Monarchy [as Kingdom of Hejaz and Nejd]: After the Kingdom of Hejaz fell to Abdul Aziz's forces in December 1925, he declared himself king of Hejaz in January 1926 and combined his territories with the Kingdom of Hejaz and Nejd.[169] On 05/20/1927, the Treaty of Jeddah was signed, in which Great Britain recognized the independence of the Kingdoms of Hijaz and Najd, both ruled by the monarchy established through conquest by Adb al Aziz al Saud over the previous 25 years (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 91).

09/23/1932 Continuation Absolute Monarchy as unified Saudi Arabia: The Kingdoms of Hijaz and Najd were unified under the name Saudi Arabia. The king serves traditionally as both the head of state and government. He is selected by his predecessor from among the male descendants of the nation's founder Ibn Saud. However, this selection must be approved by the Allegiance Council, consisting of senior princes.[170] On 09/27/2022 Mohammed bin Salman Al Saud, the son of King Salman, was appointed prime minister making him the de facto ruler of Saudi Arabia. In general, the political system is dominated by the royal family. The extensive

[164] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Saudi_Arabia#
[165] https://www.thenationalnews.com/gulf-news/saudi-arabia/2022/01/13/the-capture-of-riyadh-1902-how-a-daring-raid-shaped-arabia/
[166] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emirate_of_Riyadh
[167] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emirate_of_Nejd_and_Hasa#
[168] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sultanate_of_Nejd
[169] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sultanate_of_Nejd
[170] https://freedomhouse.org/country/saudi-arabia/freedom-world/2023

size of the Al Saud family enables it to occupy most crucial positions within the kingdom and maintain a presence across all levels of government. Traditionally, key ministries and all thirteen regional governorships have been reserved for members of the royal family. Decisions are reached through consultations between the King, the Council of Ministers, Islamic scholars (at least until the mid-2010s) and tribal leaders. Saudi Arabia does not have a conventional constitution. Instead, the Qur'an and the Sunnah are declared as the state constitution. Without national elections or political parties, Saudi Arabian politics operates within two distinct realms, internally between the royal family and externally between the royal family and the broader Saudi society. Factional divisions within the Al Saud family are based on clan loyalties, personal ambitions, and ideological disparities. The dominant clan faction, referred to as the 'Sudairi Seven', consists of the late King Fahd, his full brothers, and their descendants. The Consultative Assembly is the formal advisory body of Saudi Arabia. It is a deliberative assembly that advises the king on important issues for the country. With the power to propose laws to the king and his cabinet for approval and enactment, it consists of 150 members appointed by the king. They are selected from scholars, individuals with expertise, and specialists. Since 2013, the Assembly has included 30 female members out of the total 150, meeting a 20 percent minimum quota for women's representation.[171] Male suffrage was introduced in 2005 while female suffrage was introduced in 2015. Men and women have the right to vote for half the seats in "virtually powerless" municipal councils.[172] Political participation in Saudi Arabia is largely restricted, with the monarchy limiting public involvement in meaningful ways. Municipal elections, characterized by a lack of political parties, see voters heavily influenced by tribal and religious leaders, many of whom maintain close ties to the ruling establishment.[173] In Saudi Arabia are almost all political rights and civil liberties restricted. Women and members of religious minority groups often face significant discrimination, both in law and in practice. The working conditions are often exploitative.[174]

Absolute monarchy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Bank/Richter/Sunik 2014, Metz 1992, Champion 2003, Ibrahim 2001)

Senegal

[171] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Saudi_Arabia#cite_note-7
[172] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[173] https://freedomhouse.org/country/saudi-arabia/freedom-world/2023
[174] https://freedomhouse.org/country/saudi-arabia/freedom-world/2023

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy] [Start: 10/27/1895]: Senegal has been under French influence since the 17th century. Senegal became part of French West Africa in 1895 and a French colony in 1920 (Lansford 2021: 1434).[175] The French colonial administration governed Senegal through appointed officials. Universal suffrage was introduced in 1945.[176] Territorial Assembly elections were held in Senegal on 03/31/1957. The result was a landslide victory for the Senegalese Popular Bloc (BPS).

11/25/1958 End Colonial Regime [of France, Democracy]/Start Electoral Autocracy [as Protectorate of France, Democracy]: Senegal gained self-governance as a member of the French Community on 11/25/1958.[177] While elections were not held in 1958, party pluralism existed, with parties such as the African Regroupment Party (PRA) and the Senegalese Progressive Union (UPS) allowed to form and operate. Full independence was not grated until 1960 (Alalade 1981: 43).[178]

01/17/1959 End Electoral Autocracy [as Protectorate of France, Democracy]/Start Part of Other Country [Mali, Non-electoral Transitional Regime]: In January 1959, it merged with the neighboring French Sudan (currently known as Mali) to establish the Federation of Mali. The federation gained full independence within the French Community on 06/20/1960 (Lansford 2021: 1434).

08/20/1960 End Part of Other Country [Mali, Non-electoral Transitional Regime]/Start Electoral Autocracy: Following independence from the Mali Federation, a single-party system dominated the political landscape. The BDS (later known as BPS, UPS, PS) secured victory in pre-independence elections and absorbed most other parties into its fold. The harassment of remaining opposition factions commenced shortly after independence, leading to the outlawing of one opposition party in 1960 and the arrest of several opposition leaders. Special tribunals were established in October 1960 to adjudicate political offenses. A power struggle between Senghor and his prime minister from December 1962 to January 1963 culminated in the arrest and subsequent lengthy imprisonment of Prime Minister Dia, consolidating Senghor's personal control over the ruling party (Foltz 1964: 16-63, Klein 1987: 326, LeVine 2004: 204, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 91). On 12/19/1962, the National Assembly approved President Léopold Senghor as the new head of government, merging the positions of president and prime

[175] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/French_West_Africa
[176] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[177] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Senegal

minister.[179] Following the dispute Senghor established an authoritarian presidential regime where all rival political parties were suppressed.[180]

03/03/1963 End Electoral Autocracy/Start One-Party Autocracy: A new draft constitution, which eliminated the position of prime minister and established a presidential system, was approved by 99 percent of the voters in a national referendum held on 03/03/1963. Legislative elections were held on 12/01/1963, the Senegalese Progressive Union won all of the seats in the National Assembly. President Senghor was re-elected on December 12/01/1963.[181] The 1963 constitution that created a majoritarian electoral system ensured de facto one-party rule. The Senegalese Progressive Union was the de facto only legally permitted party from 1963 until 1975.[182]

03/19/1976 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: Following the experience of a one-party system, Senegal restored political pluralism, but limited the number of authorized political parties to three, each representing a specific political current. However, this initial shift towards a competitive landscape was criticized as ineffective, and most significantly as "a departure of form, but not of substance from the earlier authoritarian regime" (Fatton 1986: 283). Nonetheless, democratization continued, president Léopold Sédar Sengho resigning and allowing for a peaceful transfer of power (yet without a popular mandate) in 1981 to Abdou Diouf, followed by the introduction of a multi-party system without restrictions in 05/06/1981 (Fatton 1986). This piece of legislation amended the third article of the Constitution which limited the number of political parties. With the introduction of an unrestricted multi-party system, every Senegalese citizen is free to create his or her own political party.[183] The governments of Senegal and Gambia signed an agreement to form a confederation on December 12/12/1981, and the Confederation of Senegal and Gambia was formally established on February 2/1/1982. Legislative elections were held on 2/27/1983, and the PSS (Parti Socialiste du Senegal - former Senegalese Progressive Union) won 111 out of 120 seats in the National Assembly. The PDS (Parti Democratique Senegalais) won eight seats in the National Assembly. President Diouf was re-elected with 83.5 percent of the vote on 2/27/1983.[184] The election was marred by irregularities and the opposition suffered chronically from a lack of resources and organization; the elections therefore cannot be considered to have

[179] https://uca.edu/politicalscience/home/research-projects/dadm-project/sub-saharan-africa-region/senegal-1960-present/

[180] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/L%C3%A9opold_S%C3%A9dar_Senghor

[181] https://uca.edu/politicalscience/home/research-projects/dadm-project/sub-saharan-africa-region/senegal-1960-present/

[182] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Senegal

[183] https://tsep.africa.ufl.edu/the-party-system-and-conditions-of-candidacy/senegal/

[184] https://uca.edu/politicalscience/home/research-projects/dadm-project/sub-saharan-africa-region/senegal-1960-present/

been held on an even competitive landscape (Fatton 1986: 288). The confederation was dissolved by Senegal on 09/30/1989 after the Gambia refused to move closer toward union.[185]

02/27/2000 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Democracy: On this date, Abdoulaye Wade defeated incumbent Abdou Diouf in a regularly scheduled election. This was the first time that elections in Senegal resulted in the defeat of the incumbent Socialist Party (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 56). On 03/19/2000, the opposition prevailed in the second round of a just presidential election, resulting in the displacement of the dominant-party regime (Vengroff 2001: 129-62).[186] The period between 2000 and 2019 in Senegal was characterized by a mix of political evolution and challenges. Following Abdoulaye Wade's historic electoral victory in 2000, Senegal entered a phase of political change, seeking to strengthen democratic institutions and expand political freedoms. Under President Wade's leadership, reforms were initiated to enhance civil liberties and diversify the political landscape. This included promoting press freedom and bolstering civil society. Additionally, efforts were made to diversify the economy and curb corruption. However, Senegal also faced challenges during this time, including economic inequality, social unrest, and political instability. Despite strides towards democracy, some institutions remained vulnerable to political influence and corruption. Moreover, ethnic and regional tensions persisted in certain parts of the country, leading to occasional unrest. Despite these challenges, Senegal continued its path towards democracy and solidified its position as one of the most stable and democratic nations in West Africa. The period between 2000 and 2019 was characterized by a steady pursuit of political reform and institutional strengthening, coupled with efforts to drive economic growth and social development.

International observers declared the election on 09/24/2019 as credible, despite the exclusion of two prominent opposition politicians, Khalifa Sall and Karim Wade, who could have posed serious challenges to President Sall. In January 2019, just weeks before the election, the Constitutional Council ruled that both were ineligible to run in the presidential election due to their previous convictions in separate, politically contentious corruption cases.[187] In 2022 multiple challenges to democracy occurred. Opposition parties were restricted and partly banned, a measure that resulted in mass protests on 06/03, resulting in around 200 arrests and three individuals killed. Freedom of speech and press were under fire by the government as well, with certain oppositional news networks briefly banned and multiple journalists arrested.[188] Therefore, Senegal is a borderline case between a democracy and a semidemocracy. Senegal is a presidential

[185] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Senegambia_Confederation
[186] http://africanelections.tripod.com/sn.html
[187] https://freedomhouse.org/country/senegal/freedom-world/2022
[188] https://freedomhouse.org/country/senegal/freedom-world/2023

democracy with a unicameral legislature, where the president is elected through direct universal suffrage.[189] The three branches of government are generally independent; however, corruption remains an ongoing challenge.[190] In 02/2024 the acting president of Senegal, Macky Sall, cancelled an upcoming election shortly before voting was scheduled, claiming that disputes between the legislative and judicial branches had to be settled first.[191] This cancellation was deemed unlawful and overturned by the supreme court of Senegal after weeks of deadly protests. The presidential election took place on 03/24/2024, leading to a victory of opposition politician Bassirou Diomaye Faye. The transfer of power happened peacefully.[192]
Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Bendel 1999)

Serbia/Serbia and Montenegro/Yugoslavia

[Serbia, the Union of Serbia and Montenegro (02/04/2003 - 06/05/2006) and Yugoslavia are treated in the dataset as the continuation of one country. Although we have doubts about this approach, it follows the convention in other datasets.]
01/01/1900 Constitutional Monarchy [as Serbia] [Start: 04/23/1815]: The house of Obrenović came to power under the leadership of Miloš I in the Serbian Uprising Uprising between 04/23/1815–07/26/1817[193] against the Ottoman Empire. This led to the formation of the Principality of Serbia in 1817.[194] In 1882 the Principality of Serbia elevated to the status of Kingdom of Serbia. The independence of Serbia was internationally recognized in 1878.[195] For male voters who paid taxes suffrage was granted in the Constitution of 1869, and in the Constitution of 1888 the right to vote was given to all males of age 21.
06/15/1903 End Constitutional Monarchy [as Serbia]/Start Constitutional Monarchy [as Serbia]: During the May Coup 1903 (06/10–11) Alexander I and his wife were assassinated[196] which

[189] https://www.britannica.com/place/Senegal/Government-and-society
[190] https://freedomhouse.org/country/senegal/freedom-world/2023
[191] https://www.nytimes.com/2024/02/03/world/africa/senegal-president-cancels-election.html
[192] https://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-68636327

[193] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Serbian_Uprising
[194] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Obrenovi%C4%87_dynasty
[195] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Principality_of_Serbia
[196] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alexander_I_of_Serbia

meant the end of the Obrenović dynasty.[197] Peter I became the king of Serbia.[198] The regime is coded as a new monarchy since it was the start of a new dynasty.

12/01/1918 End Constitutional Monarchy [as Serbia]/Start Constitutional Monarchy [as Yugoslavia]: On this date, Yugoslavia was founded to be a state that unites all South Slavic people. It was also known as Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.[199] The Kingdom of Yugoslavia was initially governed as a constitutional monarchy with multiparty elections. In 1920 Male suffrage was introduced (LIED).

01/06/1929 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start Absolute Monarchy: King Aleksandar Karadjordjevic abrogated the constitution on 01/06/1929 and dissolved parliament, declaring a royal dictatorship and engaging in repression of political opposition. Aleksandar reintroduced limited democracy in 1931 and allowed some political parties. However, the regime is still coded as an absolute monarchy since voters in the elections of 11/08/1931 were presented with a single list of candidates supporting the royal dictatorship of King Alexander. Aleksandar was assassinated in 1934, and a three-man regency ruled on behalf of his young son (Sudetic 1994: 28-29, 32-35, Casey et al. 2020: 17).

03/27/1941 End Absolute Monarchy [as Yugoslavia]/Start Military Autocracy [as Yugoslavia]: On this date young officers overthrew the government and the regency led by Prince Paul of Yugoslavia. They declared a new government under General Dusan Simovic. Prince Paul I became king. After anti-Tripartite demonstrations erupted (despite the new regime support for the German alliance), Germany invaded Yugoslavia.

04/06/1941 End Military Autocracy/Start Occupation Regime [by Germany, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]: The regime collapsed due to German occupation (Sudetic 1994: 37, Casey et al. 2020: 17). The region that is now Serbia was partitioned among Hungary, Bulgaria, the Independent State of Croatia, Greater Albania, and Montenegro. The remaining area of occupied Serbia was subjected to military control by Nazi Germany, and Serbian puppet governments were established under the leadership of Milan Aćimović and Milan Nedić, with the support of the Yugoslav National Movement (Zbor), a fascist organization headed by Dimitrije Ljotić.[200]

03/07/1945 End Occupation Regime [by Germany, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]/Start Communist Ideocracy [as Yugoslavia]: After the German occupation a government dominated by Tito and the communists was established (Petrovich 1947: 508-9, Van Dyke 1947: 375).

[197] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/May_Coup_(Serbia)
[198] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peter_I_of_Serbia
[199] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kingdom_of_Yugoslavia
[200] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Serbia#The_Balkan_Wars_and_World_War_I;
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Invasion_of_Yugoslavia

Constituent Assembly elections were held in November 1945 in which only People's Front candidates could run. The non-communist ministers resigned in protest, and several non-communist parties boycotted the election. It resulted in a communist dominated government led by Tito as prime minister. The assembly ended the monarchy (Sudetic 1992, Petrovich 1947: 515-18, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 92). In 1945 female suffrage was introduced, but de facto women first could vote in 1990.[201] On 11/29/1945 the Socialist Federal Republique of Yugoslavia, with Serbia being one of its six constituent republics was proclaimed. Women were allowed to vote with the Communist constitution of Yugoslavia.[202]

01/20/1990 End Communist Ideocracy [as Yugoslavia]/Start No Central Authority: The Congress of the League of Yugoslav Communists ended de facto communist rule in Yugoslavia. While the parts of Yugoslavia did not become independent countries until 1991, since January 1990 there was no de facto rule by a central authority. The commencement of the 14th (extraordinary) Congress of the League of Yugoslav Communists marked a significant moment, as the Yugoslav communist party disbanded itself into its constituent republican parties, effectively terminating one-party rule in Yugoslavia. In February 1990, Slovenia and Croatia passed legislation legalizing opposition parties. Subsequently, opposition parties emerged victorious in multiparty elections held in Slovenia and Croatia during April-May 1990, leading to the conclusion of communist rule in both regions. Following this, both countries ceased tax contributions to the central government and withdrew their troops from the central government's military operations in Kosovo (Glaurdic 2011: 127-139 , Lampe 2000: 325-55). The Slovenian parliament declared full sovereignty in July 1990, and in the same month a constitutional reform in Serbia legalized opposition parties and defined it as de facto independent (Glaurdic 2011: 165). While the initial breakaway nations did not achieve formal independence until 1991, the Yugoslav League of Communists and the central government began to lose authority over policymaking in January 1990. By the conclusion of 1990, they had relinquished control over most of the territory that comprised Yugoslavia (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 92). The dominance of Serbia in Yugoslavia began when Slovenia declared its independence in 1991, following the disintegration of the Yugoslav communist party regime (Prunk 2001).

04/27/1992 End No Central Authority/Start Electoral Autocracy [as Federal Republique of Yugoslavia]: On this date, the Federal Republique of Yugoslavia, with only Serbia and Montenegro as part of it, was founded. After the secessions of Slovenia, Croatia, and Macedonia, the Serbian communist party and its leader Milosevic became the dominant force in the

[201] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage

[202] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37

remaining part of Yugoslavia. In the previous Yugoslavian political system, Milosevic and the Serbian party were one of several veto players, but after the secessions, leadership in Yugoslavia narrowed to the Serbian party and Milošević. Bosnia-Herzegovina seceded in 1992, leaving only Serbia and Montenegro in the reconstituted Federal Republic of Yugoslavia (Sekelj 2000: 63, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 92, Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 57).[203] On 09/24/2000 general elections were held and presidential candidate Vojislav Koštunica defeated Milošević, despite attempted vote rigging. It was the first election of the 40 members of the Chamber of the Republics by direct universal suffrage after the constitution was amended. Koštunicas party Democratic Opposition of Serbia was a wide electoral alliance of political parties in Serbia, intent on ousting the ruling Socialist Party and its leader Milošević.[204] President Milošević annulled the elections he lost and stayed in power. However, protests spread.

10/05/2000 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Democracy: Miners and later other sectors of the populace revolted against Milošević and forced him to resign on this date. The Democratic Opposition of Serbia that had won the election took office (Binnendijk/Marovic 2006, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 92).[205] After the resignation of Milošević, Yugoslavia became part of the UN again in 11/01/2000.[206] On 07/06/2000, the parliament amended the constitution such that the president would no longer be selected by the parliament but would be directly elected instead. On 02/04/2003 Serbia and Montenegro formed the state union of Serbia and Montenegro (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 57). On 05/21/2006 the people of Montenegro voted for their independence, and on 06/03/2006 it was proclaimed (see Montenegro).[207] Throughout this era, competitive elections took place under universal suffrage, accompanied by a gradual improvement in press freedom and the protection of civil liberties.[208] Nonetheless, reports indicated a lack of independence within the judiciary, which was purportedly influenced by the governing authorities (Piano/Puddington/Rosenberg 2006: 625).

06/05/2006 End Democracy [as Union of Serbia and Montenegro]/Continuation Democracy [as Serbia]: On this date, Serbia acknowledges the end of the Union of Serbia and Montenegro.[209] During this period regular free and fair elections were held. While civil liberties were overwhelmingly upheld, an increasingly hostile environment towards independent media

[203] http://tinyurl.com/8derdce
[204] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Democratic_Opposition_of_Serbia
[205] http://tinyurl.com/4y2eg35; http://tinyurl.com/8derdce
[206] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Serbia_and_the_United_Nations
[207] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Serbia_and_Montenegro
[208] https://2009-2017.state.gov/outofdate/bgn/serbiaandmontenegro/28187.htm
[209] https://www.bbc.com/news/world-europe-17907947; https://www.worldstatesmen.org/Serbia.html

perpetuated. Moreover, the judiciary remained plagued by issues of corruption (Puddington 2016: 598).

04/02/2017 End Democracy/Start Semidemocracy: In the April 2017 presidential elections, Vučić won the election with 55 percent of the vote in a field of 11 candidates. The campaign was characterized by media bias and allegations of misuse of public resources and vote buying. The SNS was previously accused in the 2016 snap elections rigging the polls and tampering with ballot boxes. OSCE election observers noted pressure on public-sector workers to vote for the ruling party. Private television outlets also largely favored the SNS in their coverage.[210] On 04/03/2022 general elections were held in Serbia to elect both the president and members of the National Assembly, although initially scheduled for 2024. The OSCE criticized irregularities such as an unbalanced access to the media, undue pressure on public sector employees to support the incumbents, significant campaign finance disparities and misuse of state resources resulted in unequal conditions for contestants.[211]

Semidemocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Kasapović 2010, Ristić 2010)

Seychelles

01/01/1900 (de facto) Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 05/30/1814]: Britain took control of Mauritius during the Napoleonic Wars in 1810, but the formal transfer of Mauritius and the Seychelles to the British did not occur until the Treaty of Paris on 05/30/1814. As part of the capitulation agreements, the British agreed to respect French settlers, language, and customs in the Seychelles. Although the British did not want to govern either Mauritius or the Seychelles, the Seychelles were indirectly ruled by the British until 1903, when they were granted the status of a British crown colony. The Seychelles, therefore, were rather indirectly and reluctantly ruled by the British until 1903, being technically a dependency of Mauritius, which was in turn a full-fledged British colony. Seychellois citizens gradually gained political power.

08/31/1903 Continuation as Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy]: On this date, the territory was administratively separated from Mauritius in 1903 (Franda 1982).

[210] https://freedomhouse.org/country/serbia/freedom-world/2019; https://freedomhouse.org/country/serbia/freedom-world/2022

[211] https://www.oscepa.org/en/news-a-media/press-releases/2022/serbia-s-elections-offered-diverse-political-options-but-shortcomings-led-to-an-uneven-playing-field-international-observers-say

Universal suffrage was introduced in 1967.[212] In 1970 Seychelles obtained a new constitution, universal adult suffrage, and a governing council with an elected majority.[213]

10/01/1975 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Non-Electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: On this date internal self-government was granted on (Turner 1998a). A coalition government was formed with James Mancham as president and France-Albert René as prime minister. In 1977, while Mancham was abroad, René became president in a coup d'état led by the Seychelles People's United Party.[214]

06/29/1978 Continuation Non-Electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime [as independent country]: On this date independence was gained (Turner 1998a).

03/26/1979 End Non-Electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start One-party Autocracy: Following a successful referendum on 03/26/1979, a new constitution went into effect. This constitution made Seychelles a one-party state with the sole candidate for president nominated by the ruling party. All political activity took place under the rule of the Seychelles People's Progressive Front, and the President was voted for on a yes-no basis by any Seychelles citizen 17 or older. The president enjoyed almost unchecked executive power and appointed his own cabinet as well as his own chair of the Assembly. The legislature itself was unable to rule independently, and instead only enacted the bills proposed by the executive.[215] On 12/27/1991 a process started to initiate a multi-party democracy.[216] Discussions and public debates between the major political parties began to take place in 01/1993.[217]

07/20[-23]/1993 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: First multiparty elections were held between 07/20-23/1993. René continued to win, and in 1998 and in 2001, when he defeated the opposition leader Wavel Ramkalawan, the candidate of Seychelles National Party. In addition to presidency, he held several cabinet posts simultaneously including Minister of Foreign Affairs and Minister of Finance.[218] The elections were evaluated as free and fair by international observer groups (Thibaut 1999). General elections were held from 10/22 to 10/24. The presidential elections were won by Ramkalawan, who received 54.9 percent of the vote. The election marked

[212] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[213] https://www.britannica.com/place/Seychelles/History
[214] https://www.britannica.com/place/Seychelles/History
[215] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/One_party_rule_in_Seychelles
[216] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/One_party_rule_in_Seychelles
[217] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitution_of_Seychelles
[218] https://freedomhouse.org/country/seychelles/freedom-world/2022

the first opposition victory in a presidential contest in Seychellois history. However, government corruption remained a problem.[219]
Semidemocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Mazepus et al. 2016)

Sierra Leone

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 01/01/1808]: The coastal area of Sierra Leone became a British colony on 01/01/1808.[220] The Hinterland became a British Protectorate in 1896. In 1924, the UK government separated Sierra Leone's administration into two distinct regions: the coastal Colony of Freetown and the inland Protectorate, each with its unique political structure. The latter was primarily under local chieftain control. Tensions between these two regions peaked in 1947 due to proposals to unify their political systems, mainly advocated by the more populous Protectorate's leaders. The Krios, under Isaac Wallace-Johnson, resisted these changes, fearing a loss of their political influence in the Colony.[221] In 1953, Sierra Leone obtained local ministerial authority, and Margai secured the position of Chief Minister through elections. The introduction of a new constitution established Sierra Leone as a parliamentary system within the Commonwealth of Nations. Subsequently, in May 1957, the inaugural parliamentary election took place. The SLPP, then the leading political entity in the colony of Sierra Leone and backed by influential paramount chiefs in the provinces, secured the majority of parliamentary seats. Margai was overwhelmingly re-elected as Chief Minister during this time.[222] In May 1957, general elections took place in Sierra Leone Colony and Protectorate, with a total of 39 seats contested, along with the indirect election of 12 paramount chiefs. The Sierra Leone People's Party, under the leadership of Milton Margai, secured a majority of the elected seats and earned the backing of all 12 chiefs, as well as eight out of ten independent candidates. Margai subsequently guided the nation to independence in 1961.[223]
04/27/1961 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Semidemocracy [as independent country]: On this date, Margai led the country to independence (Lansford 2021:

[219] https://freedomhouse.org/country/seychelles/freedom-world/2022
[220] https://oneworldlink.org.uk/wp-content/uploads/SL_POLITICAL_HISTORY.pdf
[221] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra_Leone#Colonial_era_(1800%E2%80%931961)
[222] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra_Leone#Colonial_era_(1800%E2%80%931961)
[223] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1957_Sierra_Leonean_general_election

1468).[224] Sierra Leone was from then on an independent sovereign state with its own parliament and its own prime minister.[225] On 01/05/1962, general elections were conducted for the first time under universal suffrage. The ruling Sierra Leone People's Party (SLPP) emerged victorious in these elections. Despite receiving fewer votes compared to independent candidates, SLPP leader Milton Margai retained his position as prime minister.[226] From 1961 to 1967, political control was solely in the hands of the SLPP, primarily composed of Mende members and led consecutively by Margai and his half-brother, Albert M. Margai. Efforts to establish a one-party system under the SLPP were thwarted by the opposition All People's Congress (APC), led by Siaka P. Stevens, a formidable trade-union leader from the smaller Limba tribe and predominantly consisting of Temne members (Lansford 2021: 1468). Due to the fact that there were attempts to establish a one-party autocracy by the SLPP and that as soon as a candidate from the APC won the parliamentary elections a coup backed by the SLPP took place, the regime is coded as only semidemocratic. However, while RoW classifies the country as an electoral autocracy, BR, BMR, GWF, LIED, MCM and PRC all classify Sierra Leone in this period as democratic. Hence, we are in minority position regarding the classification of this regime.

03/21/1967 End Semidemocracy/Start Military Autocracy: In the general elections 1967, the FAPC won most seats in parliament and Siaka Stevens was sworn in as prime minister.[227] Hours later, David Lanasana seized power from the civilian government. However, this regime lasted only two days and does therefore not appear in the data set.[228] Lansana was allied with the dominant faction of the incumbent party and collaborated with incumbent elites in carrying out the coup (Bebler 1973: 68-70, Foray 1988: 27, Fisher 1969).

03/23/1967 End Military Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: On this occasion, a coup orchestrated by Major Blake resulted in the removal of Force Commander Brigadier David Lansana. The officers involved in Lansana's ousting were in opposition to the existing administration. They formed a seven-member military junta known as the National Reformation Council, which suspended the constitution, disbanded all political parties, and shut down parliament (Bebler 1973: 68-70, Foray 1988: 27, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 92).

04/18/1968 End Military Autocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: The officers successfully ousted the military government, facilitating the installation of elected members of parliament who had

[224] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1957_Sierra_Leonean_general_election
[225] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra_Leone_Colony_and_Protectorate
[226] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1962_Sierra_Leonean_general_election
[227] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra_Leone
[228] https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/journal-of-modern-african-studies/article/abs/elections-and-coups-in-sierra-leone-1967/F7F447FA2BE820E80298249E540C2DC4

previously been denied the opportunity to assume office after the March 1967 elections. As the leader of the largest party, Stevens assumed the role of prime minister, marking the completion of the transition to civilian rule (Fisher 1969: 611, Bebler 1973: 79-80, Foray 1988: 31-32, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 92). On 06/30/1968, the SLPP leaders were arrested to prevent them from campaigning in by-elections, as the APC government began steps towards single-party rule. The government annulled most of the constituency elections won by SLPP in 1967 and used resources to ensure they won subsequent by-elections. The first SLPP leaders were arrested in June 1968, tipping the regime towards dictatorship. In November 1968, the government declared a state of emergency and sent troops to SLPP strongholds, killing supporters during the ensuing repression. The SLPP was prevented from holding political meetings and repression increased over time (Confidential 1968: 7, Cartwright 1968: 29-30, Clapham 1972: 83-85, Cox 1976: 208, Allen 1978: 192, Hayward 1984: 25-26, 30, Zack-Williams 1999: 144, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 92-93). On 04/19/1971 the parliamentary system was replaced with a presidential system, signifying a shift in governance structure. This constitutional change elevated Siaka Stevens to the position of Sierra Leone's first executive President.[229] Sierra Leone became a republic within the Commonwealth.[230] In 1973, general elections were held, but the SLPP boycotted these, due to alleged intimidations. In 1974, an alleged coup against President Steve failed and all its leaders were executed. One year later, government officials were executed for an alleged coup attempt. In the election in March 1976, Stevens was reelected as President. In May 1977 national parliamentary elections were held, which had the APC victorious. They won 74 seats, whereas the SLPP won 15 seats.[231]

06/12/1978 End Electoral Autocracy/Start One-Party Autocracy: In 1978, the parliament, led by the APC, approved a new constitution making the country a one-party state. Stevens argued that the one-party rule was more "African" than Western-style democracy. The APC became the only legal political party, which led to widespread demonstrations. These were met with government oppression and violence.[232] Stevens remained president for 14 years, until 1985.[233] He was succeeded by Joseph Saidu Momoh, who was elected as the only candidate and instated 11/28/1985.[234] In 1990, the government gave into growing pressure and set up a commission to

[229] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/President_of_Sierra_Leone
[230] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra_Leone_(1961%E2%80%931971)
[231] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Sierra_Leone_(1961%E2%80%931978); https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1978_Sierra_Leonean_constitutional_referendum
[232] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Sierra_Leone_(1961%E2%80%931978); https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1978_Sierra_Leonean_constitutional_referendum
[233] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra_Leone
[234] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Joseph_Saidu_Momoh

assess the one-party constitution. Leading to the re-establishment of a multi-party system on 10/01/1991. The first elections under the new constitution were not held until 1996, due to the coup in 1992.[235]

04/29/1992 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: A military coup of junior officers' led by the 25-year-old Captain Valentine Strasser ousted Momoh and the dominant party regime. The officers formed the National Provisional Ruling Council (NPRC), consisting of 18 military officers and four civilians (Zack-Williams 1999: 149-50, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 93) and Strasser became head of state.[236] The constitution was abolished, as well as press freedom and freedom of speech. The rule of the government became increasingly authoritarian, which led to several coups attempts which in turn led to executions. Moreover, the Revolutionary United Front (RUF) rebels gained more power and land, which led to the government response of violently driving them back.

01/17/1996 Continuation as Military (Transitional) Autocracy: On 01/17/1996 Julius Maada Bio and other officers ousted Strasser. Bio and other members of the military were reportedly unhappy with Strasser's handling of the peace process with the RUF. Bio stated his goals as ending the civil war and bringing democracy back to Sierra Leone. He assumed the junta chairman position.[237] This event is not coded as a coup and a regime change since it was bloodless and a seeming majority in the junta changed their leader.

03/15/1996 End Military Autocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date elections were held under an electoral commission and around 15 parties were allowed to compete. Due to the raging civil war, less than 50% of the registered voters actually voted and in many rural areas voting was not accessible (Kandeh 1998). The SLPP won the election and Ahmad Tejan Kabbah became president. He immediately started a dialogue with the RUF rebels and signed a peace agreement with them (Kandeh 1998: 95-106, Reno 1998: 135-36, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 93).[238] While GWF codes the regime as democratic, most other datasets are more skeptical. However, for instance, the coding as a closed autocracy by RoW seem to be false classificiation since elections took place. Most datasets like AF, HTW, LIED, and MCM classify the regime as a multiparty/electoral autocracy.

05/25/1997 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: On this date, Sierra Leone Army (SLA) officers freed and armed 600 prisoners in Freetown, one of them was Major Johnny Paul

[235] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1991_Sierra_Leonean_constitutional_referendum; https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Sierra_Leone_2013?lang=en

[236] https://www.britannica.com/biography/Valentine-E-M-Strasser; http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/5475.html

[237] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra_Leone

[238] http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/5475.html; https://africanelections.tripod.com/za.html

Korma. Ethnic tensions, the failure of the civil war and the lack of supplies for the armed forces were cited by the Armed Forces Revolutionary Council, led by Johnny Paul Koroma, as reasons for the coup against Kabbah. Koroma was appointed chairman after the coup and Kabbah was sent into exile (Kandeh 1998: 107, Zack-Williams 1999: 143, 152-53, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 93, Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 57-58).

02/12/1998 End Military Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: Koroma invited the Economic Community of West African States Monitoring Group (ECOMOG) forces to help end the civil war with the RUF. Despite the signing of a peace agreement with the rebels, fighting continued. Because of that, ECOMOG ousted Koroma from power and reinstalled the civilian leader Kabbah (Kandeh 1998: 107).[239] Kabbah returned to Freetown on 03/10/1998 (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 93).[240] In 1999 the Lomé Peace Agreement between Kabbah and the RUF was signed, which gave the leader of the rebels, Sankoh, the position of vice-president. Moreover, him and his followers were given amnesty. The agreement was nationally and internationally highly criticized and did not lead to an end of the war.[241] After the deployment of UN peacekeepers, as well British troops, the war was declared over in January 2002.[242] Following a decade marked by one of Africa's most brutal armed insurgencies, Sierra Leoneans turned out in significant numbers to participate in the electoral process on 05/14/2002, to choose a new president and parliament. These elections were hailed as the most unrestricted, transparent, and peaceful in the nation's history (Kandeh 1998). The next election was held in August 2007 and in September of that year, the opposition candidate of the APC, Ernest Bai Koroma, became president. He was reelected in November 2012.[243] All elections on the national and local level were described as free and fair by international observers, including the latest general election on 03/07/2018. In the 2018 election, former military junta leader Julius Maada Bio (SLPP) defeated Samura Kamara of the ruling APC in a highly contested presidential election. However, in Sierra Leone parties tend to mobilize support based on ethno-regional difference rather than providing party programs. Moreover, protesters in Sierra Leone face extensive police repression during demonstrations.[244] Furthermore, multiparty election was held over the years, but the opposition often faced police violence and restrictions. On top of that, government corruption is

[239] http://tinyurl.com/3js3qzc
[240] http://news.bbc.eo.uk/2/hi/africa/80603.stm
[241] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lom%C3%A9_Peace_Agreement
[242] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sierra_Leone
[243] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ernest_Bai_Koroma
[244] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2018_Sierra_Leonean_general_election; https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/SLE#pos4

a big issue in the country.[245] Despite elections being classified as mostly free, authoritarian structures still exist in Sierra Leone, which makes it impossible to code it as an electoral democracy according to our coding rules. The Freedom House rating of Sierra Leone as a partly free country also supports its assessment as a semidemocracy. In June 2023, incumbent President Julius Maada Bio secured a second term in office following a first-round electoral victory. Nevertheless, the legitimacy of the election results was challenged by opposition groups, and international monitors expressed apprehensions regarding numerous irregularities and the general credibility of the process. Subsequently, until October 2023, the opposition party, the All People's Congress (APC), abstained from occupying its designated seats in congress as a form of protest against the electoral outcomes.[246]
Semidemocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Cartwright 1970, Hayward 1989, Reynolds 1999, Zack-Williams/Riley 1993)

Sikkim

01/01/1900 Absolute Monarchy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 1642]: The Bhutia people started migrating to the region from Tibet in the 14th century. In 1642, when the kingdom of Sikkim was founded, the inaugural chogyal (a combined temporal and spiritual king), Phuntsog Namgyal, hailed from the Bhutia community. The Namgyal dynasty governed Sikkim until 1975.[247] Sikkim came under British protection through the Treaty of Tumlong in 1861.[248] Beside "British Sikkim," a residual entity known as "Independent Sikkim" persisted, centered around the capital, Gangtok, governing approximately 2,500 square miles of territory. The former Chogyal was compelled to relinquish the throne in favor of his son, Sidkeong Namgyal, in 1863.[249]
12/05/1950 End Absolute Monarchy/Start Constitutional Monarchy [as Protectorate of India, Semidemocracy]: The Indo-Sikkimese Treaty of 1950[250] transformed Sikkim into an Indian

[245] https://freedomhouse.org/country/sierra-leone/freedom-world/2021
[246] https://freedomhouse.org/country/sierra-leone/freedom-world/2024
[247] https://www.britannica.com/place/Sikkim#ref46212
[248] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Treaty_of_Tumlong
[249] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Sikkim#:~:text=The%20history%20of%20Sikkim%20begins,as%20a%20state%20of%20India.
[250] https://ir.nbu.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/1401/16/16_appendix.pdf

protectorate, where India took on the responsibilities for the external relations, defense, and strategic communications of Sikkim. The treaty also stipulated enhanced public involvement in governance, leading to five general elections conducted on the basis of adult suffrage between 1952 and 1974.[251]

04/14/1975 End Constitutional Monarchy [as Protectorate of India, Democracy]/Start Part of Other Country [India, Democracy]: In 1975, discrimination against Nepali Hindus in Sikkim led to resentment against the Chogyal, prompting the Indian Army's intervention in Gangtok. The army eliminated palace guards and surrounded the palace in April 1975. After disarming the palace, a referendum was held, with the majority favoring the abolition of the monarchy. Sikkim's new parliament, led by Kazi Lhendup Dorjee, swiftly proposed a bill for Sikkim to become an Indian state, a move promptly accepted by the Indian government.[252]

05/16/1975 End Constitutional Monarchy [as Protectorate of India] after that day Sikkim became a federal state of India and ceased to exist as a distinct political entity.

Singapore

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy][Start: 04/01/1867]: Straits Settlements (amongst them Singapore) become crown colonies (subordinated to British India) on 04/01/1867 (LePoer 1991a). In December 1941, Japanese troops landed in southern Thailand and northern Malaya, quickly established a foothold on the peninsula, and captured the British air base at Kota Baharu. They began bombing Singapore and faced little resistance.

02/15/1942 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy]/Start Occupation Regime [by Japan, Constitutional Monarchy]: On 02/15/1942, General Yamashita Tomoyuki accepted the unconditional surrender of British Lieutenant General Arthur Percival. The Japanese occupied Singapore until 1945, designating it the capital of Japan's southern region and renaming it Shônan. The formal surrender was announced a week later (LePoer 1991a).

09/12/1945 End Occupation Regime [by Japan, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]: Japanese surrender to the British (de facto: 08/15/1945; announced takeover by the BMA 09/12/1945). On 04/01/1946 Singapore the British Military Administration ended with the formation of the Malayan Union, at which time Singapore became a separate crown colony with a civil administration.

[251] https://www.britannica.com/place/Sikkim#ref46212

[252] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kingdom_of_Sikkim#Accession_to_India

05/30/1959 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Electoral Autocracy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: State of Singapore and internal self-government: In April 1958, Lim Yew Hock led the Singapore delegation to the third round of constitutional talks, resulting in an agreement for a State of Singapore with full powers of internal government. In August 1958, the British Parliament changed Singapore's status from a colony to a state, and general elections were scheduled for May 1959, with a record 13 parties contending. After a recommendation by the Commission of Inquiry in 1958, compulsory voting was introduced, raising participation rates to 89.4%. The parties with highest prominence were the Singapore People's Alliance (SPA), the People's Action Party (PAP), the Liberal Socialist Party (LS), and the United Malays' Organization/Malayan Chinese Association (UMNO/MCA)(Chung 1975: 63). The PAP, under Lee Kuan Yew, won a landslide victory by campaigning on a platform of honest efficient government, social and economic reform, and union with the Federation of Malaya, winning 43 of the 51 seats. The Singapore People's Alliance won four seats, while the remaining seats were won by three UMNOMCA Alliance candidates and one independent (LePoer 1991a). In a high-profile scandal in 1959, the Minister of Education was reported accepting significant sums of money from foreign sources. Furthermore, while Singapore was granted full self-government under the new constitution of 1959, it still was not granted independence in matters of foreign affairs, internal security and defense until 1965 (Bellows 1967).

09/16/1963 End Electoral Autocracy [a Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Part of Other Country [Malaysia, Electoral Autocracy]: The leaders of Singapore, Malaya, Sabah, and Sarawak signed the Malaysia Agreement on 07/09/1963, under which the Federation of Malaysia was scheduled to come into being on 08/31 Tengku Abdul Rahman changed the date to 09/16, however, to allow the UN time to complete its survey (LePoer 1991a).

08/09/1965 End Part of Other Country [Malaysia, Electoral Autocracy]/Start Electoral Autocracy: On 08/09/1965, with the Singapore delegates not attending, the Malaysian parliament passed a bill favoring separation 126 to 0. That afternoon, in a televised press conference, Lee declared Singapore a sovereign, democratic, and independent state (LePoer 1991a). Before independence, the PAP led by Lee Kuan Yew won the 1959 and 1963 assembly elections. The elections were competitive, but individuals with records of "subversive activity," that is, pro-Communists, a large group including well-known political actors, were not allowed to compete. Throughout the pre-independence period, British actions to limit the influence of the large communist movement aided Lee's dominance over rivals in the PAP and the PAP's dominance over other potential mass-based parties by removing some of the most popular potential political

leaders from competition. Thus, we do not treat the pre-independence elections as democratic. Before independence, the PAP government arrested 111 "agitators," most from a leftist faction of the party, who had opposed Lee and split from the party prior to the 1963 election, further reducing democraticness. At independence in 1965, Lee Kuan Yew and PAP were fully in control (LePoer 1991b, Means 1996: 105). The administration is regarded as authoritarian, despite the presence of competitive elections prior to independence, due to the exclusion of parties and individuals who were anticipated to garner significant support. Following independence, suppression of leftist factions and electoral manipulation persisted (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 93-94). On 08/11/1965 The Lee Kuan Yew government announced two days after separation that Singapore would be a republic, with Malay as its national language and Malay, Chinese, English, and Tamil retained as official languages. The Legislative Assembly was renamed the Parliament, and the prominent Malay leader, Yusof bin Ishak, was made president of the republic. The new nation, immediately recognized by Britain, Australia, New Zealand, and the United States, was admitted to the UN in September and the Commonwealth the following month. In the early months following separation, Singapore's leaders continued to talk of eventual reunion with Malaysia (LePoer 1991a). The party system is dominated by the People's Action Party (PAP) led by Lee Kuan Yew. Between 1965 and 1981, the PAP was the only political force represented in parliament. Elections were partially competitive, but some of the most popular potential political leaders were excluded from competition. Singapore operates under a multiparty political system, with 11 parties participating in the 2020 parliamentary elections. Nonetheless, several factors contribute to the dominant position of the PAP, including an electoral structure that favors incumbents, limitations on political content in films and television programs, the risk of defamation lawsuits, the PAP's significantly greater financial resources, and its control over mass media and the judiciary.[253] After Lee Hsien Loong, the acting prime minister, announced his retirement for 05/15/24, he declared former finance minister Lawrence Wong his successor, ending a 20-year reign. Wong had been designated the next PAP leader in an internal election in 2022. Notably, the transition of power is set to occur before the next 2025 general elections.[254] In 09/23 Singapore held their first contested presidential elections in more than a decade, in which former deputy prime minister Tharman Shanmugaratnam managed to secure the presidency with more than 70% of the votes.[255] Since 2021 the government has continued to pass laws limiting

[253] https://freedomhouse.org/country/singapore/freedom-world/2022
[254] https://bti-project.org/de/reports/country-dashboard/SGP
[255] https://freedomhouse.org/country/singapore/freedom-world/2024

freedom of expression such as the Foreign Interference (Countermeasures) Act (FICA) on 10/04/2021, which multiple organizations claim is intended to limit dissent.[256]
Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Chua 1995, Slater 2010)

Sint Maarten

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of Netherlands, Constitutional Monarchy] [Start: 03/26/1648]: Originally claimed by Spain, the island attracted the attention of European powers like France, Britain, and the Netherlands. The French aimed to establish colonies between Trinidad and Bermuda, while the Dutch saw it as a strategic location between New Amsterdam (now New York) and New Holland. In 1631, the Dutch constructed Fort Amsterdam on the island, with Jan Claeszen van Campen as its first governor. In 1633, the Spanish took control, but by 1648, they abandoned the island as the Eighty Years' War ended and it lost its strategic value. The Dutch and the French then vied for control. To avoid all-out conflict, they signed the Treaty of Concordia on 03/26/1648, splitting the island into two parts.[257] The Dutch segment of the island was integrated into the Dutch West Indies in 1828 and, by 1845, had become one of the six Dutch island territories in the West Indies subjected to joint governance.[258]
12/15/1954 End Colonial Regime [of Netherlands, Democracy]/Start Democracy [as Part of Netherland Antilles as Protectorate of Netherlands, Democracy]: In 1954, Sint Maarten, along with other Dutch Caribbean colonies, was united to create the Netherlands Antilles.[259] In 1989, the political leadership of Sint Maarten expressed their intention to attain complete independence at the earliest opportunity. However, ultimately, Sint Maarten opted to maintain its association with the Netherlands, granting it a higher level of self-governance. In 2006, the people of Sint Maarten, in conjunction with the other islands and the Dutch government, reached an agreement to dissolve the Netherlands Antilles.[260]
10/10/2010 Continuation Democracy [as Protectorate of Netherlands, Democracy]: On this date, Sint Maarten became a country within the Kingdom of the Netherlands.[261] Sint Maarten follows a parliamentary representative democratic system featuring a multi-party framework. Sint

[256] https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/SGP
[257] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sint_Maarten#History
[258] https://www.britannica.com/place/Saint-Martin-island-West-Indies
[259] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cura%C3%A7ao#Dutch_colonial_rule
[260] https://www.britannica.com/place/Saint-Martin-island-West-Indies
[261] https://www.britannica.com/place/Saint-Martin-island-West-Indies

Maarten enjoys extensive self-governing authority on most issues, except for those outlined in the "Kingdom affairs" section of the Charter for the Kingdom of the Netherlands.[262] The Sint Maarten judiciary acts independently and regular elections for the Estates of Sint Maarten (the parliament) are held under universal suffrage.[263][264] The most recent fair and free elections were held on 08/19/2024.[265]
Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Siam (see Thailand)

Slovakia

01/01/1900 Part of Other Country [Hungary, Constitutional Monarchy]: Since the tenth century, the territory of what is later known as Slovakia, belonged to the Hungarians. Only when the Austro-Hungarian Empire disintegrated in 1918, Slovakia got a new ruler.[266]
10/28/1918 End Part of Other Country [Hungary, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Part of Other Country [Czechoslovakia, Non-electoral Transitional Regime]: On this date, the Territories of the Austro-Hungarian Empire were declared independent and some of them formed the Czechoslovak Republic, including todays Slovakia.[267] The Czechoslovak Constitution adopted on 02/29/1920 guaranteed universal suffrage.[268]
03/14/1939 End Part of Other Country [Czechoslovakia]/Start Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy [as Protectorate of Germany, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]: On this date, Slovakia became the Slovak Republic and declared independence from Czechoslovakia. Instead, it became a client state of Nazi Germany.[269] The country was ruled by Hlinka's Slovak People's Party, a clerical-fascist party, as a one-party state. Elections were scheduled for 1943, but they did not take place, consolidating the parties power grip.[270] The government played a central role in regulating and controlling the economy. For example, it established a number of cartels and monopolies, and it also imposed strict controls on wages and prices. The regime was characterized by a strong

[262] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Sint_Maarten
[263] https://www.cia.gov/the-world-factbook/field/suffrage/
[264] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Sint_Maarten
[265] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2024_Sint_Maarten_general_election
[266] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Slovakia
[267] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/First_Czechoslovak_Republic
[268] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage; https://spectator.sme.sk/c/22336586/the-1920-constitution-rooted-democracy-and-womens-suffrage-in-czechoslovakia.html
[269] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Slovak_Republic_(1939%E2%80%931945)
[270] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Slovak_People%27s_Party

emphasis on nationalism and antisemitism, Tiso cooperated with Germany in the deportation of Jews, overseeing the transfer of numerous Slovak Jews to extermination and concentration camps in Germany and German-occupied Poland. Additionally, some Jews within Slovakia were directly subjected to acts of violence resulting in their deaths.[271] However, the party was marked by internal conflicts. Two separate wings had emerged, the radicals wanted to establish a more radical fascist regime, modeled after Nazi Germany, whereas the conservatives pursued a mildly more moderate, but still fascist, way. When it looked like the conservative wing would win, Nazi Germany intervened and appointed a new Prime Minister, Vojtech Tuka. In 1941 the conservatives won the power struggle. Germany accepted the situation, because they needed a successful example of a satellite state.[272]

04/03/1945 End Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy [as Protectorate of Germany, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]/Start Part of Other Country [Czechoslovakia, Communist Ideocracy]: For the regime in this period see **Czechoslovakia**. The Prague Spring of 1968, initiated by Slovak leader Alexander Dubček, was partly motivated by a desire for greater Slovak autonomy within Czechoslovakia. Following the suppression of the Prague Spring, the federalization of Czechoslovakia in 1968 was a key development for Slovakia, leading to the formation of the Slovak Socialist Republic. This gave Slovakia more self-governance, although the real power still remained with the central communist party in Prague. Slovakia, with its strong Catholic tradition, had a tense relationship with the officially atheist communist regime. The government suppressed religious institutions and tried to limit the influence of the Church, which was a significant cultural and social force in Slovakia. The communist regime in Slovakia, as in the rest of Czechoslovakia, controlled and censored the media, literature, and the arts, promoting Soviet-style socialist realism. Slovak culture and language, however, were promoted in an attempt to build a unified socialist national identity. This was a departure from the pre-war era, where Slovak culture often played a secondary role to Czech culture in the combined state. One of the major shifts was the transformation of Slovakia from a predominantly agrarian society to a more industrial one. Before the communist era, the majority of Slovakia's population was engaged in agriculture. However, by the end of the communist period, only a small percentage of all employees continued to work in agriculture. This shift was accompanied by rapid urbanization and the creation of new employment opportunities (Londák/Londáková 2011).

[271] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jozef_Tiso
[272] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Slovak_People%27s_Party

01/01/1993 End Part of Other Country [Czechoslovakia, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Democracy: On this date, independence was declared.[273] The country has a unicameral National Council as its sole constitutional and legislative body, with delegates elected for four-year terms based on proportional representation. The president, who is the head of state, is elected by direct popular vote for a five-year term.[274] Slovakia's parliamentary structure involves routine multiparty elections and peaceful transitions of power among competing parties. Although civil liberties are typically upheld, democratic institutions face challenges due to persistent discrimination against Roma communities and escalating political animosity towards migrants and refugees. Moreover, political corruption continues to pose a significant issue.[275] On 09/30/2023 early parliamentary elections were held, from which the left-wing nationalist party Direction – Social Democracy (Smer-SD) emerged as the party with the most votes, while Progressive Slovakia (PS) came second and Voice – Social Democracy (Hlas-SD) third.[276] A three-party coalition consisting of Smer-SD, Hlas-SD and the Slovak National Party was formed under prime minister Robert Fico.[277] While PRC classifies the regime as a semidemocracy between 1993 and 1998, all other regime datasets (like BMR, CGV, GWF, HTW) classify the regime in this period as a democracy. However, these datasets do not include the category of a semi-democracy. According to our definition, despite some defects, the regime is a democracy. Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Mikus 1963, Rybář 2010, Saxonberg 2001)

Slovenia

01/01/1900 Part of Other Country [Austria, Constitutional Monarchy] [Start: 05/12/1797]: After the dissolution of the Republic of Venice on 05/12/1797[278], the Venetian Slovenia was passed to the Austrian Empire. The Slovenia was part of the French-administered Illyrian Provinces established by Napoleon, the Austrian Empire and Austria-Hungary.[279] In the 1890s political parties were formed, including the Progressive (Liberal) Party, the Socialist Party, and the

[273] https://www.systemicpeace.org/polity/P5Slovakia2018.pdf; https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Slovakia_2017?lang=en
[274] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Slovakia
[275] https://freedomhouse.org/country/slovakia/freedom-world/2022; https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Slovakia_2017?lang=en
[276] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2023_Slovak_parliamentary_election
[277] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fico%27s_Fourth_Cabinet
[278] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fall_of_the_Republic_of_Venice
[279] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Slovenia

Slovene People's Party. During World War I, Slovenes fighting in the Austrian army suffered huge losses against the Italians in incessant battles of attrition along the Soča front. In 03/1917 deputies in the Austrian Reichsrat forwarded a declaration in favor of Trialism, In that context, it signified the consolidation of all regions of the monarchy populated by South Slavs into a single independent political entity, under the rule of the Habsburg dynasty.[280]

12/01/1918 End Part of Other Country [Austria, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Part of Other Country [Yugoslavia, Constitutional Monarchy]: On this date the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, later Kingdom of Yugoslavia, was established. The idea of Trialism, an ideal of a partnership between South Slavs, Austrians, and Hungarians fell victim to the collapse of Austria-Hungary due to WWI.[281]

04/08/1941 End Part of Other Country [Yugoslavia, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Occupation Regime [by Germany, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy and Italy, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]: In April 1941 the Kingdom was occupied and partitioned between Germany, Italy, Hungary, Bulgaria and their client regimes.[282] Slovenia was the only present-day European nation that was trisected and completely annexed into both Nazi Germany and Fascist Italy during World War II. Fascist Italy occupied south-central Slovenia, which was renamed the Province of Ljubljana, while Nazi Germany took over the northern and eastern parts of the country. Resistance started against the two occupational powers. In return Italian violence against the Slovene civilian population escalated. The Italian authorities deported some 25,000 people to concentration camps, which equaled 7.5% of the population of their occupation zone. After the Italian 'Armistice of Cassibile' on 09/03/1943, the Germans took over both the Province of Ljubljana and the Slovenian Littoral, incorporating them into what was known as the operation zone of Adriatic coastal region.[283]

11/29/1945 End Occupation Regime [by Germany, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy and Italy, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]/Start Part of Other Country [Yugoslavia, Communist Ideocracy]: On this date Yugoslavia was liberated by the partisan resistance and the Socialist Federal Republique of Yugoslavia was proclaimed. [284] On 11/29/1945 the Federal Slovenia, later Socialist Republic of Slovenia and Republic of Slovenia, was proclaimed. It was one of the six federal Republics forming Yugoslavia and the nation state of the Slovenes.[285] The first free multi-

[280] https://www.britannica.com/place/Slovenia/The-Middle-Ages
[281] https://www.britannica.com/place/Slovenia/The-Middle-Ages
[282] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kingdom_of_Yugoslavia
[283] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Slovenia
[284] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Slovenia
[285] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Socialist_Republic_of_Slovenia

party elections in Slovenia were held on 04/08/1990 (Ramet 1993). These elections led to the formation of a government by Demos, a coalition of newly established parties, and were an essential step in Slovenia's transition to independence.[286] Slovenia made plans to hold an independence referendum, but the Yugoslav government warned Slovenia that it would use force to maintain the union on 12/18/1990.[287]

06/25/1991 End Part of Other Country [Yugoslavia, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Democracy: On this date Slovenia, as the first republic, gained independence from Yugoslavia. Universal suffrage was introduced with independence (LIED).[288] On 05/01/2004 Slovenia joined the European Union.[289] Slovenia operates as a parliamentary republic with a democratically elected government. While political freedoms and civil liberties are generally upheld, the present right-wing administration has made efforts to undermine the rule of law and democratic structures, particularly targeting the media and judiciary. This has elicited resistance from civil society. Despite ongoing challenges, corruption persists, albeit actively countered by the media. The judiciary has demonstrated a commitment to impartial decision-making.[290] Election observer organizations declared that the elections in 2020 were conducted efficiently according to minimum democratic standards but noted some irregularities that affected turnout and results.[291] Slovenia has a parliamentary system of government with a multiparty system. The bicameral parliament is composed of the National Assembly and the National Council. On 04/24/2022 parliamentary elections, to elect the members of the National Assembly, took place. The Freedom Movement (GS) won the largest share of votes and since then leads a coalition with the Social Democrats and The Left.[292] The election was deemed free and fair by the OSCE.[293]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Gallenkamp/Kassner 2010)

Solomon Islands

286

287 https://uca.edu/politicalscience/home/research-projects/dadm-project/europerussiacentral-asia-region/yugosloviaslovenia-1990-1992/

288 https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Slovenia_2016?lang=en

289 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Slovenia

290 https://freedomhouse.org/country/slovenia/freedom-world/2022

291 https://freedomhouse.org/country/slovenia/freedom-world/2022; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2020_Serbian_parliamentary_election

292 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2022_Slovenian_parliamentary_election

293 https://freedomhouse.org/country/slovenia/freedom-world/2023

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 03/15/1893]: The process of colonial annexation began in 1893 when the British Solomon Islands Protectorate was declared over the southern islands. Over the subsequent decade, additional islands were incorporated, including the northern islands transferred from Germany to Britain in 1899. Arbitrary borders were established, and a centralized colonial administration was implemented, without adequate regard for their compatibility with existing local governance structures (Dinnen 2008).

The British takeover of the Solomon Islands in 1893 did not have the goal of safeguarding or advancing the welfare of the indigenous population. The incident in 1927, where an official group was massacred while collecting head taxes from tribesmen on Malaita, underscored the deep-seated local grievances towards the colonial authorities. (Premdas/Steeves 1985). Therefore, the Solomon Islands Protectorate, previously identified as 'belonging to Germany,' was transferred to Great Britain without local consent through a Treaty in 1899 (Crawford 2006).

01/22/1942 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Occupation Regime [by Japan, Constitutional Monarchy]: The Japanese occupied these islands and began the construction of several naval and air bases with the goals of protecting the flank of the Japanese offensive in New Guinea (Gegeo 1991).[294]

09/08/1945 End Occupation Regime [by Japan, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]: On this date the Japanese occupation ended as result of the developments of the Second World War.[295] A consensus regarding the formal governmental structure had gradually developed since the late 1960s, coinciding with the establishment of parliamentary committees aimed at gathering public input on political and constitutional reforms.[37] In 1960, a country-wide nominated Legislative Council was established. This was followed in 1964 with the introduction of universal adult suffrage under which a minority segment of the Council was elected by the people. Through a systematic approach by which nominated members were replaced by elected legislators, combined simultaneously by a gradual approach of transferring executive powers to the elected members, over a period of 10 years from 1964 to 1974, a fully elective parliament with a cabinet-style executive was put in place as the preferred Solomon Islands form of government. Male suffrage was introduced in 1964 (LIED). On 05/22 & 06/12/1973 general elections were held in the Solomon Islands. The following year,

[294] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Japanese_occupation_of_the_Solomon_Islands#References
[295] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Japanese_occupation_of_the_Solomon_Islands

Solomon Mamaloni of the People's Progressive Party became the first Chief Minister. Female suffrage was also introduced in 1974.[296]

02/01/1976 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Semidemocracy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: internal self-government (Governor still retaining responsibility for defense, external affairs, internal security, police and the public service) (Premdas/Steeves 1985). The British blueprint of a gradual approach of transferring legislative and executive powers to an indigenous leadership was applied to the Solomon Islands in its quest for self-determination. On 06/22/1976 the first general elections were held, three political parties participated, but the largest group in the newly elected parliament consisted of independents.[297] Petir Kenilorea became Chief Minister, led the Solomon Island to independence and became 1978 the first prime minster.[298]

07/07/1978 Continuation Semidemocracy [as independent country]: On this date the Solomon Islands gained independence from Great Britain. Modern state institutions only began to replace colonial structures in the two decades before the Islands' independence and, as a result, had shallow foundations and legitimacy in the local environment (Dinnen 2008).[299]

08/08/1980 End Semidemocracy/Start Democracy: On this date, the first general elections after independence were held. The Solomon Islands United Party led by Peter Kenilorea as first prime minister won the party.[300] FH categorized the elections as free.[301] In 1998 ethnic tensions and violence emerged. Insurgents on Guadalcanal were engaged in a conflict aimed at overthrowing the island's predominant Malaitan minority.[302] This period is known as 'the Tensions'.[303] Despite ongoing ethnic tensions during this period, civil liberties were upheld. The judiciary operated independently, and the media effectively acted as an outlet for oppositional critique (Karatnycky 1999: 420).

06/17/1999 End Democracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, a four-month lasting state of emergency was declared because the violence between armed political groups escalated, and ethnic violence started to arise. During this period, the Ulufa'alu administration restricted press coverage and freedom of association, while also granting expanded authority to the police

296 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1973_Solomon_Islands_general_electionhttps://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage

297 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1976_Solomon_Islands_general_election

298 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peter_Kenilorea

299 https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Solomon_Islands_2018?lang=en

300 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1980_Solomon_Islands_general_election

301 https://freedomhouse.org/sites/default/files/2020-02/Freedom_in_the_World_1980_complete_book.pdf

302 https://www.britannica.com/place/Solomon-Islands/History

303 https://www.britannica.com/place/Solomon-Islands/History

force.[304] On 06/05/2000 Prime minister Bartholomew Ulufa'alu was kidnapped by members of the Malaita Eagle Force, a militia formed in response to the ethnic conflicts in domestic politics. In exchange for his own release Ulufa'alu resigned from the presidency.[305]

06/30/2000 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date, Manasseh Sogavarewas was elected as prime minister by 23–21 over Leslie Boseto. Sogavare's election was immediately surrounded by controversy due to the absence of six members of parliament (believed to be Boseto supporters) who were unable to attend the crucial vote.[306] New elections in December 2001 saw Allan Kemakeza become prime minister. As the conflict evolved, law and order continued to worsen. Violence persisted on the Weathercoast, while militants in Honiara increasingly engaged in criminal activities and extortion. Instances occurred where armed individuals surrounded the Department of Finance during fund disbursements. In December 2002, Finance Minister Laurie Chan resigned after being coerced at gunpoint to sign a cheque payable to certain militants.[307] The Australian government, with support of other Pacific Island nations and under the authorization of the Pacific Island Forum, led a multinational intervention force against 'the Tensions' called 'Regional Assistance Mission to Solomon Islands' (RAMSI). RAMSI was deployed to restore law and order, disarm the militants, and support the Solomon Island government.

04/05/2006 End Semidemocracy/Start Democracy: On this date general elections were held, which were regarded as peaceful and free by international observers.[308] As no party won the majority, the new Chamber chose Snyder Rini as prime minister, His naming led to two days of protests, as he was regarded as corrupt. Instead, the parliament elected a new prime minister in May, Manasseh Sogavare.[309] Sogavare was removed from office in 2007, when he lost a confidence vote. His successor lost the elections in 2010 to Danny Philip, who also lost the confidence vote shortly after and was replaced. The elections 2010 were overseen by international election observers, who voiced their concern about "serious flaws in voter register", but otherwise the elections were described as peaceful and orderly.[310] In the elections 2014, Sogavare came back into power.[311] Observers generally regarded the 2014 parliamentary election as free and fair, despite occasional reports of vote buying. Following the election, Parliament re-

[304] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2000_Solomon_Islands_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[305]https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bartholomew_Ulufa%27alu
[306] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bartholomew_Ulufa%27alu
[307] https://www.ramsi.org/the-tensions/
[308] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2006_Solomon_Islands_general_election
[309] https://www.refworld.org/docid/487ca25b82.html
[310]https://web.archive.org/web/20101003031217/http://www.thecommonwealth.org/news/228195/060810solomonislandsinterim.htm
[311] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solomon_Islands

elected Manasseh Sogavare as prime minister, leading to the formation of a coalition government. In November 2017, after a vote of no confidence against Sogavare, Parliament elected Ricky Houenipwela as prime minister, and he subsequently formed a new coalition government.[312] The elections 2019 were regarded as peaceful, however irregularities with the electoral lists were seen.[313] The next years saw rioting and unrest, the last took place in early 2023.[314] The political system is a parliamentary democracy with a prime minister as head of government. A governor general is selected by the National Parliament to represent the British Monarch as head of state. Power often transitions between competing groups and opposition parties have the freedom to campaign unrestrictedly. Civil liberties and political rights are generally upheld. However, corruption and discrimination persist as ongoing concerns.[315]
Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Premdas 1983, Steeves 2001)

Somalia

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of Italy, Constitutional Monarchy] [de facto Start: 08/03/1889]: Egypt occupied parts of the Somali coast since the 1860s. After the Mahdist Movement Uprising in 1885, Egypt had to withdraw its forces from the Somaliland coast (Issa-Salwe 1996). Italy obtained the protectorate over Obbia and Mijertina in 1889 and administered the territory directly until 1898 (Tripodi 1999, Turner 2004). On 03/16/1905 Italian Somaliland became officially a colony of Italy. In 1925, the United Kingdom "gifted" Italy the Jubaaland region as a reward for having joined the First World War and in 1926, it became part of Italian Somaliland.[316] On 06/01/1936 Somalia became part of Italian East Africa (province of Somalia, formed by the merger of the colony and the Ethiopian region of Ogaden). Following conflicts between Ethiopia and Italy, the Ethiopian territory was annexed to Eritrea and Somalia, so that, apart from British Somaliland and French Djibouti, the Horn of Africa was almost completely under Italian control. The Ogaden became part of Somalia (Tripodi 1999).

[312] https://www.state.gov/reports/2018-country-reports-on-human-rights-practices/solomon-islands/
[313] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2019_Solomon_Islands_general_election
[314] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Solomon_Islands
[315] https://freedomhouse.org/country/solomon-islands/freedom-world/2023
[316] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jubaland

03/25/1941 End Colonial Regime [of Italy, Right-wing Autocracy]/Start (de facto) Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]: see for the time between 03/25/1941 and 04/01/1950 Somaliland.

04/01/1950 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start (de facto) Colonial Regime [of Italy, Democracy]: On this date, the United Nations made Italian Somaliland into a Trust Territory under Italian Administration (Tripodi 1999).[317] The "Amministrazione fiduciaria italiana della Somalia" began its rule, accompanied with the deployment of 6,500 troops. Therefore, the country's internal affairs were administered by the Italian Administration. In 1954, the first local elections were held, which were won by the Somali Youth League (SYL). However, the Italian Administration remained the state authority, only the cooperation between them and SYL grew.[318] In 1956, universal suffrage was introduced, and first parliamentary elections were held.[319] As the Italian Mandate should only exist for 10 years, the Italian Administration had to slowly pave the way towards a Somalian Democracy. In February 1956, the SYL won the majority of seats in the Territorial Council.[320] These elections gave the assembly complete power over domestic affairs. However, the Italian Administration had the right of absolute veto.[321]

07/01/1960 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [of Italy, Democracy]/Start (Male) Semidemocracy: On this date the independent Somali Republic came into being as a result of the merger of the British Somaliland Protectorate, which first became independent on 06/26/1960, and the Italian "Trusteeship Territory of Somaliland" (Turner 2004). The first parliament that took office was a merger of the elected officials of British Somaliland and Italian Somaliland.[322] They formed the National Assembly.[323] Adan Abdullah Osman Daar was named the first president and named Abdi Rashid Ali Shirmarke as prime minister on 07/12/1960. On 06/20/1961, a new constitution was approved in a referendum. The constitution was widely perceived as unjust in former Somaliland, with over 60% of northern voters opposing it in the referendum. Nevertheless, it was ratified into law. This decision fueled widespread discontent among the population in the north.[324] Until 1963 there was no universal suffrage in the Somali Republic. Only women in the

[317] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somalia; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trust_Territory_of_Somaliland
[318] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trust_Territory_of_Somaliland
[319] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[320] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1956_Italian_Somaliland_parliamentary_election
[321] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trust_Territory_of_Somaliland
[322] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1964_Somali_parliamentary_election
[323] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Federal_Parliament_of_Somalia
[324] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/State_of_Somaliland

former Italian Trust Territory had been granted the right in 1956. Women in the former British Somaliland were granted the legal right to vote in 1963.[325]

03/30/1964 End (Male) Semidemocracy/ Start Democracy: On this date parliamentary elections under universal suffrage took place. These were also the first elections to be conducted after the merger of British Somaliland and Italian Somaliland. The YSL won 69 out of 123 seats.[326] Human rights as well as political rights were safeguarded by the constitution of 1960. There was no political violence during this period. Overall, the civil and political rights of citizens were adequately protected. Additionally, there existed an operational independent judiciary (Khayre 2016: 16).

10/21/1969 End Democracy/Start Military Autocracy: After the president was assassinated in an unrelated incident, the military used the opportunity to stage a military coup led by colonels under the leadership of Siad Barre. They established the Supreme Revolutionary Council of 25, including initially four generals, seven lieutenant- colonels, and seven majors to rule the country. The goal of the council was to create socialism (Welch 1974: 137, Samatar 1992, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 94).

08/25/1976 End Military Autocracy/Start One-Party Autocracy: A one-party government by the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party was formed.[327] It replaced the Supreme Revolutionary Council. In 1979 a new constitution was instated, under which the first election since 1969 was held. As Somalia was a one-party state, the Somali Revolutionary Socialist Party won and the People´s Assembly appointed Siad Barre as President.[328] The regime is classified as a one-party autocracy and not a communist ideocracy because the SRSP encouraged private investment on a limited scale. The ideology was based on scientific socialism and Islamic tenets and not Marxism-Leninism.[329] After a failed coup attempt against Siad Barre in 1978, unrest swept Somalia.

01/26/1991 End One-Party Autocracy/Start No Central Authority: On this date, Siad Barre was driven from power, after multiple rebellions started across the country. Effective government ceased after in-fighting between groups began (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 94).[330] A humanitarian crisis started to unfold, leading to the formation of the United Nations Operation in Somalia (UNOSOM) in 1992. On 07/21/1991, northern groups of the country proclaimed

[325] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somali_Republic
[326] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1964_Somali_parliamentary_election
[327] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1979_Somali_constitutional_referendum
[328] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1979_Somali_parliamentary_election
[329] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somali_Democratic_Republic
[330] https://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-12285365

Somaliland Republic. Following Somaliland's example, the north-east of Somalia declared autonomy in 1998 and established Puntland.[331] In 2000 the Republic of Somalia, an interim government (the Transitional Federal Government) was formed, consisting of the many warring clans. It had its headquarters in Kenya until 2005 and never got the support of all war parties.[332] 03/20/2012 End No Central Authority/Start Non-Electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: The Transnational Federal Government was disbanded on 03/20/2012, as part of the official "Roadmap for the End of Transition", a political process that provided clear benchmarks leading toward the formation of permanent democratic institutions in Somalia,[333] and the first constitutional government was formed. The Federal Government of Somalia was the first permanent central government in the country since the start of the civil war.[334] Under the 2012 provisional constitution the president is elected with a two-third majority of both parliamentary chambers of the Federal Parliament to serve a four-year term. The president shares executive power with a prime minister, who must have the support of the parliament. However, the parliament is not elected by the citizens.[335] The lower house as legislative institution, is elected under a clan-based power-sharing system in which clan elders choose delegates, who in turn select lawmakers, rather than popular elections. The electoral framework does not provide for universal suffrage. Balloting is the result of an ad-hoc process based on lengthy negotiations among the country's main clans.[336] As neither the president nor the parliament are elected by the population, it cannot be coded as an electoral autocracy. Other datasets are on the borderline between personalist rule (AF), non-electoral autocracy (LIED) and closed autocracy (RoW), suggesting coding Somalia as a non-electoral transitional regime in this data set. As of 2016, the government had formed five federal member states, but these semi-autonomous regions frequently clash with the central government. Additionally, the government's authority over territory is challenged by a separatist administration in Somaliland and by the Shabaab, an Islamist militant group. National elections have yet to be conducted, and political dynamics are largely influenced by clan affiliations. Against a backdrop of persistent insecurity, both state and non-state actors frequently perpetrate human rights violations.[337] On 02/08/2017 Mohamed Abdullahi Mohame Farmaajo was elected as president by legislators, who were not freely elected themselves, but selected by tribal clans. Farmaajo's term concluded in 02/2021, and the

[331] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Puntland
[332] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somalia
[333] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somalia
[334] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somalia
[335] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somalia#Politik
[336] https://freedomhouse.org/country/somalia/freedom-world/2023
[337] https://freedomhouse.org/country/somalia

presidential election faced multiple delays throughout the year. In April, Parliament decided to prolong Farmaajo's term by two years, ostensibly to provide adequate time for the nation to prepare for direct elections. However, this decision was reversed a month later following international condemnation. Mohamed Abdullahi Mohamed was elected by Somalia´s two-chamber legislature as president and took over the office on 02/16/2017. After his term ended, struggles within the country prevented new elections, which then led to demonstrations and unrest. On 05/16/2022 former president Hassan Sheikh Mohamud was re-elected. The regime since 2012 is hard to classify.
Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Kakwenzire 1986, Wegemund 1999, Lewis 1981, Roberts 1986)

Somaliland
[Officially known as the Republic of Somaliland]

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 03/15/1893]: Egypt occupied parts of the Somali coast since the 1860s. After the Mahdist Movement Uprising in 1885, Egypt had to withdraw its forces from the Somaliland coast (Issa-Salwe 1996). In 1884, the northern part of Somaliland became a British protectorate while the southern part was ruled by local leaders who accepted Italian protection in 1889. British Somaliland was administered by the British India colony until 1898 and then managed by the Foreign Office upon 10/01/1898.[338] In 1905, it was transferred to the Colonial Office (Roberts 1986). In November 1909 the British colonial administration in British Somaliland was ordered to stay in three coastal towns on the red sea after a failed peace attempt with the Daraawiish. By 1913, the Daraawiish had control over the entire hinterland, leading the British to form the Camel Corps to police the area (Issa-Salwe 1996). In January 1920, a military expedition against Sayyid was launched, and by the end of February, the Dervish movement was destroyed. The Sayyid is believed to have died in the Ogaden in 1921 (Kakwenzire 1986). In 1925, the United Kingdom gifted Italy the Jubaaland region as a reward for having joined the First World War and in 1926, it became part of Italian Somaliland.[339]

[338] https://en-m-wikipedia-org.translate.goog/wiki/British_Somaliland?_x_tr_sl=en&_x_tr_tl=de&_x_tr_hl=de&_x_tr_pto=sc
[339] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Jubaland

08/18/1940 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Occupation Regime [by Italy, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]: Within the context of the Second World War, Italy invaded British Somaliland. However, the occupation was short lived, as the allied forces seized Mogadishu on 02/25/1941, and in March advanced to win back British Somaliland. Because the occupation started after 01/07/1940 and ended before 01/07/1940 it is not present in the country-year-version of the dataset.

03/25/1941 End Occupation Regime [by Italy, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]/Start (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: The British offensive in 1941 was successful and within a few weeks, between February and March, the whole of Somalia was conquered; with Mogadishu falling on 03/25/1941 (Tripodi 1999). In March 1941 all Somali territories (with the exception of French Somaliland which remained under the Vichy rule) were under the British flag (Issa-Salwe 1996). The former Italian Part of Somalia was put under a British Military Administration, while British Somaliland had its own military government. Starting 1946, the British rebuild the territories' administrative system in the former Italian parts (Tripodi 1999) (Issa-Salwe 1996). On 04/01/1950, the United Nations made Italian Somaliland into a Trust Territory under Italian Administration (see 04/01/1950 Somalia) (Tripodi 1999).[340]

06/26/1960 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Party) Regime: On this date, the independence of British Somaliland was reached, and the State of Somaliland was formed. It only existed for five days, before merging with the Trust Territory of Somaliland on 07/01/1960.[341]

07/01/1960 End Non-electoral Transitional (Party) Regime/Start Part of other country [Somalia, Semidemocracy]: see for the time between 07/01/1960 and 07/21/1991 Somalia.

07/21/1991 End Part of other country [Somalia, Semidemocracy]/Start Non-electoral Transitional Regime: On this date, northern groups of Somalia proclaimed Somaliland Republic. On 05/17/1991, the primary insurgent faction in the northern region of the nation, the Somali National Movement, announced the secession of an autonomous entity named the "Somaliland Republic." (Turner 2004). The Republic is internationally not recognized and therefore officially still part of the Somalian State. It had different types of government, which all crumbled due to fighting in the 1990s. In 1996, peace was established, which is relatively stable up to today.[342] Tuur assumed the presidency of Somaliland as its inaugural leader, initially championing separatism. However, by 1994, he shifted his stance, advocating instead for reconciliation within

[340] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somalia; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Trust_Territory_of_Somaliland
[341] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Independence_Day_(State_of_Somaliland)
[342] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somaliland

a federal governance framework. During his tenure, an armed conflict erupted, reaching resolution in 1992 through the Sheikh conference. Muhammad Haji Ibrahim Egal succeeded Tuur in 1993, overseeing a period marked by enhanced security measures and territorial consolidation. In 1994, Egal's administration confronted another conflict precipitated by rebel militias occupying Hargeisa airport, which was ultimately quelled by government forces by 1995. Simultaneously, Djibouti-backed Issa forces endeavored, albeit unsuccessfully, to assert control over certain regions of Somaliland. Egal continued his presidency until his demise in 2002, succeeded by Dahir Riyale Kahin, who assumed office as Somaliland's inaugural elected president in 2003.[343]

04/14/2003 Non-electoral Transitional Regime/Start Semidemocracy: In 2001, a new constitution was agreed upon and elections were held in the following years. With the new constitution, the Somaliland Republic regarded itself as a democracy. This constitution was approved by referendum on 05/31/2001.[344] The first elections that were held were the municipal elections on 12/15/2002.[345] The following year, presidential elections were held on 04/14/2003 and saw Danir Riyale Kahin victorious. His victory was rejected by the opposition, leading to protests. Nevertheless, the elections were considered democratic.[346] The first parliamentary elections took place in 2005. The next presidential elections were scheduled for August 2008. However, they were delayed multiple times, due to political instability. This was heavily criticized by the opposition. After multiple pushbacks, the elections were held on 06/26/2010. The elections were international described as fair and free, only the violence and fighting in some parts of the country did set a hurdle.[347] The next parliamentary elections took place in 2021, 16 years after the last one took place. They were delayed for numerous reasons, droughts, delayed voter registration and political conflicts. However, the elections on 05/31/2021 were considered free and democratic by international observers.[348]

Semidemocracy as of 07/12/2023 continued.

South Africa

[For the time between 01/01/1900 until 05/31/1910 see Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal and Orange Free State]

[343] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Somaliland#State_of_Somaliland_(Independence)
[344] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2001_Somaliland_constitutional_referendum
[345] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2002_Somaliland_municipal_elections
[346] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2003_Somaliland_presidential_election
[347] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2010_Somaliland_presidential_election
[348] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2021_Somaliland_parliamentary_election

05/31/1910 Electoral Oligarchy: In 1907 Dominion became the distinguishing label for the colonies with responsible government. Dominion status was a half-way house between colonial and independent status. On 05/31/1910 The Union of South Africa was established through the amalgamation of the formerly distinct Colonies/Dominions, including Cape Colony, Natal, Transvaal, and Orange Free State, creating a unified Dominion (McIntyre 1999). South Africa became independent under a racially restricted male suffrage.[349] The electoral laws excluded women and all non-whites from suffrage. Hence, elections were competitive but not at all universal. Because non-whites were the huge majority in South Africa the regime cannot be classified as a democracy and not even as an electoral autocracy (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 94). From 12/11/1931 on the Statute of Westminster granted full sovereignty to the Dominions. Dominion from then on only meant a common allegiance to the British Crown (McIntyre 1999). In 1931 female suffrage for white women was introduced.[350] However, the non-white majority never gained voting rights. In 1990, the National Party government lifted the ban on the African National Congress and other political organizations. Frederik Willem de Klerk ordered the release of Nelson Mandela from prison and began negotiations for a political transition. The government repealed apartheid legislation and agreed to hold free elections in 1994 with universal suffrage not regarding race or color of skin.[351]

04/29/1994 End Electoral Oligarchy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date, competitive elections with universal suffrage were held. The oppositional African National Congress (ANC) gained an overwhelming majority and government turnover took place (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 58, Sinai 1996, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 94).[352] Reports of corruption among government officials often emerge, and in recent years, the ruling ANC has been accused of undermining state institutions to protect corrupt officials and preserve its power as its support base has begun to wane.[353] South Africa is a bicameral democracy, with the president being both the head of state and of government. Its constitution, promulgated in 1996, acts as its supreme law, granting and securing civil liberties and political rights. In the elections on 05/08/2019 the parliamentary election was won by the ruling ANC, but with a reduced majority of 57.50%, down from 62.15% in the 2014 election. While the country is internationally considered a proponent of human rights,[354] corruption issues persist, including all levels of government, up to the presidency.

[349] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[350] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[351] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[352] http://africanelections.tripod.com/za.html
[353] https://freedomhouse.org/country/south-africa/freedom-world/2023
[354] https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1057/9780230306424_8

Moreover, gender-based discrimination and violence remains a problem. In 09/2022 the constitutional court continued to advance transparency reforms by ruling that senior officials must disclose the receipt of intraparty campaign funding.[355] On 07/01/2024, the ruling ANC announced a coalition agreement with the predominantly white Conservative Party, following the ANC's loss of its absolute majority in the 05/2024 election. This significant event marks the first time the ANC has not governed alone and the first instance of a predominantly white party participating in governance since the end of Apartheid.[356] This would suffice to declare South Africa a full democracy, as our previous reason of ANC-dominance no longer holds true. However, we continue to list the country as a Semidemocracy as in the meantime, the conditions of democracy have decayed beyond acceptability. Corruption, mismanagement and deterioration of state services have come to a point where social exclusion based on class is commonplace. Rolling blackouts due to infrastructure constraints or cessation of rail traffic are just some examples (Hausmann et al. 2023). A country that does not manage to provide its people with basic necessities for participating in public life cannot be classified as a democracy.
Semidemocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Lacour-Gayet 1977)

South Korea see Korea

Soviet Union: see Russia 1917 to 1991

South Sudan

Before 2011 South Sudan was a part of Sudan. The Southern Sudan Autonomous Region was an autonomous region that existed in Southern Sudan between 1972 and 1983. It was established on 02/28/1972 by the Addis Ababa Agreement which ended the First Sudanese Civil War. The region was abolished on 06/05/1983 by the administration of Sudanese President Gaafar Nimeiry. Revocation of southern autonomy was one of the causes of the Second Sudanese Civil War which would continue until January 2005, when southern autonomy was restored; the region became the independent Republic of South Sudan in 2011.[357] The Second Sudanese Civil War was a

[355] https://freedomhouse.org/country/south-africa/freedom-world/2023
[356] https://www.bbc.com/news/articles/cw9yx5w9577o
[357] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Southern_Sudan_Autonomous_Region_(1972%E2%80%931983)

conflict from 1983 to 2005 between the central Sudanese government and the Sudan People's Liberation Army. It was largely a continuation of the First Sudanese Civil War of 1955 to 1972. Although it originated in southern Sudan, the civil war spread to the Nuba mountains and the Blue Nile. It lasted for 22 years and is one of the longest civil wars on record. The war resulted in the independence of South Sudan six years after the war ended.[358]
[For the history of the region before 2011 see **Sudan**.]

07/09/2011 End Part of Other Country [Sudan, Military Autocracy]/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Personalist) Regime: On this date, South Sudan gained independence from the Republic of Sudan as the outcome of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA), signed on 01/09/2005 between the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) and the government of Sudan. The CPA granted the region of South Sudan a six-year transitional period of self-rule and allowed for an independence referendum, which took place from 01/09 to 15/2011. The results showed an overwhelming majority for independence from Sudan, granted on 07/09/2011.[359] Salva Kiir Mayardit was elected president of the semiautonomous region of Southern Sudan from 04/11-15/2010 and remained president after South Sudan gained independence.[360] The president cannot be impeached and has the authority to dismiss state governors and dissolve the legislature and state assemblies. A permanent constitution has not been published.[361] However, the Transitional Constitution of South Sudan 2011 (TCSS), enforced on the day of independence, introduced universal suffrage (Diehl/van der Horst 2013).[362] On 12/15/2013 the South Sudanese civil war started. It was a multi-sided civil war in South Sudan between forces of the government and opposition forces. In December 2013, President Kiir accused his former deputy Riek Machar and ten others of attempting a coup d'état. Machar denied trying to start a coup and fled to lead the SPLM – in opposition (SPLM-IO). Fighting broke out between the Sudan People's Liberation Movement (SPLM) and SPLM-IO, igniting the civil war. Ugandan troops were deployed to fight alongside the South Sudanese government.[363] On 08/17/2015 the South Sudanese government and Machar's rebels signed a peace agreement on, brokered by the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD), temporarily stopping the fighting. As part of the peace accord, Machar returned to Juba and was sworn in as vice president on 04/26/2016.[364] On 07/07/2016 the 2015

[358] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Sudanese_Civil_War
[359] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2011_South_Sudanese_independence_referendum
[360] https://freedomhouse.org/country/south-sudan/freedom-world/2023
[361] https://freedomhouse.org/country/south-sudan/freedom-world/2022
[362] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/South_Sudan_2013?lang=en
[363] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Sudanese_Civil_War
[364] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Riek_Machar

peace agreement collapsed after clashes between Kiir's and Machar's forces broke out. The fighting spreads across South Sudan and the southern Equatoria region.[365] Consequently, Machar fled the country, and the rebel chief negotiator, Taban Deng Gai, replaced Machar as acting vice president, rejected by Machar as he had fired Deng Gai before.[366] On 09/12/2018, President Kiir and rebel factions signed a second peace deal. However, rebels led by General Thomas Cirillo in Equatoria refused to sign the agreement and continued fighting.[367] On 02/22/2020 after months of renewed negotiations, Machar returned to Juba and formed a unity government, the Revitalized Transitional Government of National Unity, with Kiir on this date. They declared an end to the civil war.[368] The transitional government has postponed the 2023 general elections to late 2024.[369] The SPLM holds significant influence in the political arena, with the majority of competition occurring within the movement itself, following its fragmentation at the onset of the civil war. Kiir's intolerance towards dissent within the SPLM exacerbated the conflict. Both the government and the legislature, lacking electoral credibility, struggle to exert authority over the nation's territory.[370]

Non-electoral Transitional (Personalist) Regime as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Spain

01/01/1900 Constitutional Monarchy [Start: 10/19/1469]: In 1479 the Crown of Castile and the Crown of Aragon were dynastically united by the Catholic Monarchs on 10/19/1469.[371] The governments, institutions, and legal traditions of each kingdom remained independent of each other; alien laws (Leyes de extranjeria) determined that the national of one kingdom was a foreigner in the other Crowns/States). In 1831 the two kingdoms dissolved, and the unified kingdom of Spain emerged. the Constitution of 1812 enfranchised all Spanish men of Iberian or indigenous American descent in both hemispheres irrespective of property, but explicitly excluded Afro descendent men. Extended to all men from 1869 to 1878 (First Spanish Republic and three first years of Bourbon Restoration) and from 1890 to the end of the Second Spanish Republic (1931–36).[372] On 02/11/1873 the parliamentary majority proclaimed a republic and

[365] https://www.crisisgroup.org/africa/horn-africa/south-sudan/south-sudan-independence-civil-war
[366] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Riek_Machar
[367] https://www.crisisgroup.org/africa/horn-africa/south-sudan/south-sudan-independence-civil-war
[368] https://www.crisisgroup.org/africa/horn-africa/south-sudan/south-sudan-independence-civil-war
[369] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2024_South_Sudanese_general_election
[370] https://freedomhouse.org/country/south-sudan/freedom-world/2023
[371] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Catholic_Monarchs_of_Spain
[372] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37

forced King Amadeo I to abdicate. Suffrage now applied to men over 21. As early as May 1873, Spaniards elected a parliament under the new electoral law. Around four million Spaniards were eligible to vote.[373] However, still in the transition phase to democracy, the restoration of the monarchy of the House of Bourbon took place on 12/29/1874. Brigadier General Arsenio Martínez-Campos, who fought for the Republican government against the Carlist (House of Savoy), sided with the Alfonists (House of Bourbon). In December 1874, Alfonso of Bourbon was proclaimed King of Spain. However, fighting with Carlists continued until March 1876. The king now had sole power to govern again. Census voting again applied to the parliamentary elections. The elections were now systematically manipulated on a massive scale. Alfonso XIII was king of Spain from 05/17/1886 until 04/14/1931. However, the regime changed its character with the coup 1923.

09/13/1923 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start Right-Wing (Fascist) Autocracy: After a coup against the parliamentarian government Miguel Primo de Rivera established himself officially as prime minister and de facto as a dictator. During the Military Directory (1923-1925), the dictatorship created the official party of the regime, the Unión Patriótica (UP). However, Alfonso XIII was still king of Spain and played a considerable political role (Berman 2019: 265-67, Casey et al. 2020: 16).[374] In classifying the relatively mild autocracy of this period as fascist compared to the Nazi regime in particular, we follow the assessment of Shlomo Ben-Ami (1983).

01/28/1930 End Ring-Wing (Fascist) Autocracy/Start Constitutional Monarchy: On this date, King Alfonso XIII forced Primo's resignation. The following governments of General Dámaso Berenguer and Admiral Juan Bautista Aznar were weak and could barely keep order (Berman 2019: 267-68, Casey et al. 2020: 16).[375]

04/12/1931 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start (Male) Semidemocracy: On this date, local elections were held, which demonstrated that the major cities of Spain had a strong Republican support. To avoid the risk of civil war and protests in Madrid, Alfonso XIII abdicated and left the country. On 12/09/1931 a new progressive constitution was formulated, introducing a range of provisions including universal suffrage, freedom of religion, and efforts to diminish the influence of the Roman Catholic Church, among others.[376] 11/19/1933 End (Male) Semidemocracy/Start Democracy: On this date general elections took place, which were the first in which women were granted the right to vote.[377] On 10/01/1936, Franco was officially

[373] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dictatorship_of_Primo_de_Rivera
[374] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Miguel_Primo_de_Rivera; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alfonso_XIII
[375] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alfonso_XIII; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Miguel_Primo_de_Rivera
[376] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spanish_Constitution_of_1931#Liberties_for_religious_minorities
[377] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37

acknowledged as the Caudillo of Spain, a title akin to the Italian Duce and the German Führer, by the Junta de Defensa Nacional (National Defense Junta), which governed the territories controlled by the Nationalists.[378] In April 1937, Franco took command of the Falange Española de las JONS, which was previously led by Manuel Hedilla following the execution of José Antonio Primo de Rivera by the Republican government in November 1936. Franco amalgamated it with the Carlist Comunión Tradicionalista to establish the Falange Española Tradicionalista y de las JONS.[379] Although the constitution of the Second Spanish Republic enshrined numerous civil liberties and democratic principles, this era was overshadowed by political violence between left-wing extremists and right-wing Falangists. This violence reached its peak with the assassination of the anti-fascist Lieutenant José Castillo by Falangists, followed by the socialist retaliatory killing of José Calvo Sotello, a prominent right-wing opposition leader.[380] The 1936 election was marred by allegations of fraud.[381]

03/28/1939 End Democracy/Start Right-Wing (Corporatist) Autocracy: The defeat of the Popular Front government's forces in Madrid signaled the ultimate triumph of the nationalist armed forces, and Franco became the leader of the victorious side (Rinehart/Browning 1990, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 94-95).[382] The 1937 Unification Decree, consolidating all factions backing the rebel cause, transformed Nationalist Spain into a single-party system under the FET y de las JONS.[383] Initially, the Francoist dictatorship was characterized as a "fascistized dictatorship" or "semi-fascist regime," demonstrating evident influences of fascism in areas such as labor relations, autarkic economic policies, aesthetics, and the establishment of a single-party system.[384] The only trade union entity, known as the Organización Sindical Española (OSE or Sindicato Vertical), comprised corporatist associations bringing together both employers and workers, in contrast to Marxism's emphasis on class conflict. Additionally, all civil servants and public officials were required to pledge allegiance to the Principles of the National Movement.[385] Starting in 1945, Franco altered the distribution of power within his supporters, transitioning it from the Falange to Catholics. [386] Unlike fascist movements in Italy and Germany, Franco did

[378] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francoist_Spain
[379] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francoist_Spain
[380] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Spanish_Republic#Assassinations_of_political_leaders_and_beginning_of_the_war
[381] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Spanish_Republic#1936_elections
[382] https://www.theguardian.com/theguardian/2011/mar/29/archive-madrid-gives-itself-up-to-franco-1939
[383] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francoist_Spain
[384] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Francoist_Spain
[385] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Movimiento_Nacional
[386] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Movimiento_Nacional

not have a mass, populist movement behind him. Instead, his rise to power was a result of a military coup during the Spanish Civil War. The regime upheld conservative, traditional values, including strong ties to the Catholic Church and a rejection of liberal and left-wing ideologies. Regarding the regime data sets there is a great uncertainty in classifying the regime led by Franco. While HTW and MCM classify it as a one-party autocracy, it is a personalist regime according to GWF. Different from that AF and BR categorize it as a military autocracy. Following Franco's death in 1975, King Juan Carlos took over as head of state with the same prime minister chosen by Franco in office, briefly continuing the regime. In our dataset we classify it as a right-wing (Corporatist) autocracy.

11/18/1976 End Ring-Wing (Corporatist) Autocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: On this date, the Political Reform Law was passed by the Francoist government, which introduced universal suffrage parliamentary elections. Despite being passed under the Francoist corporatist system of representation; these changes marked the end of the Francoist regime. However, in June 1976, the king replaced the prime minister with a former Francoist reformer who introduced the reforms that ultimately ended the Francoist system (Rinehart/Browning 1988, Powell 1994: 16, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 95).

06/15/1977 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start (Monarchical) Democracy: On this date the first free election since 1936 was held.[387] Female suffrage was recovered with the new Spanish Constitution in 1977.[388] The first period saw the beginning of the development of the rule of law and the establishment of regional government, amidst ongoing terrorism, an attempted coup d'état and global economic problems.[389] Concerning the quality of democracy in Spain, it has experienced ups and downs. In 2022, the Economist Intelligence Unit downgraded Spain from a full democracy to a "flawed democracy" due to concerns about its judicial independence, particularly over the appointment of new magistrates to the General Council of the Judiciary (CGPJ).[390] The political landscape in Spain since the transition has been both simple and complex. From 1977 until 1982, Spain was governed by the Union of the Democratic Centre (Unión de Centro Democrático; UCD), with the major opposition party being the Spanish Socialist Workers' Party (Partido Socialista Obrero Español; PSOE). Other significant parties included the right-wing Popular Alliance (Alianza Popular; AP) and the Spanish Communist Party (Partido Comunista de España; PCE). In 1982, PSOE came to power and governed until 1996. The UCD subsequently split into smaller parties, and the Popular Party

[387] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1977_Spanish_general_election
[388] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[389] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spanish_transition_to_democracy
[390] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Spain

(Partido Popular; PP), successor to the AP, became the leading opposition force. The PP won a plurality in the elections of 1996 and formed a government.[391] Spain is best described as a mid-performing democracy and has faced challenges such as secessionism, terrorism, corruption scandals, and economic crises. Despite these challenges, it has maintained stable democratic performance and seen improvements in the absence of corruption. The transition to democracy, while successful in establishing a democratic system, did not fully address demands for justice and reconciliation from those oppressed during the dictatorship.[392] Spain has a parliamentary system of government with a bicameral parliament consisting of the Congress of Deputies and the Senate.[393] The political landscape is characterized by free and competing parties.
(Monarchical) Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Blinkhorn 1986, Carr 1982, Hermet 1976, Linz 1964, Nohlen/Vallès 2010, Payne 1993, Payne 1999, Robinson 1970)

Sri Lanka
[Formerly known as Ceylon**]**

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 03/25/1802]: Ceylon became a British crown colony signing of the Treaty of Amiens on 03/25/1802 (Schrikker 2007). In 1931 universal suffrage for all irrespective of race, ethnicity, language, or gender was introduced.[394]
08/23/1947[-09/20/1947] End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Democracy [as (de facto) Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: Between these dates the first national Ceylonese parliamentary elections took place, which were won by the United National Party (UNP) and Ceylon became a self-governing nation as a British Dominion.[395] The Ceylon Independence Act came into effect on 12/10/1947.[396]
02/04/1948 Continuation Democracy [as independent country]: On 02/04/1948 Ceylon gained its independence within the Commonwealth (Ratnapalan 2016). On 05/22/1972 the name of the country was changed to Republic of Sri Lanka. The constitution of 05/22/1972 created a weak president appointed by the prime minister (Warnapala 1973). Between 1948 and 1978, Sri Lanka

[391] https://www.britannica.com/place/Spain/National-parties
[392] https://www.idea.int/democracytracker/country/spain
[393] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Spain
[394] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[395] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1947_Ceylonese_parliamentary_election
[396] https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/Geo6/11-12/7/enacted

is a borderline case between democracy and semidemocracy. While in doubt we follow the classification of BMR, CGV, GWF and PRC as democratic for this period.

09/07/1978 End Democracy/Start Semidemocracy: The new constitution of 09/07/1978 created in contrast to the previous constitution a very strong president.[397] To some observers the presidency had quasi dictatorial powers.[398] The president was entitled to override, amend or suspend the operation of any law enacted by parliament, to suspend parliament, and to expel members of parliament (Edrisinha 2000: 106). The government used UNP militants to harass and beat supporters of opposition parties with collusion from the police (DeVotta 2004: 143-46, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 95). According to GWF the Jayawardene government crossed the line to dictatorship (DeVotta 2002: 91, DeVotta 2004: 143-46, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 95) 09/07/1978. This is disputed by MCM. We agree with MCM that there was a gradual shift from democracy to autocracy between 1978 and 1983 (MCM: 28). In 10/1980 the political rights of the main opposition leader were canceled (Blood 1988, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 95). On 12/22/1982 a rigged referendum extended the UNP's 2/3 majority in Parliament instead of holding the required election (DeVotta 2001: 91, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 95). A pogrom against Tamil civilians in 1983 escalated the low-level violence into a full-blown civil war (until 2009) with Tamil separatists in the northeastern regions fighting for independence.[399] Despite this progressive autocratization, we classify the regime as semidemocracy because the UNP under Jayewardene came to power in democratic elections. The new constitution was not an illegitimate act per se either. It did not change the guarantee of fundamental rights and an independent judiciary.[400] However, the developments described above constitute severe restrictions on political and civil liberties as well as deficits in the institutional restrictions on the executive.

05/18/1983 End Semidemocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date president Jayawardene declared a state of emergency and exploited his parliamentary supermajority to extend the life of the sitting parliament without elections (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 59-60, Samarasinghe 1984).

12/19/1988 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: Presidential elections on this date were won by Prime Minister Ranasinghe Premadasa of the governing United National Party. However, the victory was narrow. On 02/15/1989 parliamentary elections took place (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 59-60). On 11/09/1994 presidential elections were won by

[397] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Sri_Lanka_2015?lang=en
[398] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sri_Lankan_Civil_War
[399] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sri_Lanka; https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/LKA
[400] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitution_of_Sri_Lanka

opposition (DeVotta 2002: 92, Samarsinghe/Samarsinghe 1998: 112). According to GWF this returned the country to democracy (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 95). Between 2010 and 2015 according to HTW and LIED Sri Lanka turned into a democracy. According to our classification the regime in Sri Lanka is classified as a semidemocracy for the whole period, because there was no regime changing event, but the quality of democracy varied over time. For example, the 2015 presidential elections were still characterized by deficits, violation of electoral laws and violent incidents.[401] In contrast, the 2019 presidential elections were classified by the EU as peaceful and upholding democratic institutions.[402] However, Nandasena Gotabaya Rajapaksa, winner of the 2019 presidential election, expanded presidential power and began to appoint family members to positions of power. In combination with an economic crisis, popular upheaval forced him out of office in 2022.[403] Throughout the period, however, there have been limitations on democracy that lead to the regime being classified as a semidemocracy.
Semidemocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Sudan

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 06/19/1899]: In 1899 the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium was declared, providing for the Sudan to be administered jointly by Egypt and Great Britain, with a governor-general appointed by the khedive of Egypt but nominated by the British government. In reality, however, there was no equal partnership between Britain and Egypt in the Sudan, as the British dominated the condominium from the beginning.[404] The Sudan was divided into 15 Provinces. The governors of the provinces were British Officers of the Egyptian Army. Administration was carried out through British inspectors in charge of one or more districts into which the provinces are subdivided (Willoughby/Fenwick 1974). The effective head of the government was Lord Cromer, the agent of British overrule in Egypt. Cromer treated the governor-general (from 1899 to 1916 Reginald Wingate) as a mere executive subordinate (Roberts 1986). During this time, however, two political parties emerged by 1945. There were two main parties involved: the National Unionist Party, headed by al-Azhari, advocated for the unification of Sudan and Egypt, receiving endorsement from Sayed Sir Ali al-Mirghani, a prominent religious leader. On the other

[401] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2015_Sri_Lankan_presidential_election#Conduct
[402] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2019_Sri_Lankan_presidential_election#International_reactions
[403] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gotabaya_Rajapaksa#
[404] https://www.britannica.com/place/South-Sudan/The-arts

side was the Umma Party, supported by Sayed Sir Abdur-Rahman al-Mahdi, which strongly pushed for complete independence without any ties to Egypt.[405]

04/01/1952 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: On this date Sudan was granted self-government as well as full Sudanisation of the administration within three years. In January 1953, Egypt and Britain arrived at a formal agreement of independence for the Sudan (Crowder 1984).[406] In the same year male suffrage was introduced (LIED). Under continued pressure, the United Kingdom conceded to Egypt's demands in 1953, with the governments of both Egypt and the United Kingdom agreeing to terminate the condominium, and grant Sudan independence in 1956.[407]

11/25/1953 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start (Male) Semidemocracy: On this date, parliamentary elections were held, in which the National Unionist Party (NUP) won. The election was generally regarded as free and fair.[408] However, due to the fact that only males had the right to vote the regime is classified as a semidemocracy. On 08/18/1955 the first Sudanese Civil War started. This was a conflict between the northern part of Sudan and the southern Sudan region that demanded representation and more regional autonomy. Half a million people died over the coming 17 years and the war was divided into four major stages: initial guerrilla warfare, the creation of the Anyanya insurgency, political strife within the government and establishment of the South Sudan Liberation Movement. On 01/01/1956 the independence became effective and the Sudan became the Republic of Sudan (Barbour 1980). Additional internal conflicts within the NUP concerning religious policies resulted in a division in February 1956, leading to the formation of the independent People's Democratic Party (PDP).[409] The PDP got together with the Umma party, to bring down al-Azhari and then formed a coalition government. They governed for the rest of the parliament´s tenure, however their reign was marked by internal conflict. Nevertheless, they were determined to keep working together.[410] The coalition comprising the Umma Party (securing 36% of seats) and the PDP (gaining 16% of seats) won the February 1958 elections after entering into an electoral agreement.[411] The new parliament was divided on many issues and faced factionalism and corruption, making it hard for the government to exercise its leadership.[412]

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[405] https://www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Sudan#Foreign_control:_Egyptian_and_British
[406] https://www.eisa.org/wep/sudoverview3.htm
[407] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Anglo-Egyptian_Sudan
[408] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1953_Sudanese_parliamentary_election
[409] https://www.eisa.org/wep/sud1965bg.htm
[410] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Republic_of_Sudan_(1956%E2%80%931969)
[411] https://www.eisa.org/wep/sud1965bg.htm;
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1958_Sudanese_parliamentary_election
[412] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Republic_of_Sudan_(1956%E2%80%931969)

11/17/1958 End (Male) Semidemocracy/Start Military Autocracy: A military coup led by General Ibrahim Abboud in a context of widespread anti-government demonstrations happened. The coup was orchestrated by Prime Minister Abdallah Khalil, a retired army general.[413] Abboud established the Supreme Council of the armed Forces made up of twelve senior officers as a military junta (Haddad 1973: 183-85, Ofcansky 1991, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 95) and declared a state-of-emergency.[414] The interim constitution was put on hold, and all political organizations were disbanded.[415]

10/29/1964 End Military Autocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: On this date, Abboud was forced due to a popular uprising to appoint a transitional civilian cabinet and resign (Haddad 1973: 195, Ofcansky 1991, Shepherd 1964: 12, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 95). Al-Khalifa became acting president of the new civilian regime. In 1964 female suffrage was introduced in Sudan.[416] The UNF government was dominated by the Communist Party of the Sudan (CPS), the People's Democratic Party and their allies in the trade union movement. National elections were scheduled for March 1965 despite the ongoing conflict in the south, which prevented elections from being carried out in this region. Political parties were split on the question whether the elections should be carried out only in the north or whether they should be postponed.[417]

04/21/1965 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Semidemocracy: Elections were held in the North on 04/21 to 05/08/1965, and the Umma Party (UP) won 90 out of 207 seats in the Constituent Assembly. Finally, the election for the constituent assembly was held in the South on 04/18/1967.[418] GWF classifies the country from 1966 to1968 as democratic, MCM, BR, AF and LIED from 1965 to 1969. We code this period as semidemocratic, because it was characterized by internal party conflicts as well as conflicts between parliament and head of parties. This situation resulted in two simultaneous governments in Khartoum— one convening inside the parliament building and the other on its lawn— both asserting to represent the legislature's will.[419] The different governments in this period were incapable of ensuring the

[413] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1958_Sudanese_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat; https://www.systemicpeace.org/polity/P5NorthSudan2018.pdf
[414] https://uca.edu/politicalscience/dadm-project/sub-saharan-africa-region/70-republic-of-sudan-1956-present/
[415] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ibrahim_Abboud
[416] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[417] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Republic_of_Sudan_(1956%E2%80%931969)#Post-October_1964
[418] https://www.eisa.org/wep/sud1969bg.htm
[419] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Republic_of_Sudan_(1956%E2%80%931969)#Post-October_1964

stability and guarantee of institutions, as well as the guarantee of political and civil liberties, such as religious freedom.[420]

05/25/1969 End Semidemocracy/Start Military Autocracy: A military coup led by General Nemery seized power from the civilian government on the basis that it had not solved the economic or social problems. He established a new junta with a leftist pan-arab orientation, the Revolutionary Command Council (Haddad 1973: 209-13, Ofcansky 1991, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 95).

07/19/1971 End Military Autocracy/Start Communist Ideocracy: Communists backed by Major Atta overthrew Jaafar and established an extremely short-lived communist government.

07/22/1971 End Communist Ideocracy/Start Military Autocracy: Jaafar and loyalist forces launched a counter coup against the communist regime headed by Atta. Jaafar resumed his chairmanship of his previous junta and began to suppress communists in his country.

04/06/1985 End Military Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: A conservative officer-led coup was carried out as a response to riots. This resulted in the removal of Numayri from power and the installment of a Transitional Military Council, which joined forces with previously marginalized civilians that had been excluded under the Numayri administration (Anderson 1999: 14-26, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 96).[421] Following the coup the junta appointed a largely non-partisan civilian cabinet, promulgated a revised constitution and oversaw elections for a Constituent Assembly, which were held as scheduled in April 1986 (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 60).

04/12/1986 End Military Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: Between 04/01 and 04/12/1986 the first multi-party elections in the country since 1968 were held. Power was returned to civilians (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 96).[422] Although these elections had been relatively free and fair, they could not be conducted throughout the entire national territory. The Umma Party emerged as winner but had to form a coalition government.[423] Although Sadiq al-Mahdi, leader of the Umma party and elected prime minister, promised to restore judicial independence, religious freedom and end the civil war those goals could not be achieved.[424] Therefore, this regime period is marked by deficits in the electoral process, as well as in the guarantee of political and civil rights and the independence of the judiciary.

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[420] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Sudan#Independence_and_the_First_Civil_War; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Republic_of_Sudan_(1956%E2%80%931969)#Post-October_1964

[421] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1985_Sudanese_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat

[422] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1986_Sudanese_parliamentary_election; https://africanelections.tripod.com/cf.html

[423] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1986_Sudanese_parliamentary_election

[424] https://www.refworld.org/docid/3ae6a607f.html

06/30/1989 End Semidemocracy/Start Military Autocracy: A military coup led by General Omar Hassan Ahmad al- Bashir and an Islamist faction against Sadiq al- Mahdi's elected all-party coalition government, imposed a state of emergency, dissolved all parties and unions, took possession of their assets, banned demonstrations, and established the 15 members, all military Revolutionary Command Council for National Salvation (R.C.C.) to rule. The new rulers dismissed much of the officer corps (Hoogland 1991, Burr/Collins 2003: 2, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 96, Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 88). On 12/12/1999 al-Bashir ordered tanks and troops to oust Hasson al-Turabir, a political rival, who was speaker of the parliament. This move concentrated absolute power in al-Bashir's hands.

04/11/2019 End Military Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: On this date Sudanese President Omar al-Bashir was overthrown by the Sudanese army after popular protests demanded his departure. At that time the army, led by Ahmed Awad Ibn Auf, toppled the government and National Legislature and declared a state of emergency in the country for a period of three months. He proclaimed himself the de facto Head of State, declared the suspension of Sudan's constitution, enforced a curfew, effectively quelling the ongoing protests. Additionally, he dissolved the National Legislature, national government, state governments, and legislative councils across Sudan. On 04/12/2019 the military regime in power agreed to potentially shorten its tenure and hand over governance to a civilian administration pending successful negotiations for its formation. Later that evening, Auf resigned from his position as head of the military council, appointing Lt. Gen. Abdel Fattah Abdelrahman Burhan, the general inspector of the armed forces, as his successor. Subsequently, on 04/13/2019 discussions between the protestors and the military commenced officially to facilitate the transition to a civilian-led government. By 04/27/2019 a consensus was reached to establish a transitional council comprising both civilians and military personnel. However, the specifics of the power-sharing agreement had not been finalized, as both factions sought to secure a majority representation.[425] The Forces of Freedom and Change (FFC), the political coalition consisting of civilian and rebel coalitions, negotiated the power-sharing plan with the Transitional Military Council (TMC) in July 2019. The agreement was reached on 07/17/2019.[426] It included a 39-month transitional period aimed at restoring democracy as well as the establishment of executive, legislative and judicial institutions along with their respective procedures.[427] This constitutional declaration was signed by the TMC and FFC in August 2019.

[425] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2019_Sudanese_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[426] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Forces_of_Freedom_and_Change
[427] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sudanese_transition_to_democracy_(2019%E2%80%932021)

08/20/2019 End Military Autocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: On this date the Transitional Sovereignty Council took over as the collective head of state of Sudan. It consisted of five civilians chosen by the FFC and five military officers chosen by the TMC as well as one civilian chosen through consensus between the FFC and TMC. For the initial 21 months, the chair was designated to be a military representative, Abdel Fattah al-Burhan, while for the subsequent 18 months, a civilian member was to assume the role.[428]Abdalla Hamdok was appointed prime minister by the council on 08/20/2019 and sworn in on 08/21/2019.[429]

10/15/2021 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Military Autocracy: On this date, a military coup led by Lieutenant General Abdelfattah El Burhan ousted prime minister Abdalla Hamdok and the military seized power followed by the declaration of a state of emergency. Hamdok was reinstated later, however the military retained control over the government. He resigned on 01/02/2022 amid continuing protests – leaving the government in the hands of the military leaders.[430] The military declared not to hold elections until 2023. This power shift was encountered with violent protest by the people.[431] By 2023 the military had consolidated power of all governmental institutions. In April 2023, tensions between the Sudanese Armed Forces (SAF) and the Rapid Support Forces (RSF) spiked and brought negotiations over the formation of a new government to a standstill. Violence erupted as the groups became increasingly hostile. International Organizations in 2023 report that the conflict has led to over 12,000 deaths and 6 million displaced persons. The RSF has reportedly committed mass atrocities and ethnic cleansing in the Darfur region, killing or forcibly removing non-Arab parts of the population.[432] In December 2023, Sudan's military and civilian leaders agreed to a new framework aimed at restoring civilian rule. The transition efforts are however stalled because of the ongoing civil war between the SAF and RSF as well as several militias and armed groups. For now, no side seems able to break the stalemate which raises the question of the existence of a central authority.[433] For now, we classify Sudan as a military autocracy referring to the internationally recognized government of Sudan. The reasoning behind this choice is, that the RSF do not aim to secede or abolish the government's authority, but to usurp it. Defending

[428] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transitional_Sovereignty_Council
[429] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abdalla_Hamdok
[430] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/October%E2%80%93November_2021_Sudanese_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat; https://www.dabangasudan.org/en/all-news/article/sudan-military-seizes-power-arrests-pm-and-civilian-ministers-in-dawn-coup
[431] https://freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-world/2022/global-expansion-authoritarian-rule; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2021_Sudan_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[432] https://freedomhouse.org/country/sudan/freedom-world/2024#PR
[433] https://www.cfr.org/global-conflict-tracker/conflict/power-struggle-sudan

governmental authority against a usurper is, in this case a reason not to speak of a case of no central authority. It remains to be seen how the military situation on the ground plays out.
Military Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Metz 1991)

Suriname

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of Netherlands, Constitutional Monarchy] [Start: 07/31/1667]: In 1667, Suriname became a Dutch colony after being under British rule from 1650 to 1657. The Dutch fleet from Zealand commanded by Abraham Crynssen conquered Suriname and it passed into Dutch ownership under the Peace Treaty of Breda, signed on 07/31/1667.[434] In 1814, Suriname fell under the King's sovereignty and became the responsibility of the Minister of Colonies, who was responsible to the States General (Society of Surinam)(Van Lier 1971). Following the 1922 constitutional revision in the Netherlands, which replaced the term "colony" with "overseas territory," the government regulation of 1865 was replaced by the Basic Law of Suriname on 04/01/1937. This Basic Law changed the name of the Colonial Council to the Estates of Suriname and increased its membership from 13 to 15 (Muhlenfeld 1944).[435] After the signing of the 1941 Atlantic Charter by the Netherlands on 01/01/1942, Queen Wilhelmina proposed a federal system within the Kingdom of the Netherlands, but this was later deemed too heavy for the economies of Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles.[436] Universal suffrage was introduced in 1949 (LIED). On 03/14/1951 free and fair general elections were held.[437]
12/15/1954 End Colonial Regime [of Netherlands, Democracy]/Start Democracy [as Protectorate of Netherlands, Democracy]: Suriname gained internal autonomy (as part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands). In 1954, Suriname became an autonomous coequal member of the Kingdom of the Netherlands under the terms of the Statute of the Realm, with the exception of foreign affairs and defense Suriname.[438] The Charter enacted in 1954 allowed Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles to have a Minister Plenipotentiary and participate in Dutch cabinet meetings, and to alter their "Basic Laws." Delegates from both countries could participate in the States-General, and an overseas member could be added to the Council of State. The Charter did not allow for the

[434] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Treaty_of_Breda_(1667)
[435] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Surinam_(Dutch_colony)
[436] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Suriname_(Kingdom_of_the_Netherlands)
[437] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1951_Surinamese_general_election
[438] https://1997-2001.state.gov/background_notes/suriname_0398_bgn.html

unilateral exit of Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles from the Kingdom, but it could be dissolved through mutual consultation.[439] From this point on we code Suriname as a semisovereign entity (Protectorate status). On 11/25/1975 Suriname gained its independence on 11/25/1975 and the former governor Johan Ferrier was sworn in as president on the same day (Gallé 1993).[440] During this period regular elections were held with occasional changes in government.[441]

10/31/1977 End Protectorate [of Netherlands, Democracy]/Continuation Democracy [as independent country]: On this date Suriname held its first general elections after gaining independence. The result was a victory for the National Party Combination (an alliance of the National Party of Suriname, the Renewed Progressive Party, the Party for National Unity and Solidarity and the Suriname Progressive People's Party).[442] According to Freedom House elections during this period were fair and free, civil liberties were upheld and the judiciary acted independently (Gastil 1980: 297)

02/25/1980 End Democracy/Start Military Autocracy: Dési Bourterse, a military officer, and his group of sergeants overthrew the government of Prime Minister Henck Arron from the National Party of Suriname.[443] Bourterse established himself as the head of a military junta, the National Military Council of Suriname.[444] The civilian president resigned sometime later in protest. Bourterse moved to consolidate power over the country by removing members of his junta and the civilian president. He also dissolved the legislature and declared a state of emergency in an apparent self-coup. The regime ruthlessly quashed civic and political opposition, inaugurating a decade of military intervention in politics.[445]On 07/22/1986 the Surinamese Interior War began in Stolkertsijver when twelve soldiers manning a checkpoint were captured. The conflict initially stemmed from a personal dispute between Bouterse and Brunswijk, who had previously served as Bouterse's bodyguard. However, it eventually took on political significance, as Brunswijk pushed for democratic reforms, civil rights, and economic development for Suriname's Maroon minority.[446]

11/25/1987 End Military Autocracy /Start Democracy: On this date a general election took place. The result was a victory for the Front for Democracy and Development (an alliance of the

[439] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Suriname_(Kingdom_of_the_Netherlands)
[440] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Suriname_(Kingdom_of_the_Netherlands);
https://www.systemicpeace.org/polity/P5Suriname2018.pdf
[441] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1969_Surinamese_general_election
[442] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1977_Surinamese_general_election
[443] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Henck_Arron
[444] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Military_Council_(Suriname)
[445] https://www.refworld.org/docid/473c55fb53.html
[446] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Surinamese_Interior_War

National Party of Suriname, the Progressive Reform Party and the Party for National Unity and Solidarity).[447] The National Democratic Party (NDP), organized by the military, won just three out of 51 seats.[448] Throughout this period, the judiciary maintained a strong sense of independence, and civil liberties were generally upheld. However, anti-guerrilla operations in rural areas resulted in civilian casualties, and the government struggled to maintain control over the military (Gastil 1989: 461).12/24/1990 End Democracy/Start Military Autocracy: Bouterse disapproved of the new civilian president's policies, especially those concerning the jungle tribes. He threatened a coup by telephone, forcing Ramsewak Shankar to flee and Iwan Granoogst to take over as acting president (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 61). However, Bouterse was the de facto ruler of the country.[449]

05/25/1991 End Military Autocracy/Start Democracy: The military government that had seized power in December 1990 agreed to hold new elections in May 1991 (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 61). Multiparty general elections were last held in 2020, generally considered fair and free. The president acts as both the head of state and head of government. As per the 1987 constitution, the National Assembly is a unicameral body with 51 seats. Representatives are elected through proportional representation, serving five-year terms.[450] Generally, the judicial system is mostly independent from other branches of government, however clientelism and corruption remain issues that threaten democratic integrity. In 2022 major protests against corruption and nepotism erupted in July. In July, a Surinamese court commenced the hearing of an appeal filed by former president Désiré "Dési" Bouterse. In 2019, he was found guilty of the abduction and murder of political adversaries in 1982, during his tenure as Suriname's military leader.[451] In December 2023 he was sentenced to 20 years in prison for the murder of 15 political opponents during his reign.[452]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Stöver 2005)

Swaziland see Eswatini

[447] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1987_Surinamese_general_election; https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Surinam_1992?lang=en
[448] https://www.refworld.org/docid/473c55fb53.html
[449] https://www.refworld.org/docid/473c55fb53.html
[450] https://freedomhouse.org/country/suriname/freedom-world/2023
[451] https://freedomhouse.org/country/suriname/freedom-world/2023
[452] https://english.elpais.com/international/2023-12-20/surinames-ex-dictator-sentenced-to-20-years-in-prison-for-the-1982-killings-of-political-opponents.html#

Sweden

01/01/1900 Constitutional Monarchy [Start: 06/06/1809]: On 06/06/1523 Sweden seceded from the Kalmar Union that existed from 1397 to 1523.[453] The '1809 Instrument of Government' transitioned Sweden's absolute monarchy into a stable constitutional monarchy adhering to the rule of law and significant civil liberties. It was adopted on 06/06/1809.[454] Full male suffrage was introduced in 1909 for those aged 25 and above, but only to one of two equally weighed houses of parliament. Data from Polity5 identifies the time between 1907 to 1917 as a transitional from a constitutional monarchy to a democratic parliamentary monarchy.

10/19/1917 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start (Monarchical) Electoral Oligarchy: The transition to a regime where the king no longer held sway was initiated in 1917 when Gustaf V, compelled by circumstances, endorsed the concept of a parliamentary system. He pledged to Prime Minister Nils Edén that he would cease seeking counsel from clandestine advisors outside the official cabinet and refrain from further political meddling.[455] From then on the political influence of the King was considerably reduced and an unwritten constitutional precedent was set that would remain in effect until in 1975 a new constitution formalized the only ceremonial role of the monarch. Restricted male suffrage was already introduced in 1909, in 1911 it was extended, but requirements regarding completed military service and income remained. Universal suffrage for men and women aged 23 was enacted in 1919. But still requirements regarding military service and income remained.[456]

09/26/1921 End (Monarchical) Electoral Oligarchy/Start (Monarchical) Democracy: On this date, the second round of the parliamentary elections, almost universal suffrage was applied for the first time. The share of the population which participated in the elections rose from 11.2 per cent in 1920 to 29.3 in 1921 (Widfeldt 2010: 1859). However, until 1922 men who refused to do military service were excepted from universal suffrage. Until 1945 people living on benefits, declared legally incompetent or declared bankruptcy were excepted from universal suffrage. Voting age changed to 21 in 1945, to 20 in 1965, to 19 in 1969 and to 18 in 1975. The elimination of voting restriction for men due to refused or non-fulfilment military service was a consequence of women´s suffrage. Maintaining these restrictions would only have affected one gender and

[453] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kalmar_Union
[454] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Instrument_of_Government_(1809)
[455] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monarchy_of_Sweden
[456] https://www.riksdagen.se/en/how-the-riksdag-works/the-history-of-the-riksdag/the-development-of-democracy-in-sweden/#1901-1950-40

therefore would have been inconsistent. The largest group to be disenfranchised in the 1921 elections, was the group living on benefits numbering around 42,000. A total of 2.2% of voters were disenfranchised in these elections (Sundevall/Berg/Sandin 2024: 4-8). [457] Due to the small number of people affected, we classify Sweden as a full democracy even before 1945. However, it must be pointed out that this restriction of the suffrage makes Sweden a borderline case between a semidemocracy and a democracy. Between 1932 and 1976 The Social Democratic Party held government and Sweden became a welfare state.[458] After a committee was appointed to review the constitution of 1809 in 1955, the Riksdag consisting of two chambers was changed to a one-chamber Riksdag in 1971. On 01/01/1975 the amended constitution came into force, which limited the powers and responsibilities of the king to merely ceremonial purposes, lowered the voting age to 18 and guaranteed the people the right to demonstrate.[459] Sweden has a parliamentary system of government with a unicameral system, the Riksdag. The head of state is the monarch who has almost only ceremonial functions. Safeguarding civil liberties and political rights is a high priority in Sweden. Equal rights for all members of society are ensured by the Swedish state. Political parties operate freely in a competitive environment. In addition, freedom of religion, freedom of the press and freedom of assembly are constitutional guaranteed and upheld in practice, the judiciary operates independently.[460] On 09/11/2022, general elections took place, leading to the formation of a right-wing government holding a narrow three-seat majority. In October, a ruling coalition was established comprising the Moderate Party, the Christian Democrats, and the Liberal Party, with backing from the far-right Swedish Democrats.[461] The election was deemed free and fair.[462]
(Monarchical) Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Jahn 2009, Redslob 1918)

Switzerland

01/01/1900 (Male) Semidemocracy [Start: 10/27/1848]: The Traditional founding of Switzerland is dated back to 1291. In the short-lived Helvetic Republic (1798-1803) men above the age of 20

[457] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[458] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Sweden#20th_century
[459] https://www.nytimes.com/1973/06/07/archives/sweden-approves-new-constitution.html; https://www.britannica.com/place/Sweden/The-welfare-state
[460] https://freedomhouse.org/country/sweden/freedom-world/2022
[461] https://freedomhouse.org/country/sweden/freedom-world/2023
[462] https://freedomhouse.org/country/sweden/freedom-world/2023

had the right to vote. On 08/07/1815 a restoration of the Ancien Régime occured, reverting the changes imposed by Napoleon Bonaparte. The emergence of Switzerland as a federal state commenced on 09/12/1848, following the adoption of a federal constitution in the aftermath of a 27-day civil conflict known as the Sonderbundskrieg.[463] At the formation of today's federal state in 1848, Switzerland reintroduced universal male suffrage. However, jews did not have the same political rights as Christian citizens until 1866. Switzerland held federal elections from 10/01 to 10/27/1848. The Radical Left emerged as the dominant force, securing 79 out of 111 seats in the National Council.[464]

02/07/1971 End (Male) Semidemocracy/Start Democracy: On this date women's suffrage was introduced at a national level in federal elections after a nationwide (male) referendum in 1971, but the referendum did not give women the right to vote at the local Cantonal level and still allowed women to be barred from the ability to vote on the basis of their gender. All, save one, of the cantons independently voted to grant women the right to vote at different times during the second half of the 20th century. Before the referendum in 1971, women gained the right to vote for local cantonal elections in Vaud, & Neuchâtel in 1959; Genêve in 1960; Basel-Stadt in 1966; Basel-Land in 1968; Ticino in 1969; and Valais, Luzern, & Zürich in 1970. The same year as the referendum in 1971: Aargau, Fribourg, Schaffhausen, Zug, Glarus, Solothurn, Bern, & Thurgau extended the right to vote in local elections.[465] St. Gallen, Uri, Schwyz, Graubünden, Nidwalden, & Obwalden soon followed in 1972, with Appenzell Ausserrhoden allowing women to vote in local cantonal elections in 1989. Those of canton Appenzell Innerrhoden had to wait until 1990 and a ruling of the Federal Court that forced the canton to grant women the right to vote.[466]Switzerland federal government is led by a Federal Council which is traditionally comprised of representatives from the major parties that head different ministries. The bicameral legislative branch (National Assembly) is divided into the National Council, representing the public and the Council of States, which represents the cantons. The Supreme Court judges act independently and are elected by the National Assembly.[467]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Altman 2008, Linder 2009)

[463] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Switzerland_as_a_federal_state
[464] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1848_Swiss_federal_election
[465] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1971_Swiss_referendums
[466] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage_in_Switzerland;
[467] https://www.britannica.com/place/Switzerland/Government-and-society

Syria

01/01/1900 Part of Other Country [Ottoman Empire, Absolute Monarchy] [Start: 08/24/1516]: Syria was part of the Ottoman Empire from the 'Battle of Marj Dābiq' on 08/24/1516[468] to 1918, with the exception of the period from 1831 to 1841, when it was occupied by Egyptian forces. The Ottoman Empire, governed by an absolute monarchy, granted the sultan unrestricted power. For administrative purposes, Syria was divided into several districts under Ottoman rule. Following the McMahon-Hussein correspondence, the British promised the Arabs an independent state, and, in return, the leaders of the Arab revolt joined the Allies in the First World War to capture Great Syria from the Ottoman Turks from 1917 to 1918 (Zeine 1977, Thompson 2020). However, from 05/09-16/1916, the United Kingdom and France, with an assent from the Russian Empire and the Kingdome of Italy, secretly adopted the so-called Sykes-Picot Agreement to establish their respective spheres of influence and territorial divisions in the event of the Ottoman Empire's defeat (Douwes 2000, Pipes 1990).

10/23/1917 End Part of Other Country [Ottoman Empire, Absolute Monarchy]/Start Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy and France, Semidemocracy, later only France]: On this date, the British military declared the "Occupied Enemy Territory Administration" (OETA), a joined British, French, and Arab military administration. When Syria and Lebanon were occupied by the Allied armies, they were not independent countries, but part of the Ottoman Empire, therefore, they were technically "occupied enemy territory" pending the signing of the peace agreement with Turkey (Zeine 1977:40). As the struggle for independence intensified, Governor Ali Rida al-Rikabi called for an election based on Ottoman electoral law but skipped the first stage of the election process to save time. While electors in the East Zone publicly cast their votes, France, and Britain blocked elections in the Western (Lebanon) and Southern (Palestine) zones and claimed that the Congress was not legitimately elected. Nevertheless, secret meetings were held in the French and British zones to choose representatives for the Congress. The conservative faction won fourteen out of sixteen seats allocated for Damascus. The General Syrian Congress convened on 06/07/1919, serving as a temporary advisory body rather than a formal parliament (Thompson 2020).The administrations were gradually dissolved between 1919 and 1920, following the withdrawal of British forces. Turkish rule ended in Syria on 09/30/1918 (Zeine 1977, Pipes 1990). On 11/26/1919 Britain withdrew its forces from Syria and was replaced by French forces (Pipes 1990). Widespread protests across

[468] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Battle_of_Marj_Dabiq

Syria followed, and the Syrian Congress declared unilateral independence without Allied consent based on the League of Nations' principle of self-determination (Thompson 2020).

03/08/1920 End Occupation Regime [by France, Semidemocracy]/Start Constitutional Monarchy: On this date, the Syrian Arab Kingdom declared independence and the Congress elected Faisal king, who appointed al-Rikabi prime minister. On 07/05/1920, the Congress presented a draft constitution outlining a civil, parliamentary form of government. The committee designated Faisal as king with limited constitutional authority and established a decentralized federal government structure, including provincial assemblies with local governance. The draft constitution also guaranteed equal rights and citizenship for all residents of Syria but did not grant women the right to vote. Within a week, Congress formally ratified the first six articles, establishing a civil, representative monarchy and delineating the king's powers bound by the constitution and divine laws (not Islamic laws as in the Ottoman constitution) (Thompson 2020). Syria's declaration of independence was denounced as a coup d'état by France.[469]

07/25/1920 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start (de facto) Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy]: On 07/18/1920, French General Henri Gouraud issued an ultimatum to Faisal, threatening an invasion, unless Faisal accepted the French mandate. While Faisal accepted the conditions, the minister of war, Yusuf al-Azma rejected the ultimatum, leading to the France-Syrian war, won after one day by French forces. The French installed a pro-French civil administration in Syria on 07/25/1920, bringing an end to the short-lived kingdom and dissolving its institutions.[470] After the San Remo Conference held from 05/19-26/1920, the northern half of the Ottoman province of Syria (Syria and Lebanon) was mandated to France, and the Southern half (Palestine) to the United Kingdom (Pipes 1990). On 06/28/1922, France established the Syrian Federation (Fédération syrienne), comprising the states of Damascus, Aleppo, and the Alawite state. Subhi Bey Barakat, supported by France, was elected president on 12/17/1923 by the Federal Council. The Syrian Federation was dissolved on 12/05/1924, merging the states of Aleppo and Damascus into the state of Syria with Barakat as president.[471]

09/29/1923 Continuation as (de facto) Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy as International Mandate]: On this date, France was assigned the League of Nations mandate of Syria, including present-day Lebanon and Alexandretta in addition to modern Syria.[472] In 1928, male suffrage was introduced (LIED). After the Great Syrian Revolt of 1925-1927, elections were held in April 1928 for a constituent assembly. The assembly convened for the first time in

[469] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mandate_for_Syria_and_the_Lebanon
[470] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Arab_Kingdom_of_Syria
[471] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syrian_Federation
[472] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mandate_for_Syria_and_the_Lebanon

July 1928 and formulated a draft constitution. However, France rejected the draft, stating that it undermined their special status as the mandatory power in Syria. France eventually ratified the constitution with alterations in 1930 (Schumann 2008). On 05/22/1930, the French High Commissioner promulgated the new Syrian Constitution, including universal male suffrage, and declared the Republic of Syria.[473]

06/21/1941 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [of France as International Mandate]/Start Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Democracy and France]: Following Germany's conquest of France in June 1940, the Mandate for Syria and Lebanon came under the control of Vichy France, the puppet government established by the Axis powers. On 08/06/1941, British and Free French forces invaded Vichy France-held Syria and captured Damascus on 06/21/1941. A ceasefire went into effect on 07/12/1940, leading to the signing of the armistice between Vichy and Allied representatives on 07/14/1941 (Sutton 2022).[474] General Catroux assumed the position of Free French governor and commander-in-chief of the Levant.[475] On 09/27/1941, Catroux issued a declaration of Syrian independence, but it stated that France would retain control of the armed force and police, public services, and the economy. As the constitution was still suspended, he appointed a compliant non-nationalist as president. On 03/25/1942, Catroux restored the constitution of the Republic of Syria and a newly elected chamber of deputies convened and elected Shukri al-Quwatli as president on 08/17/1943 (McHugo 2015). On 12/27/1943, an agreement was signed between representatives of the French National Committee of Liberation and of Syria, by which most of the powers and capacities exercised hitherto by France under mandate were transferred as from 01/01/1944 to the Syrian government. However, from 05/29-31/1945, in a final attempt to maintain their control, France shelled the Syrian parliament and attempted to arrest Syrian government leaders. As a result, British garrisons assumed control and the French started withdrawing their forces from Syria (McHugo 2015). On 08/01/1945, the French government agreed to transfer the command of the Syrian military to the Republic of Syria.[476]

04/17/1946 End Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Democracy and France, Democracy]/Start Electoral Autocracy [as independent country]: On this date, the remaining French and British forces withdrew, and Syria gained complete independence under the leadership of President Shukri al-Quwatli of the National Party (McHugo 2015). The Republic

[473] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/First_Syrian_Republic
[474] https://www.anzacmemorial.nsw.gov.au/our-stories/our-stories/syria-lebanon-campaign-june-july-1941
[475] https://www.britishmilitaryhistory.co.uk/docs-middle-east-1930-1947-syria-1941-1945/
[476] https://uca.edu/politicalscience/home/research-projects/dadm-project/middle-eastnorth-africapersian-gulf-region/french-syria-1919-1946/

of Syria maintained a unicameral parliamentary system with a strong prime minister and a president elected by the parliament. However, the electoral system favored the stronghold of the traditional oligarchy instead of promoting the formation of political parties. Two rival party blocs represented the influential families: the National Party (al-Hizb al-Watani) and the People's Party (Hizb al-Sa'b). In 1948, the constitution was amended to allow President al-Quwatli's re-election, but in 1950, a new constitution reinstated the original provision banning consecutive terms. In 1949, women gained the right to vote if they possessed a certificate of graduation from elementary school, and the voting age was lowered to 18 years. Separate polling stations were established for female voters. Since the first post-independence election in 1947, voting rights were denied to officers, soldiers, police members, gendarmerie personnel, and other military organizations (Zisser 2001). In response to anti-government riots, the government declared a state of emergency on 12/02/1948. The regime was clearly autocratic and it was not fully electoral due to the indirect character of the elections (Torrey 1964: 65). According to our classification, it is a borderline case between an electoral autocracy and an electoral oligarchy. On 07/17/1947 the first direct, competitive parliamentary election took place. (Torrey 1964: 88-101, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 97).[477] According to GWF Syria was a democracy in the period following the election. However, this is not in line with our data. We agree with HTW and LIED that the regime was a(n) electoral/multiparty autocracy. BMR also classified the period as non-democratic.

03/30/1949 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Military (Personalist) Autocracy: The civilian government in Syria was held responsible for the Arab military's defeat in the 1948 Arab-Israeli War, which shattered the oligarchy's "precarious legitimacy" (Chin/Wright/Carter 2021:197). In response to anti-government riots, the government declared a state of emergency on 12/02/1948. Then, on 30/03/1949, Colonel Za'im ousted President al-Quwatli in a coup and promised to establish a civilian-military government and to hold elections (Be'eri 1970). However, on 04/01/1949, Za'im dissolved the government after it refused to legitimize the new regime, and proclaimed himself head of state and selected individuals to fill cabinet positions (Carleton 1950). By 05/29/1949, Za'im had dissolved all political parties. On 05/30/1949, a new government led by Husni al-Barazi, consisting of six civilians and a military officer as minister of defense, assumed office but did not hold real political power. On 06/25/1949, Za'im ran

[477] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1947_Syrian_parliamentary_election

uncontested for the presidency and was elected with nearly unanimous support, receiving 85 percent of the electoral votes (Chin/Wright/Carter 2021).[478]

08/14/1949 End Military (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Military (Personalist) Autocracy: On this date, Za'im was arrested in a military coup led by Colonel Sami al-Hinnawi, subsequently tried by court martial, and executed (Carleton 1950). Al-Hinnawi assumed the Chief of General Staff role and led a ten-member "Supreme War Council". Following the coup, al-Hinnawi legalized political parties and transferred power to a civilian cabinet headed by President al-Atassi, with only the Minister of Defense being a military officer (Be'eri 1970). On 11/15/1949, the People's Party won the most seats in the constituent assembly election. Although the new government emerged from a more democratic election overseen by the coup leaders, the Supreme War Council "remained in the background as the supreme legislative, executive, and judicial authority" Chin/Wright/Carter (2021: 201), (Faksh 1985:10) code here a successful regime change because the coup leaders empowered civilians, reinstated the previously elected leaders, and promptly arranged for democratic elections. On 12/14/1949, a third coup led by civilian al-Hawarni and General al-Shishakli prevented democratically elected president al-Atassi from taking office. General al-Hinnawi and his supporters, both military and civilian, were arrested (Be'eri 1970). Khaled Azm, who had been ousted as premier on 03/30/1949, agreed to form a new provisional cabinet under provisional president al-Atassi. Military rule was not immediately imposed as the coup leaders attempted to maintain the appearance of civilian rule. On 12/24/1949, the deputy leader of the People's Party, Nazim al-Qudsi, formed a cabinet with a majority of People's Party members, but it quickly dissolved due to an army veto. On 12/27/1949, al-Atassi agreed to remain in office after a unanimous request from the constituent assembly (Chin/Wright/Carter 2021). On the subregime level the regime is also coded as a new military (Personalist) autocracy, while on the main level of the military autocracy no regime change is coded. We concur with Geddes, Wright, and Frantz (2014), that the coup established an indirect military control over a civilian government elected by the people. The events of the March 1949 coup are not regarded as the onset of this regime, as the military faction that seized power in March was ousted in June 1949 [GWF seems to provide an incorrect date for the second coup in 1949] through a subsequent military intervention. This later coup ensured fair elections and the restoration of democratic governance in November 1949. Post-December 1949, elected civilians governed most policy areas, although the military retained the authority to veto foreign policy

[478] https://www.nytimes.com/1949/06/26/archives/syrian-president-chosen-unopposed-zayim-elected-on-complicated.html

decisions and the appointment of officials.(Be'eri 1970: 57-64, Haddad 1971: 202-205, McGowan 1988, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 97).

11/29/1951 End Military (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Military (Personalist) Autocracy: On 11/13/1951, Premier Hassan al-Hakim resigned, and Maarouf al-Dawalibi, the People's Party leader, became prime minister. This appointment aimed to counter the populist efforts to end army interference. However, after being sworn in, the members of the newly formed coalition cabinet were imprisoned. Army chief of staff, al-Shishakli, had warned al-Dawalibi that his cabinet was unacceptable and would lead to the dissolution of parliament. On 11/29/1951, al-Shishakli ordered the arrest of the prime minister, government members, the People's Party secretary general, and Hashemite sympathizers and declared the army in control over the country's security. Al-Dawalibi resigned on 12/01/1951, followed by President Atassi on 12/02/1951. The parliament was dissolved, and Colonel Fawzi Selu assumed full legislative and executive powers as president, prime minister, and defense minister. Al-Shishakli remained in control behind the scenes, while Selu acted as a figurehead (Seale 1965, Be'eri 1970). Consistent with Chin et al. (2021) and Geddes, Wright, and Frantz (2014), we code this as a new military (Personalist) autocracy as the coup removed the civilian government, ushering in direct military rule by decree. The era post-November 1951 is recognized as a distinct regime, as military leaders purged civilian allies who once held prominent positions and influenced policies. This restructuring narrowed the ruling group to a faction within the military (Torrey 1964: 207-12, Haddad 1971: 211, Finer 1975: 168-169, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 97). On 07/4/1953, all parties opposing al-Shishakli - including the Ba'th Party, People's Party, National Party, Communist Party, and others – signed a National Pact, "which was, in effect, a pledge to bring the dictator down" (Seale 1965:134). Consequently, revolts broke out nationwide, leading al-Shishakli to declare a state of emergency on 01/27-28/1954.

02/26/1954 End Military (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Non-Party) Regime: On this date a military coup ousted Shishakli. Ma'mun al-Kuzbari, the Speaker of the Chamber of Deputies, assumed the role of acting president this avoided as a compromise a military confrontation among the supporters and opponents of Shishakli within the Syrian army. The 1950 constitution and parliamentary rule were reinstated as the military withdrew to the barracks. On 03/01/1954, Hashim al-Atas, who had been deposed as president in the previous coup on 11/29/1951, was reinstated as president (Be'eri 1970).

09/24[-25]/1954 End Non-electoral Transitional (Non-Party) Regime/Start Electoral Autocracy: On these dates, competitive multi-party elections were held without interference from the military (Be'eri 1982: 80, Torrey 1964: 244-64, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 97). On

02/26/1957 “a number of important opposition leaders, including several MPs, were found guilty of trumped-up treason charges despite formal parliamentary immunity, marking the point at which the government crossed the line from democracy to autocracy. "Authoritarianization" occurred incrementally during 1956-57, as Colonel Sarraj gradually undermined the elected civilian government. We identify this guilty verdict as the point at which there ceases to be doubt about who exercised power. In May 1957, the government rigged by-elections, further reducing opposition representation (Torrey 1964: 329-31, 352-53). During 1957-58, Syria was ruled by an alliance of the Ba'th, a radical faction of the Nationalist party, Communists, and independents, supported by Ba'thist and Communist factions of the military. The president and prime minister were civilian Nationalists, and no party dominated the civilian coalition, though the Ba'th was gaining power throughout the period. The military was too factionalized to fully determine events. No single person seems to have been calling the shots during this period, but Colonel Sarraj has been identified as the "power behind the throne" (Haddad 1971: 224) and appeared to wield greater influence than any other individual leader (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 97-98).

02/22/1958 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Part of Other Country [of United Arab Republic, Absolute Monarchy]: On 02/21/1958, Syrian politicians, under pressure of the army, decided to unite with Egypt and form the United Arab Republic (UAR) with Abdel Nasser as president. Consequently, Syria ceased to be an independent state and became the Northern Region of the UAR. The actual political power resided with Nasser, who abolished the Communist Party and all other political parties (Zisser 2001, McHugo 2015, Turner 1998b, Torrey 1964: 379-80, McGowan 1988, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 98).

09/28/1961 End Part of Other Country [of United Arab Republic, Absolute Monarchy]/Start Military (Transitional) Autocracy [as independent country]: On this date, a military coup by Syrian officers ended the UAR and returned Syria to independence (Syrian Arab Republic) after Nasser of Egypt centralized power in Egypt at the expense of the Syrian partners of the UAR. On 09/29/1961 the Supreme Arab Revolutionary Command of the Armed Forces (SARCAF) appointed Mahmoun Kuzbari as the head of the provisional government and tasked him to form a new government consisting of politicians from the old National Party and People’s Party (Zisser 2001).[479] The main objective of the government was to re-establish a democratic government through democratic elections.[480] On 12/01/1961, the military oversaw a constitutional referendum (Be'eri 1970: 145-148, Haddad 1971: 265-273, McGowan 1988). In addition, a

[479] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1961_Syrian_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat; https://uca.edu/politicalscience/home/research-projects/dadm-project/middle-eastnorth-africapersian-gulf-region/syria-1946-present/

[480] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Maamun_al-Kuzbari

new National Security Council was formed, comprising army commanders, the president, and five ministers to supervise the government (Zisser 2001). However, tensions increased between the civilian government, composed of conservative elite politicians, and the military, which sought to implement UAR socialist reforms to maintain military control over the government. The UAR restrictions on political and individual freedoms remained, and political parties continued to be banned.[481]

03/28/1962 End Military (Transitional) Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: On this date, the same officers who led the secessionist coup against the UAR on 09/28/1961 carried out a military coup that overthrew the emerging electoral regime (Be'eri 1970). Al-Qudsi publicly resigned, and the parliament was dissolved with the "General Command of the Army and Armed Forces" taking over executive and legislative functions (McGowan 1988: 32). On 03/31/1962, Ba'athists and Nasserites attempted a countercoup, calling for the restoration of the UAR. However, he March 1962 coup encountered public resistance, sparking internal divisions within the military. This discord eventually led to conflicts within the military ranks, resulting in the establishment of a partly civilian government just one month after the coup. Despite the reinstatement of the civilian president removed in March 1962, the military maintained influence over the cabinet's makeup and dissolved the parliament. As a result, this era is coded as indirect military rule and authoritarian (Be'eri 1970: 145-148, Haddad 1971: 265-73, McGowan 1988, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 98).

03/08/1963 End Military Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: The military committee of the Ba'th party led a military coup that ousted General Zahr al-Din's government and its civilian allies (Be'eri 1970: 150-53). The National Council of the Revolutionary Command (NCRC) set up immediately after the coup contained a minority of Ba'th members, and the first cabinet they chose was half Ba'th. Lu'ay al-Atassi was released from prison and appointed as president on 03/23/1963. However, his presidential powers were limited, and he was more of a figurehead leader, while the junta controlled the regime.[482] The central figure was Amin al-Hafiz, general, and member of the Ba'ath party. Over the next few months of factional struggle within the new government and within the military, however, most non-Ba'th officers were excluded from leadership and many non-Ba'thist officers and NCOs were purged from the army, leaving the regime dominated by the Ba'thist faction of the military (Be'eri 1970: 156-65, Rabinovich 1972: 49-59, McGowan 1988, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 98). Amin al-Hafiz clashed with Atassi in the aftermath of the violent Nasserite coup attempt. He overthrew Atassi on 07/27/1963,

[481] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1961_Syrian_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[482] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lu%27ay_al-Atassi

consolidated the regime and army command positions around him. We concur with Geddes, Wright, and Frantz (2014) and Chin/Wright/Carter (2021) that this event constitutes a regime change as it brought Ba'athists and Nasserists to power and installed the NCRC under the leadership of General al-Hafiz, which effectively ended parliamentary rule in Syria. On 02/23/1966, al-Hafiz was overthrown by the nationalist faction of the Baath party with aid from the ethnic minorities, including the Druze. Salah al-Jadid took power behind a civilian puppet regime. Crises within the Ba'ath Party precipitated by philosophical differences culminated in a coup led by Leutnant General Hafez al-Assad in 11/13/1970. Assad led a far-left and Alawite faction of the Baath party against al-Jadid after the defeat of the Syrian military in Jordan. The party and military were purged and Assad took power as president, party leader and military leader. On 11/13/1970 Assad became president and was subsequently elected secretary general of the party. The regime established a legislature, and in 1973, held the first national elections. The National Progressive Front (NPF), consisting of the Ba'ath Party and its allies, won an overwhelming majority of seats in the People's Assembly. By 1981, all the seats were distributed among NPF members" (Lansford 2021: 1613). Assad would rule Syria until his death in 2000, after which he was succeeded by his son Bashar Assad.[483] An emergency law, enacted when the Ba'ath Party came to power in 1963, retained a ban on political opposition (Lansford 2021: 1614). Consistent with Chin/Wright/Carter (2021: 232) we do not code a regime change, but rather a shift in leadership within the existing regime. Assad orchestrated the ousting of Jadid by employing active members of the military who had not been dismissed. In this context, Assad is seen as a regime insider and a rival of Jadid.

On 03/15/2011 The Syrian civil war emerged as a component of the broader 2011 Arab Spring protests, stemming from dissatisfaction with the Syrian government.[484] In 02/2012, constitutional amendments removed the provision securing the Ba'ath party's political dominance. Despite this, in the 05/2012 parliamentary elections, the Ba'ath party and its affiliates in the National Progressive Front (NPF) maintained control over the government. In 03/2014, the assembly approved legislation allowing multiple candidates for the presidency. However, this law, stipulating ten consecutive years of residency in the country before the election, excluded numerous potential candidates, such as expatriates and members of the opposition-in-exile. Once again, in the 2020 parliamentary elections, there were no competing parties aside from the NPF. (Lansford 2021: 1615). Between 03/15/2011 and 03/31/2020 Syria is a borderline case between having no central authority and the regime we classified it in, since Assad did not hold power

[483] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Corrective_Movement_(Syria)
[484] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syrian_civil_war

over part of the territory. The Syrian Armed Forces controlled 63.57% of Syrian territories as of March 31, 2020. The SDF held 25.57%, while rebel groups (including HTS) and Turkey controlled 9.72%. The Islamic State held 1.14%.[485] Reestablishment of the Assad regime. On 05/26/2021 President Assad won a fourth term in highly repressive and uncompetitive elections that only took place in government-controlled areas. Syrians living abroad largely refrained from voting.[486]

Military (Personalist) Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Dam 1979, Dam 1996, Hinnebusch 1990, Hinnebusch 2002, Khalili 2009, Perlmutter 1969, Wedeen 1999, Ottaway/Choucair-Vizoso 2008, Bank 2004)

USSR: see Russia 1917-1992

Taiwan

[Officially known as the Republic of China]

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of Japan, Absolute Monarchy] [Start: 02/26/1898]: In 1898, China ceded Taiwan to Japan after being defeated in the First Sino-Japanese War, as confirmed by the Treaty of Shimonoseky signed on 04/17/1895. Subsequently, Japanese forces arrived on the island on 05/29/1895 (Davison 2003, Lamley 2007). In 1898, General Kodama Gentarō assumed authority as governor-general of Taiwan, shifting control from Tokyo. He reduced military influence, placing domestic affairs under Gotō Shinpei, his civil administration chief. The governor-general could issue decrees following Tokyo's policy guidelines. The Japanese colonial regime in Taiwan exercised tight administrative control through the hoko system, a household surveillance system, and local police. It also allowed for limited self-government through the participation of Taiwanese in lower-level government councils and an island-wide consultative council. In 1915, Japanese forces ended Taiwanese armed resistance through a brutal "subjugation" campaign. Afterward, colonial governors became more open to Taiwanese involvement in higher government and educational institutions (Davison 2003, Lamley 2007).
10/25/1945 End Colonial Regime [of Japan, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Part of Other Country [of China, One-party Autocracy]: During the Cairo Conference from 11/22-26/1943, the Allies agreed that Taiwan would be ceded to the Kuomintang (KMT) government following

[485] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syrian_civil_war
[486] https://freedomhouse.org/country/syria/freedom-world/2023

Japan's surrender in the Asia-Pacific War. Japan's emperor ceased war efforts on 08/05/1945, and formally surrendered no 09/02/1945 (Davison 2003, Lamley 2007). On 10/25/1945, Japanese colonial rule over Taiwan formally ended and Taiwan was returned to the Republic of China (ROC). Subsequently, on 10/26/1945, the ROC government officially proclaimed Taiwan a province of China.[487] The Nationalists aimed to exert control over both the island's economy and political matters. To fulfill these responsibilities, the central government of Mainland China appointed a provincial administration primarily composed of mainlanders (Lansford 2015). The ROC's 1946 constitution established key political structures, including a president (indirectly elected) and a national assembly. Moreover, it established three bodies with parliamentary functions: the Legislative Yuan, the National Assembly, and the Control Yuan. Both the Legislative Yuan and the National Assembly were popularly elected. Finally, the constitution also introduced universal, secret, equal, and direct suffrage for citizens over the age of 20 (Rinza 2001).[488] On 02/28/1947, an uprising occurred in Taiwan, briefly overthrowing the provincial administration. While not leading the uprising, the elite demanded increased control over governance and resources. However, military forces brutally suppressed the rebellion on 03/08/1947, with martial law imposed by Chen Yi. Following the incident, a provincial government was established on 04/22/1947 to provide advice on island administration, yet its influence remained limited. Positions in the provincial administration were mainly held by mainlanders, with only a few posts allocated to Taiwanese (Phillips 2007). From 11/21-23/1947, direct elections for the national assembly were held, covering both Taiwan and Mainland China, electing 2,961 delegates from across the country. This was the first election in which women and farmers were allowed to vote. However, fraud was widely reported, and votes could not be casted in provinces controlled by Communist troops or Soviet forces (Rinza 2001).[489] The politically active Taiwanese were divided into three groups: half-mountain, Taichung, and Ah Hai. While the half-mountain faction collaborated with the Nationalists, the Taichung, comprising Japan-era elites, and the Ah Hai, representing the young elite, harshly criticized Chen Yi's rule (Phillips 2007).

12/07/1949 End Part of Other Country [of China, Communist Ideocracy]/Start One-Party Autocracy [as de facto independent country]: In 1949, the Government of the Republic of China (ROC) lost the Chinese Civil War and retreated to Taiwan, declaring Taipei as the provisional capital of the ROC on 12/07/1949.[490] Taiwan did not achieve national independence in the

[487] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Taiwan_under_Japanese_rule
[488] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Taiwan_2005?lang=en
[489] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1947_Chinese_National_Assembly_election
[490] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1953_Iranian_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat

traditional sense. Instead, the Nationalist Party (KMT) regarded Taiwan as the only remaining free part of the ROC, while Mainland China became the People's Republic of China (PRC) (Rinza 2001). It was intended as a temporary refuge while nationalist forces regrouped to take the mainland but quickly became a de facto independent state (Wang 1951).[491] During the subsequent era of authoritarian one-party rule, the parliament's constitutional powers were eroded, and the president announced Temporary Provisions Effective During the Period of National Mobilization for Suppression of the Communist Rebellion. These provisions mandated that all members of parliament of the National Assembly and the Legislative Yuan would serve until Mainland China was recovered (Rinza 2001). On 03/01/1950, Chian Kai-shek resumed the ROC presidency. On 12/11/1951, the Taiwan Provisional Provincial Assembly was established, succeeded in 1959 by the Taiwan Provincial Assembly. This assembly paralleled the functions of the Legislative Yuan but was perceived as more democratic due to direct elections. Nonetheless, the KMT effectively controlled debates and votes. Under Chiang Kai-shek's successor, Ching Chin-kuo, from 175 on the political regime began to liberalize. On 12/06/1980, elections for the National Assembly and Legislative Yuan were held, considered a milestone in competitive elections (Copper 2007). Before these elections, President Chiang Chin-kuo had agreed with Tangwai leaders and other independent candidates to allow their participation alongside KMT candidates. On 09/28/1986, the Democratic Progressive Party (DPP), the first official opposition party, gained legal status (Copper 2007, Rinza 2001).

12/01/1986 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, the first multi-party election, with the KMT competing against the DPP were held. The KMT won most seats in the National Assembly and Legislative Yuan (Rinza 2001).[492] On 07/15/1987, President Chiang Ching-kuo announced the end of martial law in Taiwan.[493] In the national elections on 12/02/1989, the DPP won sufficient seats in the Legislative Yuan to propose legislation and control district and city executive offices, encompassing forty percent of the nation's population (Copper 2007).

12/22/1991 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date the National Assembly voted to repeal the so-called Temporary Provisions, authoritarian measures that dated to the time of the KMT's reversion to Taiwan (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 62). The 1991 constitutional amendment provided for elections to be held for the whole national assembly in December 1991, the first non-supplementary elections. In the corresponding elections on 12/22/1991, the KMT

[491] https://www.state.gov/u-s-relations-with-taiwan/
[492] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1986_Taiwanese_legislative_election
[493] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Martial_law_in_Taiwan

won a majority of the seats (69.11 percent) (Rinza 2001). On 12/19/1992, the first non-supplementary Legislative Yuan election was held, resulting in the victory of the opposition party DPP, increasing its representation from 14.4 percent to 31.1 percent (Copper 2007). Voter turnout averaged at 72% (Copper 1992: 74). The 1992 elections were the most free and fair elections thus far, with no candidates being excluded for political reasons, no serious accusations of interference and only a single charge of vote-rigging in the Hualien County. Nonetheless, certain constraints remained: the president was not popularly elected, the media remained state-controlled, giving the KMT a competitive advantage, and local election commissions were largely occupied by ruling party members (Nathan 1993).

03/23/1996 End Semidemocacy/Start Democracy: On this date, the first direct presidential elections which were considered the first free and fair elections in Taiwan took place (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 62-63). On 03/18/2000, competitive elections were won by the opposition party, DPP, ending more than fifty years of Nationalist Party rule (Niou/Paolino 2003: 721-40, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 98-99). President Tasi Ing-wen was reelected in presidential elections on 01/11/2020 with 57.1 percent of the vote. During the election campaign, online disinformation, linked to the Chinese government, targeted Tsai, the DPP, and the democratic process. However, these efforts had only limited impact on the election results.[494] Taiwan is a unicameral representative democracy that holds regular fair and free elections with peaceful transfers of power. The President is the head of state while the Premier acts as the head of government. The judiciary is independent from other branches of government. Civil liberties and political rights are granted by the constitution and generally respected and enforced. Concerns regarding Chinas influence in election results through disinformation campaigns etc. remain yet, seem to have shown limited effect thus far. Most recent general elections were held on 01/13/24. Incumbent Tsai Ing-wen was ineligible to run again, and the DPP elected Lai Ching-te as their presidential candidate, who managed to secure the presidency with 40% of the vote. Voter turnout was high at approx. 71% amid pressure from China. Lai Ching-te seems likely to continue his predecessors China policy and is openly disliked by CPP leaders.[495] Despite political and military tensions with China looming over the elections and manipulation attempts, the election is considered fair and free.[496]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

[494] https://freedomhouse.org/country/taiwan/freedom-world/2023
[495] https://edition.cnn.com/2024/01/13/asia/taiwan-presidential-election-results-intl-hnk/index.html
[496] https://freedomhouse.org/country/taiwan/about-project-election-watch/2024

Additional sources (Rigger 1999, Schubert 2003)

Tajikistan

01/01/1900 Part of other Country [Russia, Absolute Monarchy] [Start: 07/23/1867]: From 1864 to 1885, the Russian Empire gradually gained control over the entire area of Russian Turkestan, which included the Tajikistan region previously held by the Emirate of Bukhara and the Khanate of Kokand. Russian Turkestan was officially established on 07/23/1867.[497] By 1885, Tajikistan's land was under the rule of either the Russian Empire or its dependent state, the Emirate of Bukhara.[498]

11/07/1917 End Part of other Country [Russia, Absolute Monarchy]/Start Part of other Country [Russia, Communist Ideocracy]: On this date the Russian Soviet Republic was proclaimed.[499] On 04/10/1918 the Turkestan Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic (initially, the Turkestan Socialist Federative Republic) was officially proclaimed. The Turkistan ASSR was an autonomous republic of the Russian Federative Socialist Republic, which included territories of present-day Kazakhstan, Kyrgystan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan (Fedorenko 2015: 3).[500] The Bukharan People's Soviet Republic was proclaimed on 10/08/1920, the territory of which was mostly in Uzbekistan with parts in Tajikistan and Turkmenistan.[501]

12/28/1922 End Part of other Country [Russia, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Part of other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]: With the establishment of the USSR, Tajikistan became a part of the Soviet Union.[502] In October of 1924, the Tajik Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic (Tajik ASSR) was established as part of the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic.[503] In October 1929, the Tajik ASSR was upgraded to the status of a Soviet Socialist Republic (Tajik SSR). Additionally, the Khujand region (now Sughd Province) was incorporated into the Tajik SSR from the Uzbek SSR.[504]

09/09/1991 End Part of Other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Party) Regime: On this date, Tajikistan became independent. The government was still formally controlled by communist leaders in the Supreme Soviet that had been elected in

[497] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_Turkestan
[498] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tajikistan
[499] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_Soviet_Federative_Socialist_Republic
[500] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turkestan_Autonomous_Soviet_Socialist_Republic
[501] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bukharan_People%27s_Soviet_Republic
[502] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Soviet_Union#Treaty_on_the_Creation_of_the_USSR
[503] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tajik_Autonomous_Soviet_Socialist_Republic
[504] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tajik_Autonomous_Soviet_Socialist_Republic

February 1990 (Hiro 2009: 321, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 99).[505] However, when Qadriddin Aslonov took over the presidency on 08/31/1991, he signed an edict calling for the cessation of all activities of the Communist Party on the territory of Tajikistan. On 09/20/1991, Aslonov resigned from the Tajik Communist Party as well as from its Politburo. On 09/23/1991 conservative deputies in his government overthrew Aslonov. The parliament installed Rahmon as president who reversed Aslonovs actions.

11/24/1991 End Non-electoral Transitional (Party) Regime/Start Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy: For the first-time presidential elections were held in Tajikistan. The result was a victory for Rahmon Nabiyev of the Communist Party of Tajikistan with 60% of the vote.[506] In 1992 Tajikistan was engulfed in civil war. In August 1992, demonstrators in Dushanbe seized Nabiyev and forced him at gunpoint to resign. The speaker of the Supreme Soviet, Akbarsho Iskandarov-a close associate of Nabiyev - became acting president. Hence, the regime did not change. On 11/06/1994 Emomali Rahmonov, who had held the position of de facto president since 1992, campaigned for the reinstated position of president with the backing of the Communist Party of Tajikistan, although he was not formally nominated by the party. He secured 59.5% of the votes and emerged as the winner. According to a 1995 report by the US State Department, the election process was deemed unfair as it favored the incumbent ruler and there were reports of intimidation, ballot-box stuffing, and suspected vote rigging.[507] Rahmonov has held the presidency since 1994, and has secured reelection victories in 1999, 2006, 2013, and 2020.[508] However, these elections have been criticized as unfair and lacking in freedom.[509] In Tajikistan, general presidential and parliamentary elections are regularly held at the national level, allowing for unhindered, universal suffrage with secret ballots. However, these elections, along with the multiparty system, are largely seen as a façade intended to portray democratic processes and institutions to an international audience. Both local and international observers have consistently labeled all previous elections as fraudulent, lacking even the most basic political competition. Presidential leadership has remained unchanged since 1994, with the president-led People's Democratic Party of Tajikistan (PDPT) controlling the parliament since 2000. The PDPT has served as a mechanism for consolidating regional elites and the president's

[505] http://tinyurl.com/8fmesb3
[506] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1991_Tajik_presidential_election
[507] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1994_Tajik_presidential_election
[508] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elections_in_Tajikistan
[509] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2020_Tajik_presidential_election

allies under a single political entity. Consequently, public trust in the election process is minimal.[510]

Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Atkin 1997, Grotz 2001a)

Tanganyika

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of Germany, Constitutional Monarchy] [Start: 02/27/1885]: The former British-ruled territories of Tanganyika and Zanzibar developed along separate lines until their union in 1964. Tanganyika was occupied by Germany in 1884 and then incorporated into the Protectorate German East Africa (GEA) on 02/27/1885 (Lansford 2021: 1631).[511]

11/11/1918 End Colonial Regime [of Germany, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy]: After WWI, German East Africa was divided among several powers under the Treaty of Versailles. Apart from Ruanda-Urundi (assigned to Belgium) and the small Kionga Triangle (assigned to Portuguese Mozambique), the territory was transferred to British control. "Tanganyika" was adopted by the British as the name for its part of the former German East Africa.[512]

07/20/1922 End Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Semidemocracy]/Start (de facto) Colonial Regime [as mandate of UK under League of Nations]: Tanganyika became a British-administered mandate under the League of Nations and continued under British administration as a United Nations trust territory after World War II on 12/13/1946 (Lansford 2021: 1631). General elections took place in Tanganyika in September 1958 and February 1959.[513] Universal suffrage was introduced in 1959.[514]

12/09/1961 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [as mandate of United Kingdom under League of Nations]/Start Semidemocracy: Tanganyika became independent under the leadership of the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU), which won the August 1960 pre-independence elections. Although TANU won every seat in pre-independence elections, opposition was unfettered, and observers considered the election free and fair (Lansford 2021: 1631).

04/26/1964 End Semidemocracy [as independent country]

[510] https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/TJK
[511] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tanzania#Colonial
[512] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tanzania#Colonial
[513] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1958%E2%80%9359_Tanganyikan_general_election
[514] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1995_Tanzanian_general_election

Tanzania

04/26/1964 Start Electoral Autocracy: Zanzibar merged with Tanganyika on this date (for the time before 04/26/1964 see the country reports on Tanganyika and Zanzibar). The new country was named the United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar.[515] This significant event was spearheaded by Julius Nyerere, the first President of Tanganyika, and Abeid Amani Karume, the first President of Zanzibar. Nyerere, a leading figure in the country's journey to independence from British colonial rule, became the first President of the united country, while Karume became the Vice President. The government of the newly united Tanzania was legitimized through a combination of legal, political, and symbolic measures. The union was formalized by the Articles of Union, a set of documents that outlined the terms and conditions of the merger between Tanganyika and Zanzibar. This legal framework was crucial in establishing the legitimacy of the united government, setting the foundation for a single sovereign state. While there were some independent newspapers and magazines, and some freedom of speech and assembly, the government was quick to crack down on any dissent that it perceived as a threat to its authority.
07/10/1965 End Electoral Autocracy/Start One-party Autocracy: On this date the new constitution came into force and made Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) the only legal party on the mainland and the ASP the only legal party in Zanzibar (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 99). In the elections two candidates of the same political party, selected by the party were to compete for a seat . A multiparty system was legalized on 06/17/1992 (Lansford 2021: 1630). In 1977 TANU in the mainland and the Afro-Shirazi Party (ASP) in Zanzibar were the dominant parties that merged to form the Revolutionary State Party (Chama Cha Mapinduzi, CCM) in 1977, which continued to govern Tanzania for several decades. This political arrangement was justified on the grounds of promoting national unity and avoiding the ethnic and regional divisions that plagued many newly independent African states. The legitimacy of the government was thus a complex interplay of legal formalization, political consolidation, and the strategic management of public discourse. While the government faced criticisms for its limitations on political freedoms, it also garnered support for its efforts to foster national unity and development in the post-colonial era.
10[&11]/29/1995 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: On these days, multiparty elections were held in Tanzania. Nevertheless, the CCM retained its control of the country, with its candidate Benjamin Mkapa winning the presidential election, and the party winning 186 of

[515] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tanzania#Modern

the 232 constituencies.[516] Many credited the outcome to the majority electoral system, while others pointed to extensive electoral fraud, especially in the Zanzibari voting process (Lansford 2021: 1632). During the 2000 general elections, President Mkapa clinched a second five-year term with 71.7 percent of the vote, facing a fragmented opposition. The CCM retained its firm grip on the assembly, securing a comfortable majority in the House of Representatives (Lansford 2021: 1632). Widespread uprising against alleged irregularities emerged after the elections in October 2000. Government security forces subsequently repressed the demonstrations in Zanzibar by opening fire and assaulting thousands of unarmed demonstrators and others according to a report by Human Rights Watch.[517] Subsequent elections such as the 2020 general elections, were also marred in controversy.[518]
Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Fengler 1999, Hopkins 1971, Pinkney 1997, Skinlo 2007)

Thailand

[Formerly known as Siam**]**

01/01/1900 Absolute Monarchy [Start: 06/21/1782]: The current Chakri Dynasty was created with the coronation of King Rattanakosin on 06/21/1782. In 1897 Thailand gave all men and women the right to vote in local village elections in the "Local Administrative Act of May 1897" but not nationally.[519] One of King Chulalongkorn's reforms included the implementation of a Western-style law of royal succession. Consequently, in 1910, he was peacefully succeeded by his son Vajiravudh, who ruled as Rama VI.[520] In contrast to other Southeast Asian states, Thailand was never formally colonized by foreign powers, although substantial territories were relinquished under pressure to Britain and France.[521] King Prajadhipok (Rama VII) was the last absolute monarch of Siam.[522]
06/24/1932 End of Absolute Monarchy/Start (Monarchical) (Non-electoral) One-Party Autocracy: A coup by the People's Party (Khana Ratsadon) ended the rule of King Prajadhipok

[516] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1995_Tanzanian_general_election
[517] https://www.hrw.org/report/2002/04/10/bullets-were-raining/january-2001-attack-peaceful-demonstrators-zanzibar
[518] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tanzania/freedom-world/2022
[519] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[520] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rattanakosin_Kingdom_(1782%E2%80%931932)
[521] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rattanakosin_Kingdom_(1782%E2%80%931932)
[522] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rattanakosin_Kingdom_(1782%E2%80%931932)

and the regime of absolute monarchy.[523] The bloodless transition brought the introduction of the first constitution and the creation of a parliament.[524] King Prajadhipok remained on the throne and compromised with the People's Party. The inaugural People's Assembly of Siam, comprised solely of appointed representatives, convened for the first time on June 28th. The system operated as a non-electoral single-party autocracy. In 1933, Pridi Panomyong, then serving as a Minister of State, presented his Draft Economic Plan, also known as the Yellow Cover Dossier, to King Prajadhipok. This dossier outlined socialist approaches to address the nation's myriad financial and economic challenges.[525] Phraya Manopakorn rallied those who opposed the plan and dissolved his own cabinet to oust Pridi, who had great support within the People's Party.

04/01/1933 End (Monarchical) (Non-electoral) One-Party Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Non-electoral Transitional Regime: On this date prime minister Phraya Manopakorn called for the dissolution of the People's Assembly with the support of King Prajadhipok. Under the emergency decree, some parts of the constitution, including the legislature and the judiciary, were suspended.[526] The leadership of the People's Party fled into exile in May 1933. Even though Phraya Manopakorn subsequently began to implement more restrictive measures against political opposition, he was unable to consolidate almost unlimited authority. The fact that resistance arose from the political opposition and the military during this brief period suggests that. Members of the People´s Party and the military joined forces to have Phraya Manopakorn deposed. This culminated in the coup on 06/20/1933.[527] Furthermore, King Prajadhipok still maintained a certain amount of influence and continued to exist as institution.[528] The regime therefore represents a borderline case between a personalist autocracy and a Non-electoral Transitional Regime, since on the one hand parliament was dissolved and the constitution suspended, and on the other hand Phraya Manopakorn was unable to consolidate his unlimited claim to authority.

06/20/1933 End (Monarchical) Non-electoral Transitional Regime/Start Military Autocracy: On this date, young military officers led by Colonel Phraya Phahon Pholphayuhasena launched a coup against the conservative premiership of Phraya Manopakorn. Pholphayuhasena became the second prime minister of Siam.[529] After royalist forces launched a failed countercoup in October, the army was purged and jailed several members of the royal family. The first general elections were held on 11/15/1933 to elect 78 of the 156 members of the House of Representatives, with

[523] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Monarchy_of_Thailand
[524] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Siamese_revolution_of_1932
[525] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Phraya_Manopakorn_Nitithada
[526] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/April_1933_Siamese_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[527] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Phraya_Manopakorn_Nitithada
[528] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prajadhipok
[529] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Phraya_Phahonphonphayuhasena

the other 78 appointed by the King.[530] Universal suffrage for national elections was granted during the first general election in 1933.[531] After the end of the reign of prime minister Pholphayuhasena on 12/16/1938, the regime leadership was initially split between Pridi Banomyong (a civilian) and Plaek Phibunsongkhram (a military leader usually referred to as Phibun), though the military came to dominate and Phibun became prime minister on 12/16/1938. The new regime engaged in press censorship and repression of political opposition (Reynolds 2005: 1, Baker/Phongpaichit 2014: 104, 115-17, 119-20, 123-24, Casey et al. 2020: 16-17).

07/26/1944 End (Monarchical) Military Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Non-Electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: After the regime leader, Supreme Commander Phibun resigned, Phibun and what had been the military faction of The People's Party gave way to an unelected pro-Allies, predominantly civilian faction led by Pridi Banomyong, who garnered support from a civilian pro-royalist faction and navy officers. The shift in leadership selection moved from high-level army officers before July 1944 to a coalition of civilians and leaders of the Seri Thai, the anti-Japanese partisans. Within this group, Khuang Abhaiwongse emerged as the chosen prime minister on 08/01/1944. His selection was based on his adeptness in dealing with the Japanese, allowing him to shield the growing Seri Thai movement while maintaining a facade of cooperation with the Japanese occupiers.[532] Despite the introduction of some democratic reforms in the 1946 constitution, such as allowing the election of both legislative houses, prohibiting officers from serving in the legislature and government, and legalizing parties, the period from 1944-47 is still considered authoritarian. This is because there was no change in government control following the 1946 election, some opposition leaders faced arrest and harassment, and the constitution imposed suffrage limitations based on education.(Vella 1955: 388-89, Cady 1974: 114, Chaloemtiarana 2007: 16-17, Suwannathat-Pian 1995: 188, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 99-100, Baker/Phongpaichit 2014: 136, 139-41, Casey et al. 2020: 17).

11/08/1947 End (Monarchical) Non-Electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start (Monarchical) Military Autocracy: The military overthrew rear Admiral and prime minister Thamrong in response to series of damaging scandals, high consumer prices, and ongoing corruption in the regime. Khuang ascended to the prime minister position. The coup was led by a group of officers forced into retirement by the previous government ousted the civilian government and returned Phibun to office (Chaloemtiarana 2007: 20-31, Suwannathat-Pian

[530] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1933_Siamese_general_election
[531] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[532] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pridi_Banomyong

1995: 164-65, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 100). The Parliament was dissolved. A new constitution formally gave the king the right to make laws when parliament was out of session, dismiss cabinet members, and appoint senators, who functioned as the legislature until new elections; these functions were really exercised by the Privy Council controlled by the army (Suwannathat-Pian 1995: 164-65, Chaloemtiarana 2007: 20-32). In November 1951, military governance was reinforced with additional restrictions. The 1932 constitution was reinstated, the recently elected legislature (inaugurated in January 1948) was disbanded once again, political gatherings were prohibited, and parties were barred from engaging in political activities. A national executive council, composed of nine officers - three from each branch of the military, was established. In accordance with the provisions of the 1932 Constitution, a Senate was appointed, serving as the legislative body until new elections were held for half of the assembly in 1952, with the remaining members being appointed. Notably, 106 out of 123 Senate members were military or police officers (Chaloemtiarana 2007: 51-54, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 100).

11/29/1951 End (Monarchical) Military Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Military Autocracy: The Coup Group who made up an informal military junta carried out a coup to reduce the influence of civilians in the government. The generals shuttered the legislature and started a provisional government in the absence of the king. They convinced Plaek to act as the head of the provisional government. In the end, the generals gained most of the political power in the country.

09/16/1957 End (Monarchical) Military Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Military Autocracy: In response to public and royal outrage over allegedly rigging of the 1957 elections and continued corruption of the Phibun regime, the armed forces led by Sarit launched a coup to oust Phibun. The coup was successful and Sarit took control over the government through his informal junta (Chaloemtiarana 2007: 79-80, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 100-101). In October 1958, Sarit and his allies further narrowed the regime: parties and political gatherings were banned, the constitution abrogated; they created the Revolutionary Council (Khana Pattiwat) to rule. The Revolutionary Council proclaimed an Interim Constitution in January 1959 and also appointed a Constituent Assembly to write a new one and act as interim legislature. Of 220 members, 102 were army officers, 26 navy, 24 air force, 18 police, and 50 were bureaucrats (Chaloemtiarana 2007: 79-80, 96, 186-87, Bienen/Morell 1974: 11, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 100-101). By 10/20/1958 Sarit believed democracy had failed to restrain politicians and solve the country's economic problems. He launched a second coup to bring back traditional Thai benevolent despotism. On 12/09/1963 prime minister Sarit Thanarat was succeeded by Thanom

Kittikachorn.[533] On 06/20/1968 a new constitution was promulgated, despite resistance from Thanom. Although democratic on the surface, the 1968 constitution legitimized Thanom's military-dominated regime. Against the principles of parliamentary democracy, members of the house were prohibited from serving in the cabinet. Furthermore, the senate wielded the authority to postpone any legislation for up to a year, with the senate president also serving as the president of parliament. King Bhumibol endorsed Thanom's predominantly military slate of senate nominees. The new constitution legitimized all legislation previously enacted by the regime, including the repressive Anticommunist Act used to suppress dissent.[534]

02/10/1969 End (Monarchical) Military Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Electoral (Military) Autocracy: On this date, elections were held and resulted in Thanom and his aligned parties receiving a majority of votes and thus the majority in the House of Representatives.[535] While the military kept the dominant role in the political process, this period is coded as an electoral autocracy because there were elections.

11/17/1971 End (Monarchical) Electoral (Military) Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Military Autocracy: Thanom and the military removed the constitution and legislature in a self-coup. All powers were appropriated to the National Executive Council. The coup was launched to stem the threat from communist infiltration. The opposition to the regime, however, continued" (Nohlen/Grotz/Hartmann 2001: 262, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 100-101).

10/14/1973 End (Monarchical) Military Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Non-electoral Transitional (Non-Party) Regime: Military rule under Thanom collapsed after student protests and widespread calls for democracy and a new constitution (Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 294). Army Commander-in-Chief General Kris refused more violent action against the demonstrators and the king supported a transition to democracy. The king appointed Sanya Dharmasakti, the rector of Thammasat University as prime minister of a transitional government (Lansford 2015). Transitory provisions were applied such as the creation of a National Forum consisting of 2,347 people and a new constitution was promulgated in 1975 (Nohlen/Grotz/Hartmann 2001: 269).[536]

01/26/1975 End (Monarchical) Non-electoral Transitional (Non-Party) Regime/Start (Monarchical) Democracy: Free and fair competitive elections were held, completing the

[533] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Thanom_Kittikachorn
[534] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitution_of_Thailand
[535] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1969_Thai_general_election
[536] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1973_Thai_popular_uprising

transition to democracy (Bienen/Morell 1974: 11, Elliott 1978: 135, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 101).[537] The elections were held under universal suffrage.[538]

10/06/1976 End (Monarchical) Democracy/Start (Monarchical) Military Autocracy: Far-right paramilitary groups and security forces launched a massacre among left-wing students at Bangkok's Thammasat University. The military intervened to end the bloodshed and restore control. The National Policy Council was established, which was made up of officers. The council suspended the constitution, dissolved the assembly, banned parties, and declared martial law. It appointed a new legislature and civilian cabinet (Elliott 1978: 136, Chaloemtiarana 2007: 234). The council was led by Admiral Sangad Chaloryu. He was succeeded by General Kriangsak Chamanan in 1977 (Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 294, Lansford 2015). After a period of State of Emergency, a new constitution was promulgated in 1978 (Nohlen/Grotz/Hartmann 2001: 263, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 101). On 10/20/1977 Admiral Sangad overthrew the prime minister whom he accused of dividing the country and failing to address the economic situation. Sangad's junta remained in power for only a month.

04/22/1979 End (Monarchical) Military Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Electoral (Military) Autocracy: The 1979 elections led to an unstable government primarily controlled by bureaucrats, sidelining elected politicians. Following Prime Minister General Kriangsak Chomanan's loss of military support, he resigned in 02/1980, paving the way for Defense Minister and army Commander-in-Chief Prem Tinsulanonda (Nohlen/Grotz/Hartmann 2001: 263). Under General Prem's governance, Thailand received another chance for liberalization in 1980.[539] He appointed parliamentarians from major political parties to serve in his cabinet. Prem's administration was endorsed through elections in 1983 and 1986, although he had to navigate through two coup attempts in 1981 and 1985 instigated by a faction known as the "young Turk officers." Furthermore, following the 1986 election, there arose public debate regarding the suitability of a non-elected individual assuming the position of prime minister. Despite this, Prem successfully retained his position at that time. However, after the 1988 elections, he stepped down, allowing Chatichai Choonhavan, leader of the Chart Thai Party, to lead a fully elected government (Nohlen/Grotz/Hartmann 2001: 263). The coding of the regime is disputed. GWF, HTW, MCM and AF coded the regime as military, while CGV coded it as civilian. In addition in the qualitative literature, for instance, Croissant classified it as an electoral-authoritarian regime (Croissant 2016: 488). This dataset disagrees with most of the datasets on this regime.

[537] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1975_Thai_general_election
[538] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#Dates_by_country
[539] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prem_Tinsulanonda

According to the coding rules this regime is clearly identified as an electoral autocracy. The regime after 1979 did not come to power by a military coup and Prem was elected as prime minister in semi-competitive elections. The classification of the regime is complicated since "a new system of government in which the military shared power with parliament through the mediation of the monarchy"[540] was established. Hence, in addition to the military the monarch played a more than a ceremonial role in politics. Since the military obviously had a dominant rule in the regime, the regime is classified as the subtype on an electoral (Military) autocracy.

07/24/1988 End (Monarchical) Electoral (Military) Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Democracy: In response to political unrest in 1988, Prime Minister Prem dissolved the parliament and announced a general election. The outcome was a triumph for the Thai Nation Party, securing 87 out of the 357 seats.[541] This signaled the commencement of a phase characterized by a fully elected and civilian-led government under Chatichai Choonhavan, who had previously resigned his military commission to lead the party (Lansford 2015, Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 294, Nohlen/Grotz/Hartmann 2001: 263). The opposition party secured victory in a free and fair election (Lansford 2015, Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 294, Nohlen/Grotz/Hartmann 2001: 263). Throughout this era, a robust system of checks and balances, inspired by European models, was implemented. Civil liberties and political freedoms were generally respected, although there were minor limitations on media criticism of the royal family, which did not extend to critique of the government (McColm 1991: 356).

02/23/1991 End (Monarchical) Democracy/Start (Monarchical) Military Autocracy: On this date, the "military overthrew Choonhavan in a bloodless coup led by Commander General Suchinda Kraprayoon among growing military suspicion of civilian interference in its sphere (Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 294, Bhuchongkul 1992: 313, 319, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 101). Parliament was dissolved, the constitution suspended, and martial law declared. A six-man National Peacekeeping Council (NPKC) made up of all top military commanders was established to rule. Sunthorn seated himself at the head of the National Peacekeeping Council. General Suchinda Kraprayoon ordered the arrest of prime minister and Chatchai on charges of corruption and incompetence and assumes the position himself (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 90).

05/20/1992 End (Monarchical) Military Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Non-electoral Transitional [No-Party] Regime: The military sought to draft a new constitution with "provisional clauses" guaranteeing military influence over parliament for another four years. This sparked heavy protests. After the military's repressive stance towards the protesters, that led to a high

[540] https://www.britannica.com/place/Thailand/The-1973-revolution-and-its-aftermath#ref509841
[541] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1988_Thai_general_election

number of casualties, the king himself intervened and removed General Suchinda from office (Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 294) and replaced him with a civilian interim prime minister until new elections in September 1992 (King/LoGerfo 1996: 104).[542] Parliament rescinded the provisional clauses that came from the military and in June 1992, the constitution was amended to require the prime minister to be an elected member of parliament (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 101).

09/13/1992 End Non-electoral Transitional (Non-Party) Regime/Start Democracy: The interim government oversaw elections in September 1992 (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 63). The free and fair elections were won by the Democrat Party, completing the transition to democracy. After the elections in September 1992, a coalition government was formed under Chuan Leekpai, who became Prime Minister. A new constitution was promulgated in 1997 that saw a "democratic regime of government with the King as Head of the State" (Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 295) for Thailand. The 1997 constitution explicitly protected a wide range of human rights and civil liberties and strengthened the system of checks and balances.[543] In 02/2006, an assorted extra-parliamentary movement known as the "People's Alliance for Democracy" (PAD, or "Yellow Shirts") surfaced, calling for Thaksin's resignation. (Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 295). The judiciary was mostly independent, allegations of corruption persisted, however. While freedom of speech was mostly upheld, there were some infringements of the freedom of press (Piano/Puddington/Rosenberg 2006: 718).

09/19/2006 End (Monarchical) Democracy/Start (Monarchical) Military Autocracy: On this date, the military seized the moment for a coup d'état while Thaksin was traveling abroad (Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 295). The coup, orchestrated by the Army Commander-in-Chief, involved the military annulling the 1996 constitution, apprehending the cabinet, disbanding parliament, prohibiting political activities, and establishing the Council for Democratic Reform as the governing body.[544] (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 101).[545] An interim government was installed thereafter by the military junta.

12/23/2007 End (Monarchical) Military Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Electoral Autocracy: On this date, more or less "[c]ompetitive elections returned the government to civilian rule"[546] (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 101). However, a tribunal appointed by the military outlawed the Thai Rak Thai (TRT) party of Thaksin Shinawatra and banned TRT executives from contesting

[542] http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/469f38e7c
[543] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1997_constitution_of_Thailand#Key_features
[544] http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2814.htm; http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/asia-pacific/5361512.stm
[545] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2006_Thai_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[546] http://tinyurl.com/9gsx277

in elections for five years.[547] On 06/08/2008 The interim government, appointed by the military, dissolved the TRT, imposed bans on Thaksin and several high-ranking officials, and crafted a new constitution. Subsequently, general elections were orchestrated in late 2007. Despite facing an uneven political landscape that disadvantaged the TRT's successor, the People's Power Party (PPP), it managed to secure 48% of the seats. This outcome highlighted Thaksin's sustained popularity among provincial and lower-class voters, enabling the pro-Thaksin faction to establish a coalition government (Croissant/Lorenz 2018: 295-96).

05/22/2014 End (Monarchical) Electoral Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Military Autocracy: On this date, the Royal Thai Armed Forces led by General Prayut Chan-o-cha overthrew the Yingluck cabinet, six months of political crisis followed.[548] The establishment of the National Council for Peace and Order (NCPO) by the military marked the resolution of the persistent political conflict between the military-led regime and democratic forces. This conflict had originated from the 2006 Thai coup d'état, often referred to as the "unfinished coup".[549]

03/24/2019 End (Monarchical) Military Autocracy/Start (Monarchical) Electoral Autocracy: On this date, the elections, long-awaited but deemed neither free nor fair, took place. The existence of an unelected chamber in Parliament was not the sole concern; just before the elections, the Constitutional Court, under a pretext, banned one of the major opposition parties. Irregularities in vote counting and the allocation of mandates further compounded the issues. Consequently, the military government solidified its grip on power.[550] Five days later, Prayuth declared an official end to military rule.[551] The elections were widely perceived as an unbalanced contest in which Prayut enjoyed an unfair advantage, given that the 250 members of the appointed Senate were to be chosen by the junta.[552] The ban on the Future Forward Party (FFP) by the Constitutional Court in February 2020 marked the next disappointment.[553] In the summer and fall of 2020, demonstrations calling for Chan-o-cha's resignation erupted, leading him to declare a state of emergency, enforce gathering bans, and censor the press. The protests, led by student Panusaya Sithijirawattanakul, targeted both the monarchy under Maha Vajiralongkorn and the government. A week later, the Chan-o-cha administration announced the lifting of these measures.[554] In August 2022, the opposition initiated legal proceedings in Thailand's

[547] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2006_Thai_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[548] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_coups_and_coup_attempts_by_country#Thailand
[549] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2014_Thai_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[550] https://www.rosalux.de/news/id/45343
[551] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prayut_Chan-o-cha;
https://www.jstor.org/stable/26867618#metadata_info_tab_contents
[552] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2019_Thai_general_election
[553] https://www.rosalux.de/news/id/45343
[554] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prayut_Chan-o-cha

Constitutional Court, asserting that Prayut had exceeded the maximum eight-year term in office. The determination of the applicable timeframe for this calculation remains a point of contention—whether it should be measured from his initial appointment in 2014, the enactment of the current constitution in 2017, or the 2019 election. While awaiting the court's verdict, Prayut was suspended of his official responsibilities. During this interim period, his former deputy, Prawit Wongsuwan, is overseeing governmental affairs.[555] The general elections on 05/14/2023 marked the end of final Prayut's term as prime minister. The elections held were comparatively competitive since the ascent of the military. The oppositional Move Forward Party (MFP) managed to secure a surprising 151 seats, becoming the largest party in the House of Representatives.[556] However, the military-appointed senate with 250 members blocked the leading party from forming a government coalition with other opposition parties. Subsequently, the constitutional court suspended the MFP leader and prime ministerial candidate Pita Limjaroenrat from his role in parliament und the pretext of an investigation into if his media holdings violated election rules. In August, the more established oppositional party Pheu Thai Party (PTP), which trailed the MFP by 10 seats, managed to form a coalition government backed by military-backed parties. PTP candidate Srettha Thavisin was confirmed as prime minister in August. The military retains a firm grip over political proceedings and the senate remains comprised of military-elected members, most still holding office since their first appointment in 2019.[557]

(Monarchial) Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (LePoer 1987, Croissant 2002, Nelson 2004, Nguyen 2011)

Tibet

01/01/1900 Absolute Monarchy [as Protectorate of China, Absolute Monarchy]: In 1720, the Qing Dynasty had occupied Tibet. During the 18th and 19th centuries, Tibet was regarded a "fanshu" which translates to "vassal state". During the Qing occupation, Tibet held differing amounts of autonomy. At the end of the 19th century, the Qing held practically no sovereignty over Tibet. Tibet could rather be seen as a self-governing protectorate. The inner state regime was headed by the 13th Dalai Lama, Thubten Gyatsu, in Lhasa.[558] Tibet was ruled according to

[555] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prayut_Chan-o-cha
[556] https://www.nytimes.com/2023/05/14/world/asia/thailand-election-results.html
[557] https://freedomhouse.org/country/thailand/freedom-world/2024
[558] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tibet_under_Qing_rule#Political_status

the Tibetan Dual System of Government. This traditional system was a diarchal government initially consisting of the co-rule of the spiritual leader (Dalai Lama) and the worldly "temporal" ruler (Desi). However, the Desi was abolished by the seventh Dalai Lama in 1751. Worldly and religious rule were merged onto the Dalai Lama who became the sole ruler of Tibet.[559] Instead, the Kashag, the governing council of Tibet. The Kashag presented opinions to the office of the first minister. The first minister then presented these opinions to the Dalai Lama. Its responsibilities were laid out in the 1751 13-Article Ordonance for the More Effective Governing of Tibet.[560] While the classification of the inner state regime in Tibet during Qing rule is ambivalent, we code it as a ruling absolute monarchy considering the absolute power vested in the Dalai Lama who is not elected by the people. Undeniably, power is not passed on through monarchic descendance but rather through a process of searching for his reincarnation (phowa).[561]

12/11/1903 End Absolute Monarchy [as Protectorate of China, Absolute Monarchy]/Start Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy]: On this date, Great Britain invaded Tibet.[562] The British had become increasingly aware of the Russian Empire's ambitions in the East. The so-called Younghusband expedition was aimed at countering this. When the British reached Lhasa, the Dalai Lama had already fled first to Mongolia and then to China. The British troops easily beat the Tibetans and forced the remaining officials to sign the Convention of Lhasa.[563]

09/07/1904 End Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy]/Start Occupation Regime [by China, Absolute Monarchy]: On this date, the Convention of Lhasa was signed.[564] With certainty that China would not allow any third country (namely Russia) to interfere with the Tibetan administration, the British retreated to Sikkim.[565] On 04/27/1906, the Sino-British Treaty was signed. It was a follow up to the Convention of Lhasa and reaffirmed China's possession of Tibet.[566] With this Treaty, the Chinese government started to take control over the Tibet's policy on foreigners, continuing the yearlong exclusion of any foreign entry into the country. The directive dispatched to Tibetan officials served solely to showcase Chinese sovereignty in Tibet. The Chinese government aimed to convey its position as the supreme

[559] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tibetan_dual_system_of_government
[560] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kashag
[561] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dalai_Lama#Searching_for_the_reincarnation
[562] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/British_expedition_to_Tibet
[563] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/British_expedition_to_Tibet
[564] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Convention_of_Lhasa
[565] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/British_expedition_to_Tibet
[566] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Convention_Between_Great_Britain_and_China_Respecting_Tibet

authority in Tibetan affairs, both within Tibet and on the international stage(Schweiger 2015: 339). At the end of 1908, the Dalai Lama returned to Tibet, in order to structure his government. However, the Chinese government sent a military expedition under Zhao Erfeng in 1910 to reintegrate Tibet into China.[567] With this expedition began the forced Sinicization of Tibet which, beforehand, had been tolerated in remaining Tibetan traditional ways of living. In order to safeguard its interests, it executed a strategy of integrating Tibet into the broader framework of China politically, economically, and culturally between 1905 and 1911.[568] After the Chinese Invasion of 1910, the Dalai Lama was forced to flee to India.[569]

10/10/1911 End Occupation Regime [by China, Absolute Monarchy]/Start No Central Authority: On this date, the 1911 revolution erupted in China.[570] Zhao's soldiers of the punitive expedition to Tibet mutinied and beheaded him.[571]A series of mutinies, the collective of which is referred to as the Xinhai Lhasa Turmoil, followed.[572]

02/12/1912 End No Central Authority/Start Absolute Monarchy: This date marked the end of the 1911 revolution. The Qing Dynasty had fallen.[573] The Dalai Lama returned to Tibet in July 1912. He expelled the Amban (Qing representatives) and all Chinese forces.[574] In 1913, the Dalai Lama declared that Tibet was an independent nation. The claim to independence was not officially recognized by all countries. Nevertheless, it is agreed upon that Tibet enjoyed de facto independence during this period.[575] In 1949, after the protests of the Kuomintang and the communists in China, the Dalai Lama expelled all Chinese nationals connected with the Chinese government for fear of communist control.[576]

10/07/1950 End Absolute Monarchy/Start Occupation Regime [by China, Communist Ideocracy]: On this date, Chinese forces invaded the Tibetan Chamdo province. By 10/19/1950, 5000 Tibetan soldiers had surrendered to the People's Republic of China (PRC).[577]

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[567] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/13th_Dalai_Lama#Military_expeditions_in_Tibet
[568] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tibet_under_Qing_rule#Qing_in_Kham,_1904-1911
[569] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Tibet#Qing_conquest_and_administrative_rule_(1720%E2%80%931912)
[570] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1911_Revolution
[571] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Tibet#Qing_conquest_and_administrative_rule_(1720%E2%80%931912)
[572] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Xinhai_Lhasa_turmoil
[573] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1911_Revolution
[574] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Tibet#De_facto_independence_(1912%E2%80%931951)
[575] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tibet_(1912%E2%80%931951)
[576] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Tibet_(1950%E2%80%93present)
[577] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Tibet_(1950%E2%80%93present)#1950%E2%80%931955:_Traditional_systems

10/24/1951 End Occupation Regime [by China, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Part of Other Country [China, Communist Ideocracy]: On this date, the 14th Dalai Lama ratified the Seventeen Point Agreement via telegraph from exile. The agreement declared the annexation of Tibet by the PRC and made it part of Chinese territory.[578] He later repudiated his ratification on grounds of having been coerced into it. Other members of the government later also questioned the validity of the agreement as they had not signed it at all.[579] In 1956, clashes between the People's Liberation Army (PLA) and guerilla resistance fighters in Kham and Amdo regions took place. These regions had been subjected to socialist reform.[580] Between 04/17/1958 and 04/25/1958, the so-called Xunhua Incident took place. In Xunhua, socialist reforms were underway and within this framework, religious leaders were sent away for "re-education". Over 4000 people revolted and killed the leader of the Chinese task force. In order to suppress the rebellion, the PLA massacred over 400 people on 04/25/1958.[581] The incident is believed by some to be the precursor for the 1959 Tibetan Uprising.[582] Beginning in 1957, the CIA trained Tibetan rebels in the United States to organize rebellions back in Tibet.[583]

03/10/1959 End Part of Other Country [China, Communist Ideocracy]/Start No Central Authority: On this date, the Tibetan Uprising broke out in Lhasa. In 1957, the Defenders of the Faith Volunteer Army had begun to assemble around Gompo Tashi Andrugtsang. This was a rebel army forming against the Chinese. By 1958, Gompos army had taken control of a portion of central Tibet.[584] On 03/10/1959, the Dalai Lama intended to attend a dance performance at the PRC headquarters. Rumors from an unknown source were spread that the Chinese intended to abduct the Dalai Lama during this performance. Thousands of Tibetans surrounded the palace of the Dalai Lama to prevent him from leaving. Violence first targeted senior Tibetan officials accused of conspiring with the Chinese and then later the Chinese officials. Protestors used anti-Chinese slogans in expression of their wish for China to leave Tibet for good. The Dalai Lama consulted the state oracle and decided to flee Lhasa. After a shell hit the palace on 03/17/1959, the Dalai Lama fled to India[585] with the help of the CIA.[586]

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[578] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Seventeen_Point_Agreement#Legacy
[579] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Annexation_of_Tibet_by_the_People%27s_Republic_of_China
[580] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1959_Tibetan_uprising
[581] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Xunhua_Incident
[582] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1959_Tibetan_uprising
[583] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1959_Tibetan_uprising#Aftermath
[584] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Protests_and_uprisings_in_Tibet_since_1950#Early_resistance_1950-1958
[585] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1959_Tibetan_uprising
[586] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Tibet_(1950%E2%80%93present)#1956%E2%80%931958:_Trials_and_incremental_reform

03/23/1959 End No Central Authority/Start Part of Other Country [China, Communist Ideocracy]: This date marked the end of the 1959 Tibetan Uprising.[587] However, the Tibetan guerilla movement, Cushi Gagdruk, continued until 1974, when the United States stopped supporting their cause.[588] During the next years, Tibet was hit by famine, leading to the death of thousands of Tibetans. The cause of the famine was contested. Whereas the Tenth Panchen Lama made the Chinese policies, such as the Great Leap Forward, responsible, officials in China claimed natural disasters as the cause. Furthermore, this period saw the destruction of the majority of Tibet´s monasteries. In 1960, the ICJ published a report about Tibet, which accused China of violating the 1951 Seventeen Point Agreement, as well the suppression of Tibetan culture, genocide and severe Human Rights violations. On 09/01/1965, the region formerly governed by the Dalai Lama's administration from 1951 to 1959 (Ü-Tsang and western Kham) was rebranded as the Tibet Autonomous Region (TAR).[589] On 09/01/1965, Tibet became the Tibet Autonomous Region (TAR), a provincial division of China.[590] The governance of Tibet by the Chinese government is carried out through the administration of the Tibet Autonomous Region (TAR) and 12 Tibetan autonomous prefectures or counties situated in the neighboring provinces of Sichuan, Qinghai, Gansu, and Yunnan. According to the Chinese constitution, autonomous regions possess the prerogative to develop their own regulations and enforce national laws in line with local circumstances. Nevertheless, in reality, decision-making power is centralized in the hands of appointed ethnic (Han) Chinese officials of the CCP, which maintains a monopoly over political authority.[591] The Tibet Autonomous Region's regional people's congress, officially elected by lower-level people's congresses, nominates representatives to China's 3,000-member National People's Congress (NPC) on a five-year cycle. However, in reality, all candidates undergo scrutiny by the CCP.[592] Engaging in any form of organized political activity beyond the CCP is deemed unlawful and met with severe penalties, as is any indication of allegiance to or contact with the Central Tibetan Administration (CTA)—a representative entity headquartered in Dharamsala, India, commonly acknowledged as a government-in-exile.[593] Political prospects for ethnic Tibetans within Tibet are notably restricted. Top-tier and critical positions within the CCP and government are predominantly held by ethnic Chinese officials, leaving ethnic Tibetans relegated to lower-tier and token roles. The authorities

[587] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1959_Tibetan_uprising
[588] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chushi_Gangdruk
[589] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Tibet_(1950%E2%80%93present)
[590] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autonomes_Gebiet_Tibet
[591] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tibet/freedom-world/2023
[592] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tibet/freedom-world/2023
[593] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tibet/freedom-world/2023

vehemently suppress and severely penalize any autonomous political or civic involvement by ethnic Tibetans, even regarding local community matters that were previously regarded as less politically contentious in past decades.[594]

Part of Other Country [China, Communist Ideocracy] continued as of 07/01/2024.

Togo

01/01/1900 (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of Germany, Constitutional Monarchy] [Start: 07/05/1884]: Togo became a German protectorate on 07/05/1884. While a protectorate in name it was de facto a colony.[595]

08/26/1914 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of Germany, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy and France, Semidemocracy]: After the start of the First World War, both France and the United Kingdom invaded the country, forcing the colony to surrender on 08/26/1914. The two invading countries divided Togoland into two administrative zones.[596]

07/20/1922 End Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Semidemocracy and France, Semidemocracy]/Start (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of France, Semidemocracy and United Kingdom, Semidemocracy]: The country became a protectorate as an International Mandate of the League of Nations It remained separated in two parts, one being under the French the other under British rule.[597] The British part of Togo voted to become part of Ghana in 1957. In French Togoland, Territorial Assembly elections were held in 1955. They were boycotted by one main party, the Committee of Togolese Unity (CUT).[598]

08/30/1956 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of France, Democracy]/Start Electoral Autocracy [as Protectorate of France, Democracy]: On this date, French Togoland joined the French Union and was granted self-governance.[599] In the same year, the French Togoland autonomy referendum was held, which approved Togo as an autonomous region within the French Union.[600] On 09/12/1956 Nicolas Grunitzky was named prime minister, he was supported by France.[601] In 1957 universal suffrage was introduced (LIED).[602]

[594] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tibet/freedom-world/2023
[595] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Togoland
[596] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Togoland
[597] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Togoland
[598] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1955_French_Togoland_Territorial_Assembly_election
[599] https://www.britannica.com/place/Togo/History
[600] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1956_French_Togoland_autonomy_referendum
[601] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nicolas_Grunitzky
[602] https://www.britannica.com/place/Togo/History

04/27/1960 Continuation Electoral Autocracy [as independent country]: On this date, the country achieved complete independence in an agreement with France and the United Nations (Lansford 2021: 1660). [603] Nevertheless, the new government under Olympio began to suppress the opposition directly after elections had been held. Pre-independence political leaders were arrested or decided to flee the country (Decalo 1976: 96, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 101).

01/13/1963 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: Tensions with Ghana prompted the military to urgently request increased funding from Olympio. When these requests were rejected, the military ousted his government and assassinated Olympio. The military coup was led by ex-Sergeant Gnassingbé Eyadema and other former French colonial army veterans who had not integrated into the new Togolese military. Although they initially appointed a civilian opposition leader, Nicolas Grunitsky, as president, ultimate political control remained in the hands of Eyadema and two other ex-sergeants (Decalo 1976: 97-99, Lansford 2012b: 1435, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 102).[604]

04/14/1967 End Military Autocracy/Start Personalist (Military) Autocracy: On 01/13/1967 Eyadmea and the military overthrew Grunitzky. Coup co-leader Kléber Dadjo, also a military officer, became chairman of the junta. On 04/14/1967 Gnassingbé Eyadmea unilaterally dismissed Dadjo from his position of junta chairman and declared himself president. During his government, he banned in 1969 all parties except for his Rally of the Togolese People Party, which he had only founded in the same year. He held one-party and one-candidate elections. On 09/27/1992 a multiparty constitution was adopted by popular referendum (Lansford 2021: 1659).[605] GWF and REIGN classify the whole period from 1967 to 1993 as a personalist autocracy, BR, AF, HTW, and MCM between 1972 and 1990 as a military autocracy. Because the regime started with a military coup the country could be classified as a military autocracy. However, there are very strong indicators in favor of placing this regime in the personalist category. The military represented no actual restriction on Eyadma's exercise of power. The regime was characterized by his personal authority and a lack of strong, organized political institutions. His personally founded party is an example of this. Another point in favor of this view is that the party was dissolved in 2012 after Eyadema's son took it over after his death in 2005.[606] The Rally of the Togolese People Party then emerged into the newly founded party Union for the Republic by his son 2012.[607] Furthermore, Eyadema's rule rested on repression,

[603] https://www.systemicpeace.org/polity/P5Togo2018.pdf
[604] https://www.globalsecurity.org/military/world/war/togo.htm
[605] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Togo_2007?lang=en
[606] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rally_of_the_Togolese_People
[607] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Union_for_the_Republic_(Togo)

patronage, and a bizarre leadership cult. While the regime is a borderline case between a military and a personalist autocracy it is classified here as a case of a personalist autocracy until the point in time when multiparty elections were held.

08/25/1993 End Personalist (Military) Autocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: The first presidential elections with more than one candidate were held on this date, but the opposition parties boycotted them, leaving only two minor candidates to run. They accumulated less than 4% of the votes, leaving Gnassingbé Eyadéma to stay president.[608] His reelections in 1993, 1998 and 2003 were considered highly undemocratic and a seizure of power by the EU. Leading to the discontinuation of any talks between the two stakeholders.[609] In the multiparty poll held on 02/06 and 20/1994, violence tainted the process, including attacks by RPT militants on opposition candidates. Despite this, international observers endorsed the results, which initially favored the opposition Patriotic Front (FP) with 43 seats and the RPT with 35 seats. However, following petitions from the RPT, the Supreme Court invalidated 3 opposition seats, putting the FP's lead at risk pending by-elections scheduled for May but later postponed. In the presidential election on 06/21/1998, President Eyadéma secured 52% of the vote, Gilchrist Olympio of the Union of Forces of Change (UFC) received 34%, and other candidates shared the remaining votes. Criticisms of the election process emerged from domestic and international observers (Lansford 2021: 1661). On 02/05/2005, Eyadema's death during medical evacuation led to the military's declaration of his son Faure as president, disregarding the constitutional line of succession. This was internationally condemned as a coup. After pressure, Faure resigned as speaker and acting president on 02/25/2005, succeeded by Abbas Bonfoh. In the controversial 04/24/2005 elections, Faure Gnassingbé was credited with 60% of the vote, but international observers deemed the elections fraudulent. In the legislative elections of 10/14/2007, the ruling RPT won 50 seats, followed by the UFC with 27 seats and the CAR with 4 seats. While foreign observers deemed the elections fair, the opposition contested the results (Lansford 2021: 1662). Ahead of the 2013 Assembly elections, opposition groups protested an expanded Assembly and demonstrated for constitutional changes to prevent President Gnassingbé's third term. Despite this, Gnassingbé was re-elected for a third term on 04/25/2015, and a new government under Sélom Komi Klassou was formed. Gnassingbé won a fourth term on 02/22/2020, with 70.8% of the vote (Lansford 2021: 1663). On 29/04/24 Togo held parliamentary elections, in which the ruling Union for the Republic (UNIR) party won an extensive majority. Early in April a constitutional amendment shortened presidential terms to four instead of five years, with a two-term limit. Time in office

[608] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1993_Togolese_presidential_election
[609] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Togo

was however not considered, allowing Gnassingbé to stay in office until 2033, provided a successful re-election in 2025.[610]
Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Decalo 1990, Houngnikpo 2001)

Tonga

01/01/1900 Absolute Monarchy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 12/04/1845]: The first king of Tonga, George Tupou I, reigned from 12/04/1845 until his death on 02/18/1893. He was succeeded by George Tupou II.[611] The Tonga Islands became a British protectorate on 11/14/1899 by the Anglo-German Agreement (also known was Treaty of Amity)(Turner 2014). The Treaty was signed by the King and the British representative in Tonga. It transferred authority over the islands' financial and foreign affairs to the British Consul, who acted as the representative of Britain (Ratuva 2019, Lansford 2021: 1670). The Agent was instructed not to meddle in internal matters unless the welfare of British subjects or foreigners was at stake, although he could offer counsel if requested by the King and his government. These agreements were ended by mutual consent in 1970 (Crawford 2006). Tonga was not what was understood as colonial protectorate, however, since in 1958 and 1968 certain levels of authority in internal and external matters were attained by Tonga, therefore it is coded as a protectorate. Revised agreements with the United Kingdom in 1958 and 1968 granted Tonga complete internal self-governance alongside restricted authority over its external affairs (Lansford 2021: 1670). Under the guardianship of Britain, Tonga safeguarded its sovereignty, retaining its monarchical government as the sole Pacific nation. The Tongan monarchy upholds an unbroken lineage of hereditary rulers from a single family.[612]
06/04/1970 Continuation Absolute Monarchy as independent country: Tonga attained full independence within the Commonwealth as a ruling monarchy on 06/04/1970 and was the only country that had its own monarch, rather than having the United Kingdom's monarch, along with Malaysia, Lesotho, and Eswatini. While exposed to colonial pressures, Tonga has always governed itself, which makes it unique in the Pacific.[613] At this stage, the elections have no

[610] https://www.reuters.com/world/africa/togo-ruling-party-wins-sweeping-majority-legislative-poll-final-provisional-2024-05-04/
[611] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_monarchs_of_Tonga
[612] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tonga
[613] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tonga; https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Tonga_2013?lang=en

influence on the composition of the government, as the king appoints the prime minister and the cabinet outside parliament and the term of office is not fixed (Campbell 2004: 812).
11/25/2010 End Absolute Monarchy/Start Constitutional Monarchy: On this date early general elections under a new electoral law were held. The early elections were announced by the new King George Tupou V in July 2008 shortly before being crowned on 08/01/2008 and were preceded by a program of constitutional reform. For the first time, a majority of the seats (17 out of 26) in the Tongan parliament were elected by universal suffrage, with the remaining nine seats being reserved for members of Tonga's nobility. This marked a major progression away from the 165-year rule of the monarchy towards a fully representative democracy. The Taimi Media Network described it as 'Tonga's first democratically elected Parliament'.[614] The constitutional reforms of 2010 strengthened democratic change in the political regime. They included increasing the role of parliament and reducing the influence of the monarch.[615] Former prime Minister ʻAkilisi Pōhiva died in 2019 and was temporarily succeeded by finance minister Pōhiva Tuʻiʻonetoa whose government survived a vote of no confidence in January 2021. In November 2021 general elections were held, following which parliament elected Siaosi Sovaleni as the new acting prime minister. While elections were held competently and effectively, criteria such as universal suffrage are not met, due to the continued reservation of nine parliamentary seats for nobility. Moreover, the King retains significant political powers including the right to veto legislation, dissolve parliament and appoint judicial officials.[616]
Constitutional Monarchy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Transvaal

01/01/1900 Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 04/12/1877**]**: In 1852 the British Government recognized the independence of the Boer Republics of the Transvaal based on the 'Thirty-Three Articles' passed in 1849 and the 'Grondwet' or Fundamental Law of 02/13/1858 (Keltie 1894, Oliver/Anthony 2005). The Boers drafted a constitution in 1955. Transvaal was governed with a Volksraad of 24 elected members. Despite claiming a larger territory, the Boers authority was limited to southwestern Transvaal. The discovery of diamonds and gold deposits heightened British interest in gaining control of the

[614] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2010_Tongan_general_election
[615] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Tonga_2013
[616] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tonga/freedom-world/2022

region, while the Republic's economy remained stagnant.[617] Subsequently on 04/12/1877[618] the Transvaal was occupied by the British, Sir Theophilus Shepstone annexed the financially bankrupt republic to Britain.[619] This first annexation attempt, and the failed promise of internal self-governing by the United Kingdom led to a Boer uprising (Oliver/Anthony 2005). On 08/08/1881 the Transvaal territory was granted self-government by the Pretoria Convention, however, Britain remained the suzerain of the Transvaal Territory as it had the right to move troops through the Transvaal in time of war to control the external relations of the Transvaal including the conclusion of treaties and the conduct of diplomatic intercourse with foreign powers (De Villiers 1896). The Transvaal received greater autonomy after the British amended their suzerainty by the London Convention in 1884 (Evans et al. 2003).[620] In 1899 a conflict broke out between the British and the Boer Republic (Transvaal and Orange Free State known as the Second Boer War) and by June 1900 the British had defeated the Boer armies, which surrendered to the United Kingdom.[621] It is defined as occupation due to the British military presence, governance and control exercised over the region. The British interventions, annexation attempts and the establishment of colonial administration, indicates occupation rather than a protectorate with intern autonomy.

05/31/1902 End Occupation Regime [by United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy]/Start Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy]: On this date, the Treaty of Vereeniging, a peace treaty, ended the Second Boer War. In the aftermath the Transvaal (along with the Orange Free State) was annexed by Britain and became a British Crown colony (Kesner 1978: 28-53). The Responsible Government Association was formed in late 1904 and made up of a loose gathering of ex-colonial and ZAR officials. They called for the allowance of the colony to create its own policy and stive for self-government. [622]

12/12/1906 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy]/Start Electoral Oligarchy [under self-rule]: The pro-Boer Liberal Party in Britain came to power in 1906 with a new self-rule policy for the Boer colonies.[623] The Transvaal Colony was granted responsible government in terms of self-rule on 12/12/1906. White people in the colony had the right to decide whether to grant franchise to Africans. However, when Britain granted self-government to the two territories in 1906 and 1907 political power passed once again into Boer hands, and

[617] https://www.britannica.com/place/Transvaal
[618] https://www.sahistory.org.za/people/sir-theophilus-shepstone
[619] https://www.britannica.com/place/Transvaal
[620] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/London_Convention_(1884)
[621] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transvaal_Colony
[622] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transvaal_Colony
[623] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transvaal_Colony

non-whites were permanently excluded from the vote (Oliver/Anthony 2005). Elections were held in the colony in 1907. Following the results of the elections Louis Botha became Prime Minister of the Transvaal Colony on 03/04/1907 leading the Het Volk Party winning 37 out of 69 seats (including three affiliated independents) to the Legislative Assembly ahead of the Progressive Party (21 seats), the National Association (16), Labour (3 seats) and two independents.[624] This period of self-governance clearly is to be distinguished from other periods of self-governance in other cases. In this case, only white people in the colony had the right to participate in the election of a government.

03/31/1910 End Electoral Oligarchy [because end of statehood]: On this date the Transvaal Colony joined with three other provinces (Natal, the Orange Free State and Cape Colony) under a single administration as the Union of South Africa with the status as a self-governing colony (Leacock 1910). Similar to Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, the Union of South Africa attained self-governing dominion status within the British Empire. This status was solidified by the Balfour Declaration of 1926 and the Statute of Westminster in 1931. Governed as a constitutional monarchy, the Crown was represented by a governor-general.[625] Nevertheless, Dominion Status did not entail full sovereignty during that period. The concept of Dominion evolved over time, and even New Zealand did not attain complete independence—in terms of absolute autonomy or sovereign authority over its constitutional arrangements and foreign affairs—until 1947.[626] Thus, it is essential to check how the parliament of Union of South Africa was restricted in terms of legislative powers (e.g., foreign relations and external trade).

Trinidad and Tobago

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom] [Start: 01/01/1889]: The formalization of British control over Trinidad occurred on March 25, 1802, through the Treaty of Amiens between France and Great Britain. On January 1, 1889, Trinidad and Tobago were amalgamated as Crown Colonies of the United Kingdom. Suffrage was initially granted in

[624] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cabinet_of_Louis_Botha_(Transvaal_Colony)
[625] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/S%C3%BCdafrikanische_Union
[626] https://www.parliament.nz/en/pb/research-papers/document/00PLLawRP07041/new-zealand-sovereignty-1857-1907-1947-or-1987#footnote_3

1925, allowing both men over 21 and women over 30 to vote, aligning with the United Kingdom Full suffrage for women was achieved in 1945.[627]

From 1946 to 1961, self-government was progressively granted.[628] Between 01/03/1958 and 05/31/1962 Trinidad and Tobago were part of the Federation of the West Indies (with Antigua, Barbados, Cayman Islands, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, Montserrat, St. Christopher-Nevis-Anguilla, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, and Turks and Caicos Islands) (Lansford 2021: 1674).

08/31/1962 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Democracy: Trinidad and Tobago gained independence from the United Kingdom. General Elections were already free and fair before independence. The government of the People's National Movement leading Trinidad and Tobago into independence was elected indirectly through the parliamentary elections taking place on 12/04/1961.[629] The position of governor-general was replaced with that of president. Rival parties consistently transferred power peacefully, with multiple changes in government through elections since the 1980s.[630] Trinidad and Tobago operates as a parliamentary democracy with active media and civil society sectors. Nevertheless, organized crime fuels elevated levels of violence, and addressing corruption within public offices remains an ongoing challenge. Despite strides, discrimination against the LGBT+ community persists, alongside instances of violence against women, while human trafficking remains a significant issue of concern.[631] We agree with RoW and LIED that the regime is best characterized as an electoral democracy. Most recent fair and free elections were held in 2020.[632]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Catón 2005)

Tunisia

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy] [Start: 05/12/1881]: Tunisia became a French protectorate when the Treaty of Bardo was signed on 05/12/1881 (Crawford 2006). Nonetheless, the Convention of La Marsa, finalized on August 6th, 1883, granted France authority over Tunisia's internal matters through the office of the Resident-General. The official

[627] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[628] http://countrystudies.us/caribbean-islands/40.htm
[629] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1961_Trinidad_and_Tobago_general_election
[630] https://freedomhouse.org/country/trinidad-and-tobago/freedom-world/2022
[631] https://freedomhouse.org/country/trinidad-and-tobago/freedom-world/2023
[632] https://freedomhouse.org/country/trinidad-and-tobago/freedom-world/2021

wielded considerable powers, including the formulation of detailed strategies—whose overarching framework was determined in Paris—and the discretion to determine negotiation approaches with local representatives (Ikeda 2015, Lewis 2013, Roberts 1986, Willoughby/Fenwick 1974). This period is therefore coded as colonial rule.

06/03/1955 End Colonial Regime [of France, Democracy]/Start Constitutional Monarchy [as Protectorate of France, Democracy]: On 06/03/1955 France granted Tunisia internal autonomy. However, France continued to maintain authority over Tunisia's foreign relations and defense. A monetary union linked the two economies (Houssi 2017).

03/20/1956 Continuation Constitutional Monarchy [as independent country]: The Tunisian Kingdom was inaugurated as an independent realm.[633] Although the government was nominally a constitutional monarchy, Habib Bourguiba (appointed as prime minister by king Muhammad VIII al-Amin) and Neo-Destour had full control of decision making from the beginning (Anderson 1986: 235, Moore 1965a: 71-75, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 102). On 03/25/1956 a Constituent Assembly, was elected (Paxton 1986) with universal male suffrage. The Néo-Dustūr party list, headed by Habib Bourguiba received some 82% of the vote (Houssi 2017). Tunisia in this period a borderline case between a (constitutional) monarchy and a one-party autocracy.

07/25/1957 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start One-party (Personalist) Autocracy: The Constituent Assembly voted to abolish the monarchy and proclaimed a republic on this date (Paxton 1986). Bourguiba became the provisional head of state. In 1959 with the approval of a new constitution universal suffrage was introduced.[634] In 1960 the people elected Bourguiba president of the Tunisian Republic (Houssi 2017). Tunisia became a one-party autocracy led by Neo Destour[635] under Bourguiba. In 1964 the sole party was renamed in Socialist Destourian Party.[636]

03/01/1975 End One-party (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Personalist Autocracy: From the start the regime had a strong personalist note and in March 1974 Habib Bourguiba was declared President-for-life by the Chamber of Deputies. For this reason, there were no more presidential elections until 1989.[637] According to our classification rules, the appointment of a president for life means that there has been a regime change towards a personalist autocracy, although the ruling elite has not changed. Furthermore, even the one-candidate presidential elections no longer

[633] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kingdom_of_Tunisia
[634] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Tunisia_2008.pdf
[635] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neo_Destour
[636] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Socialist_Destourian_Party
[637] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1974_Tunisian_general_election

took place, which means that there were no direct or indirect popular multi-party/multi-candidate executive (s)elections. The cult of personality around Habib Bourguida is an additional feature.[638] On 11/01/1981, following changes to the constitution that allowed for multiple parties the regime de facto was still dominated by Habib Bourguiba and the PSD. The PSD now contested the elections as the lead party of the National Front in alliance with the Tunisian General Labour Union and other minor parties, and according to official results, won all seats.[639]

11/07/1987 End Personalist Autocracy/Start One-party (Personalist) Autocracy: On this date, doctors declared Habib unfit for duty and prime Minister Zine el Abidine Ben Ali declared himself president in conformity with the constitution. The ruling party was again renamed in Democratic Constitutional Rally, but the ruling elite stayed the same.[640] On 04/02/1989 for the first time since 1974 presidential elections have been held and for the first time in the parliamentary elections on this date oppositional parties were allowed. However, based on the official results they did not receive any seats in the parliament.[641] For the first time the Ennahda Movement fielded independent candidates, because Ben Ali had banned the party from participating.[642] Also, only Ben Ali was standing for election as president.[643] Therefore, based on the observations Tunisia under Ben Ali is coded as one-party autocracy, even for the period following 1989 because there were still no (direct or indirect) popular multi-party/multi-candidate executive (s)elections and political parties like the Ennahda Movement were banned and persecuted.

10/24/1999 End One-Party (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, general elections took place to elect a president and parliament.
The presidential election witnessed an unprecedented occurrence: the presence of multiple candidates for the first time in history.[644] However, Ben Ali received 99 per cent of the vote. In the parliamentary elections the ruling Constitutional Democratic Rally received more than 91 per cent of the votes. The country is in this period a borderline case between an electoral autocracy and a one-party autocracy.

01/14/2011 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Party) Regime: On this date, Ben Ali was ousted. In the course of the Tunisian Revolution, also called the Jasmine Revolution, all members of the cabinet associated with Democratic Constitutional Rally as the

[638] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_cults_of_personality#Tunisia
[639] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1981_Tunisian_parliamentary_election
[640] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zine_El_Abidine_Ben_Ali
[641] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1989_Tunisian_general_election
[642] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ennahda
[643] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1989_Tunisian_general_election
[644] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1999_Tunisian_general_election

ruling party resigned on 02/27/2011 (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 102). In response to the ongoing protests and the demands of the Tunisian people, Mohamed Ghannouchi, who was rooted in the old regime, resigned from his position as Prime Minister on 02/27/2011. He was replaced by Béji Caïd Essebsi, who served as the interim Prime Minister.[645]

10/23/2011 End Non-electoral Transitional (Party) Regime/Start Democracy: On this date, the first free and fair elections in Tunisia's history took place. The new constitution adopted in 2014 was "regarded as a milestone in North Africa's political history and the region's most progressive and democratic constitution".[646] Following the 2011 revolution, Tunisia witnessed sluggish progress in judicial reform despite constitutional mandates for a robust and independent judiciary. Many judges from the Ben Ali era persisted in their roles, and successive governments frequently attempted to influence court proceedings. Although the constitution affirmed the right to assemble and demonstrate peacefully, public protests addressing political, social, and economic concerns were common. However, the enactment of a contentious counterterrorism law in 2015 and the recurrent imposition of states of emergency placed significant limitations on public demonstrations. Exclusive eligibility for the presidency was restricted to Muslims, and societal biases alongside laws criminalizing homosexuality hindered the active political engagement of many LGBT+ individuals, with political parties largely neglecting their concerns. Nevertheless, elections during this period have been competitive and free and civil liberties have been mostly upheld.[647]

07/25/2021 End Democracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: President Kais Saied announced the dismissal of the government due to continuing protests caused by an increasing number of coronavirus cases and declining economic growth. He disbanded the Parliament in order to rule by decree expanding his executive authority and ignoring certain constitutional norms.[648] The nation's preeminent parliamentary faction, Ennahda, decried the president's maneuvers as constituting a coup d'état. This characterization was echoed by certain political commentators and legal scholars. Saied defended his choice to implement the measures by citing Article 80 of the Tunisian constitution, which grants the president the authority to enact exceptional measures when the country's institutions, security, or sovereignty are jeopardized. On 09/29/2021 the President directed Najla Bouden to establish a new government. In July 2022, a revised constitution, granting the president greater authority, was ratified following a referendum that

[645] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Beji_Caid_Essebsi
[646] https://www.swp-berlin.org/10.18449/2019C13/
[647] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tunisia/freedom-world/2020
[648] https://freedomhouse.org/report/freedom-world/2022/global-expansion-authoritarian-rule

was abstained from by more than two-thirds of voters. [649] Parliamentary elections were planned for 12/17/2022. Nearly all opposition parties boycotted the elections. Therefore, the voter turnout in the first round was only about 11 percent.[650] Saied's authoritarian tactics concerning his opponents raise alarm. In the initial days of September 2021, Human Rights Watch condemned his "repressive policies." Delivering a speech on 09/20/2021, from Sidi Bouzid, the birthplace of the uprising against Ben Ali, the president issued a vaguely worded encouragement to violence, mentioning "traitors" and calling on citizens to "cleanse the country." By 11/2021, Amnesty International reported a surge in military court trials in Tunisia, surpassing the number witnessed in the entire previous decade.[651] The self-coup of 2021 could give the appearance of a personalistic autocracy, but the president's measures were not entirely unconstitutional and, secondly, institutions were reinstated afterwards, albeit weakened. There is therefore no almost institutionless polity with unlimited power. However, the self-coup represents a violation of the constitutional limitation of power and therefore a violation of checks and balances, which leads to the classification as an electoral autocracy. In March 2022 President Saïed formally dissolved the parliament after it attempted to vote against his emergency measures by convening online. In June the President drafted a new constitution which shifted power away from the legislative to the executive branch of government, which was approved in a referendum which FH marks as flawed, with low turnout of 31%. Elections for a new parliament were held in December with a second round in January 2024, featuring extremely low turnout at 11%, a lack of candidates and a boycott by opposition parties. Government critics continue to be persecuted.[652]
Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Axtmann 2007, Entelis/Tessler 2013, Erdle 2010, Moore 1965b, Breivik Andersen 2011, Moore 1970)

Turkey

[For the time before 10/29/1923 see Ottoman Empire. Since 2022 Turkey is officially known as Türkiye]

[649] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2022%E2%80%9323_Tunisian_parliamentary_election; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2021_Tunisian_self-coup
[650] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2022%E2%80%9323_Tunisian_parliamentary_election
[651] https://www.journalofdemocracy.org/articles/coup-in-tunisia-is-democracy-lost/
[652] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tunisia/freedom-world/2024

10/29/1923 End Constitutional Monarchy/Start One-Party (Personalist) Autocracy: On this date, the establishment of the Republic of Turkey formally concluded the Ottoman constitutional monarchy. This pivotal change was led by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, who became the first President of Turkey. The Republican People's Party (until 1924 People's Party) was the only party that could be voted for in elections. Hence, there was no competition (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 102). In 1934 female suffrage was introduced.[653] Under Atatürks leadership, Turkey embarked on a comprehensive program of political, economic, and cultural reforms aimed at transforming the former Ottoman Empire into a modern, secular, and nation-state. This transition signified the dissolution of the Ottoman Empire, an entity that had spanned over six centuries, and the beginning of a new era in Turkish history.

07/21/1946 End One-Party (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date, Atatürk's successor, İsmet İnönü, allowed the first multi-party elections in the country's history at the national level. However, in these elections, the Republican People's Party still won 395 of the 465 seats. This is an example of how the change from a one-party autocracy to an electoral autocracy is often initially a gradual rather than a fundamental regime change. Nevertheless, the RPR lost the elections on 05/14/1950 and accepted the alternation in power.

10/27/1957 End Semidemocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: The manipulated election of 10/27/1957 marks the pivotal moment when the incumbent government transitioned from a democratic regime to an autocracy. Initially, the ruling Democratic Party (DP) secured its position through legitimately won elections in 1950 and relatively fair elections in 1954. However, facing waning popularity, it engaged in electoral manipulation in 1957. In the lead-up to the 10/1957 election, the government engaged in district gerrymandering, restricted opposition media access, prohibited public gatherings, banned political coalitions, and targeted opposition leaders with harassment. Post-election, numerous allegations emerged regarding voter registration and vote count discrepancies. Subsequently, as ballot boxes were relocated for a recount, the facility destined for this recount suffered a fire incident before the process could begin, resulting in all disputed seats being allocated to the DP. This sequence of events substantiated the allegations of electoral fraud (Glazer 1996, Tursan 2004: 70-71, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 102-103).

05/27/1960 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: On this date, a military coup led by Chief of the General Staff Gürsel ousted the prime minister Adnan Menderes (DP), dissolved the assembly and established the Committee of National Unity of 38 officers to rule. Gürsel ruled

[653] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37

as a military head of government. Menderes was tried and hanged under the military junta. They purged the rest of the government of Menderes supporters. However, the junta allowed for new elections in 1961 (Haddad 1965: 115-18, Brooker 1995: 253, Glazer 1996).

10/15/1961 End Military Autocracy/Start Democracy: The parliamentary elections are considered to be free and fair and the following regime as democratic (Haddad 1965: 119-20, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 103).[654] The constitution ratified in 1961 promulgated human rights as one of the pillars of the Turkish republic and established an robust and independent judiciary.[655]

03/12/1971 End Democracy/Start Military (Transitional) Autocracy: Violence and strikes committed by left-wing students, neo-fascist paramilitaries, and Islamic fundamentalists brought the country to the brink of collapse. It was at this moment, that the military demanded by letter that the prime minister should leave office and appoint a stronger, less political leader who could restore order. Suleyman resigned immediately after reading the letter and Nihat Erim was appointed as a non-party prime minister.[656]

03/13/1973 End Military (Transitional) Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date, the Turkish presidential elections were held and Fahri Korutürk was elected president.[657] When the military-backed candidate for the presidency was defeated, the army retreated to the barracks, relinquishing governance back to the politicians.[658] On 10/14/1973 general elections were held, which saw the Republican People´s Party victorious. [659] In the following year the country was governed mainly by weak coalitions and was shaken by a surge of violence.[660] While elections appeared to be free and fair and the judiciary effectively monitored the government, the state of democracy was marred by significant discrimination against the Turkish Kurds and a rise in anti-communist terror (Gastil 1979: 297). The terror of the 1970s resulted in an estimated death toll of 5,000, primarily attributed to right-wing and terrorist activities. According to data from British Searchlight magazine in 1978, there were 3,319 fascist attacks, resulting in 831 fatalities and 3,121 injuries.[661]

09/12/1980 End Semidemocracy/Start Military (Transitional) Autocracy: The elected government of Suleiman Demirel was overthrown by a military coup led by General Kenan

[654] https://www.org/military/world/europe/tu-military-coup-1961.htm
[655] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turkish_Constitution_of_1961#VII._Judicial_Power
[656] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nihat_Erim
[657] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1973_Turkish_presidential_election
[658] https://www.britannica.com/place/Turkey/Political-developments-1970s-to-90s
[659] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1973_Turkish_general_election
[660] https://www.britannica.com/place/Turkey/Political-developments-1970s-to-90s
[661] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Multi-party_period_of_the_Republic_of_Turkey#1961%E2%80%931980:_The_Second_Republic

Evren. He and the rest of the military high command established a five-member National Security Council composed of the service chiefs. They appointed a civilian cabinet and extended martial law to the entire country (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 90, Brooker 1995: 253, Glazer 1996, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 103).[662] Upon the occurrence of the coup in 1980, the military asserted that its involvement would be temporary. Following this, in 1981, the junta designated a Consultative Assembly tasked with formulating a fresh constitution. By 1982, this constitution underwent a referendum. Additionally, the Consultative Assembly drafted an electoral legislation, paving the way for the formation of new political entities. In October 1983, despite the setback of their preferred candidate, the military relinquished authority to the incoming government (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 63-64).

12/13/1983 End Military (Transitional) Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date, the National Security Council was dissolved. Free and fair parliamentary elections were held already on 11/06/1983. The elections were won by a party not allied with the military (Ahmad 1984: 3, Glazer 1996). On 06/30/1997 the military forced the prime minister to sign several policies restoring secularism. Shortly after the prime minister resigned. While this post-modern coup is clearly a breakdown of democracy, the military did not take power and democracy continued with a new coalition government. In May and June 2013 there had been violent clashes in İstanbul and several other cities between environmental demonstrators and riot police, prompting accusations of heavy-handedness by Erdoğan's government and criticism from the EU. In December that year a political crisis was triggered by a corruption scandal allegedly involving senior political and business figures and an apparent government attempt to suppress police investigations (Macmillan 2022a). The entire period was marred by a variety of issues. The military still held a significant amount of power and torture in the prison system persisted (Gastil 1987: 360). Kurdish organizations were faced with harassment and discrimination and Kurdish parties were targeted by repression for alleged ties to the Kurdish PKK. Furthermore, the judiciary and freedom of press came repeatedly under pressure from the government, which lead to self-censorship and a partial justice system (Puddington 2014: 709-714, Piano/Puddington 2004: 703-705).

07/01/2014 End Semidemocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: Erdogan was named the AKP's candidate in Turkeys first direct presidential elections. Election at local level took place in March 2014 and turned out highly controversial with regards to vote-rigging. Despite these accusations, the AKP was the obvious winner. Erdogan won the elections on 08/10/2014 with 51.8% of the

[662] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1980_Turkish_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat

vote and became president. followed by a wave of mass arrests of journalists and further repression against the opposition. The 2014 elections showed anomalies in terms of freedom and fairness. Furthermore, democratic competition was nearly not possible because oppositional parties lacked in funding and media attention paving the way towards authoritarianism. Erdogan was sworn in on 08/08/2014 with Ahmet Davutoğlu, also of the AKP, replacing him as prime minister. The questionable landslide voter turnout of the 2018 elections was not reflected on a local level (Lansford 2021, Macmillan 2022a).[663] In December 2014 a wave of arrests of journalists on charges of establishing a terrorist group was described by the opposition CHP as a coup against democracy, which further undermined EU confidence in the Turkish government's respect for the rule of law and fueled concerns over a concentration of political power in Erdoğan's hands (Macmillan 2022a). Parliamentary elections in June 2015 deprived the AKP of a majority but, after governing as an interim administration until November that year, the party won an unexpected and decisive victory in further polling marred by violence and media restrictions (Macmillan 2022a). The Islamic State (IS) claimed responsibility for a number of fatal attacks on Turkish soil in 2015 and 2016. In July 2016 a failed coup against Erdoğan prompted mass arrests along with a media clampdown (Macmillan 2022a).

04/16/2017 Continuation as Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy: On 04/16/2017, voters approved a referendum that dramatically expanded the powers of the president. 51.4 % of the voters voted yes and 48.6 % voted no. The position of prime minister was abolished, and a presidential system was established (see Constitution and government, below) (Lansford 2021). Hence, the subtype of the electoral autocracy changed. Erdoğan's purge extended from summer of 2016 through 2018 and included penalties ranging from lengthy prison terms to simple dismissals across government and military institutions as well as universities and the media (Lansford 2021). In June 2018 Turkey held what proved to be one of the most significant elections in its history. Called 18 months in advance of the originally scheduled date and attracting voter turnout of a remarkable 87 %, those elections decided both the presidency and composition of the parliament. In each case, the ruling AKP and its leader, Erdoğan, prevailed, further entrenching the Islamist authoritarian regime already in place. The success that Erdogan's AKP enjoyed in the 2018 parliamentary and presidential elections was not replicated in the municipal elections conducted in March 2019 (Lansford 2021). While the AKP-MHP coalition won 51 % of the vote in local balloting across Turkey overall in March 2010, it lost to CHP candidates in the country's two largest cities, Ankara and Istanbul. In the latter in particular, the CHP's Ekrem Imamoglu edged

[663] http://www.sirjournal.org/research/2020/12/28/turkeys-electoral-authoritarianism

former AKP prime minister Yildirim by 48.8 to Yildirim's 48.5 percent in the mayoral race. Claiming irregularities at polling stations across the city, the AKP forced an annulment of the results and a new election. In that rerun on June 23, however, Imamoglu won decisively, finishing 10 percentage points ahead of Yildirim. It was a very disappointing outcome for Erdogan, whose AKP controlled nine fewer mayoralties than beforehand, despite the fact that the president held a collective 202 rallies in 59 cities over the 50 days preceding the elections (Lansford 2021). Erdoğan's purge extended from summer of 2016 through 2018 and included penalties ranging from lengthy prison terms to simple dismissals across government and military institutions as well as universities and the media (Lansford 2021). In June 2018, Turkey experienced one of its most pivotal elections in history. The elections were held 18 months ahead of the originally planned date and saw an impressive voter turnout of 87%. These elections were crucial as they determined both the presidency and the composition of the parliament. In both instances, the incumbent AKP and its leader, Erdoğan, emerged victorious, further consolidating the already established Islamist authoritarian regime. In the presidential elections in May 2023, neither of the leading candidates managed to secure a majority, leading to a second-round election between Erdoğan and the opposition candidate Kemal Kılıçdaroğlu on the 28th of May. Erdoğan managed to secure the presidency once again with a 52,2% majority. The Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) and the IEOM claimed in a final observation report that while the elections were generally free and competitive, they were not fair. Voters were given a genuine choice on the ballot, yet biased media coverage favored Erdoğan, and restrictions on freedom of assembly and expression impeded participation. In country, voter-turnout was high at 88.92%.[664] After the earthquake in February 2023 the government restricted access to social media platform X, issuing arrests and imposed fines for government critical media posts or commentary.[665]
Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Arjomand 2008, Birand 1987, Cook 2007, Alcock et al. 2001, Karpat 1959, Karpat 2000, Özbudun 1995, Weiker 1980, Yavuz 2006, Yavuz 2009, Kim 1984)

Turkmenistan

01/01/1900 Part of other country [Russia, Absolute Monarchy] [Start: 05/06/1881]: After the suppression of the Emirate of Bukhara (1868) and the Khanate of Khiva (1873), the Turkmen

[664] https://www.osce.org/files/f/documents/1/f/553966.pdf
[665] https://freedomhouse.org/country/turkey/freedom-world/2024

area remained independent.[666] Turkmenistan was annexed by the Russian Empire and was incorporated into the Empire as the Transcaspian Oblast on 05/061881.[667]

11/07/1917 End Part of other Country [Russian Empire, Absolute Monarchy]/Start Part of other Country [Russia, Communist Ideocracy]: On this date the Russian Soviet Republic was proclaimed.[668] On 04/10/1918 the Turkestan Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic (initially, the Turkestan Socialist Federative Republic) was officially proclaimed. The Turkistan ASSR was an autonomous republic of the Russian Federative Socialist Republic, which included territories of present-day Kazakhstan, Kyrgystan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan (Fedorenko 2015: 3).[669] On 08/07/1921 Turkmenistan was established as the Turkmen Oblast under the Turkestan Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic (ASSR).[670] Universal suffrage was introduced in 1924.[671]

12/28/1922 End Part of other Country [Russia, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Part of other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]: With the establishment of the USSR, Turkmenistan became a part of the Soviet Union.[672] On 05/13/1925 this date Turkmenistan was declared a republic within the Soviet Union and given the name Turkmen SSR.[673]

10/27/1991 End Part of Other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]/Start One-Party (Personalist) Autocracy: Niyazov held control over independence, with the Supreme Soviet elected in January 1990 being under communist dominance (Clark/Thurman/Tyson 1996, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 103). The Communist Party of Turkmenistan (CPT) was renamed the Democratic Party of Turkmenistan (DPT). The former internal party structures were preserved. This also included the party cadres and elites. Up until 2010 the DPT was the only legal party.[674] Over time, Nazarbayev consolidated his already strong position.[675] The narrative of nation-building already revolved around the emerging cult of personality.[676]

12/28/1999 End One-Party (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Personalist [One-Party] Autocracy: On this date the assembly of Turkmenistan declared Niyazov President for Life of Turkmenistan. With this decision the country crossed the line from a one-party (Personalist) autocracy to a

[666] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turkmenistan; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Turkmenistan
[667] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turkmenistan; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Turkmenistan
[668] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_Soviet_Federative_Socialist_Republic
[669] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turkestan_Autonomous_Soviet_Socialist_Republic
[670] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turkestan_Autonomous_Soviet_Socialist_Republic
[671] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[672] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Soviet_Union#Treaty_on_the_Creation_of_the_USSR
[673] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turkestan_Autonomous_Soviet_Socialist_Republic
[674] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Democratic_Party_of_Turkmenistan
[675] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Turkmenistan#
[676] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saparmurat_Niyazov#

personalist autocracy. (Macmillan 2022b). The assembly itself consisted only of hand-picked candidates by Niyazov.[677] In 2003, Niyazov wielded exclusive control over both the executive and legislative branches of government, serving as the sole authority in both capacities.[678] The cult of personality took on ever greater proportions and increasingly extended to Niyazov´s parents. The title Turkmenbashi, meaning Head of all Turkmen, is just one example.[679]

12/21/2006 End Personalist [One-Party] Autocracy/Start One-Party (Personalist) Autocracy: On this date Niyazov died (Lansford 2021). On 02/11/2007 Berdymukhammedov was elected president with nearly 90% of the vote (Macmillan 2022b). After constitutional reforms increased the size of the Assembly (Mejlis), fresh elections were conducted on 12/14 and 12/28/2008, a year ahead of the constitutional requirement.[680] All 125 members elected to the Assembly were members of the DPT or pro- presidential independents. The balloting marked the first time that foreign monitors were present as observers, although international groups criticized the elections for irregularities and because no opposition parties contested the elections (Lansford 2021). It was only in 2010 that parties other than the DPT were legalized. But even after formal legalization, opposition parties are prevented from emerging.[681] On 12/15/2013 elections were held. The governing Democratic Party of Turkmenistan won 47 seats, the recently created Party of Industrialists and Entrepreneurs won 14, trade unions won 33, women's groups 16, youth organizations 8, and citizens' groups 7. An observer mission from the Commonwealth of Independent States concluded that the elections were free, orderly, and competitive, but human rights campaigners dismissed them as a token gesture, noting that genuine opposition leaders are all in jail or in exile. Observers from the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe said that some improvements were made in the legal framework for elections, but that choice was limited. The Turkmen government noted that, apart from Turkmen, there are also ethnic Russians, Kazakhs, and Uzbeks represented in the parliament (Lansford 2021). On 02/12/2017 Berdimuhammedov was reelected president with 97.7 % of the vote in balloting (Lansford 2021). In balloting for parliament on 03/25/2018 the Democratic Party of Turkmenistan and pro-presidential independents won 103 seats, followed by the Party of Industrialists and Entrepreneurs with 11 and the Agrarian Party of Turkmenistan (APT) with 11 (Lansford 2021). Until today elections are held but those are only open to pro-presidential and DPT-candidates.

[677] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Turkmenistan#
[678] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Turkmenistan#History
[679] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Saparmurat_Niyazov#
[680] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Turkmenistan_2016?lang=en
[681] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Democratic_Party_of_Turkmenistan#

And even this pro-presidential parliament is seen by observers as a rubber-stamp parliament.[682] Further, there have been substantial changes by current office holder Berdymukhammedov to further entrench presidential powers in the constitution, such as lifelong presidency. Parliamentary elections in March 2023 were all won by regime-friendly parties.
One-party (Personalist) Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Heinritz 2007)

Turks and Caicos Islands

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy (as Part of Colony of Jamaica)] [Start: 09/03/1783]: Commencing in the mid-1600s, individuals from Bermuda engaged in seasonal visits to the islands for salt collection, eventually establishing more permanent settlements with the presence of African slaves. Amidst the Anglo-French War (1778–1783), the French seized control of the archipelago in 1783. Nevertheless, the Treaty of Paris (1783) subsequently affirmed its status as a British colony. In 1799, Britain incorporated both the Turks and Caicos Island groups into its territory as components of the Bahamas. In 1848, Britain established the Turks and Caicos as an independent colony with a council president. From 1873 to 1874, the islands were integrated into the Jamaica colony and in 1894, the title of the chief colonial official was changed to commissioner.[683]
07/04/1959 Continuation as Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, (Monarchical) Democracy]: On this date, the islands were once again established as an independent colony, with the final commissioner assuming the title of administrator. The governor of Jamaica concurrently served as the governor of the islands. Following Jamaica's attainment of independence from Britain in August 1962, the Turks and Caicos Islands became a Crown colony. Starting in 1965, the governor of the Bahamas assumed the additional role of overseeing affairs for the Turks and Caicos Islands. When the Bahamas achieved independence in 1973, the Turks and Caicos Islands were appointed their own governor.[684]
08/30/1973 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, (Monarchical) Democracy]/Start Democracy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: On this date, the Turks and Caicos Islands adopted their first constitution, marking the establishment of a self-governing system led

[682] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Turkmenistan#Political_parties_and_elections
[683] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turks_and_Caicos_Islands#History
[684] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turks_and_Caicos_Islands#20th_and_21st_centuries

by a chief minister. Following the People's Democratic Movement's (PDM) victory in the 1976 general election under "Jags" McCartney's leadership, there was an initial push for eventual independence. However, McCartney's untimely death eroded confidence in the pursuit of full independence. In 1980, the pro-independence PDM reached an agreement with the British government, proposing independence by 1982 if the PDM was reelected that year. The subsequent election in 1980, essentially a referendum on independence, saw the PDM losing to the Progressive National Party (PNP), which favored continued British rule. Norman Saunders of the PNP became chief minister, securing victory again in the 1984 elections. Consequently, the push for independence receded from the political forefront.[685] From 1986 to 1988, local government in the Turks and Caicos Islands was suspended due to allegations of government involvement in drug trafficking, leading to the arrest of Chief Minister Norman Saunders. In 2002, the islands were reclassified as a British Overseas Territory, granting full British citizenship to the residents. A new constitution was established in 2006. However, in 2009, Premier Michael Misick of the Progressive National Party (PNP) resigned amidst corruption charges, prompting the United Kingdom to assume direct control of the government. During the period of direct British rule, discussions between the leaders of The Bahamas and the Turks and Caicos Islands in 2010 explored the potential formation of a federation. A new constitution was enacted in October 2012, and after the November 2012 elections, the government was restored to full local administration.[686] The judiciary is regarded as independent, and elections generally take place under universal suffrage.[687]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Tuvalu

01/01/1900 (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 10/09/1892]: Between 10/09/1892 and 10/16/1892, a British protectorate was declared over all parts of the Ellice Islands.[688] Tuvalu was part of the Gilbert and Ellice Islands since 1892 (see Kiribati). In 1967 universal suffrage was introduced.[689] On 10/01/1975 Ellice Islands separated as Tuvalu from the Gilbert and Ellice Islands.[690] On 08/27/1977 the first separate parliamentary elections for Tuvalu were held. Since there were no political factions, every

[685] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_the_Turks_and_Caicos_Islands#Autonomy
[686] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turks_and_Caicos_Islands#20th_and_21st_centuries
[687] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_Turks_and_Caicos_Islands#Political_parties_and_elections
[688] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Tuvalu
[689] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[690] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Tuvalu_2010?lang=en

candidate stood for election as an independent, and Toaripi Lauti retained his position as Chief Minister.[691]

05/01/1978 End Colonial Regime/Start Democracy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: From this date on there was a phase of internal autonomy and self-governance (former colonial authority retained responsibility for external affairs). On 10/01/1978 Tuvalu became an independent state (McIntyre 2012: 135-46). Since 1977, elections are regularly held. Tuvalu is a parliamentary democracy with a unicameral House of Assembly. While a governor represents the British monarch as head of state, the prime minister serves as the head of government.[692] Only non-partisans are elected as there are no political parties. Tuvalu's legal system ensures democratic elections, with laws applied fairly and without bias. A government-appointed secretary oversees elections and manages voter registration. District polling officers have the authority to resolve election disputes, and there's a process for appeals. The September 2019 elections appear to have garnered acceptance from all pertinent stakeholders and constituencies.[693] On 09/19/2019 Kausea Natano was elected prime minister through free and fair elections (Macmillan 2022c, Lansford 2021).[694] As part of a constitutional review expected to finalize by July 2019, the government proposed reserving two out of the legislature's 15 seats for women. During the balloting on 09/09/2019, nine incumbents retained their seats out of the 16 contested. Kausea NATANO then secured victory over Sopoaga in the latter's attempt for reelection as prime minister on September 10, with a vote count of 10–6. Natano assumed office on the same day, forming a new cabinet (Lansford 2021). Political rights and civil liberties are generally upheld. All Tuvaluans aged 18 and older who are present in the country on election day are qualified to vote. Although woman have equal political rights formally, political affairs are predominantly influenced by older men because of pervasive discriminatory biases. The judiciary operates independently.[695]

Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Somoza 2001)

Uganda

[691] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1977_Tuvaluan_general_election
[692] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tuvalu/freedom-world/2023
[693] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tuvalu/freedom-world/2020
[694] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tuvalu/freedom-world/2020
[695] https://freedomhouse.org/country/tuvalu/freedom-world/2023

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 06/18/1894]: In the mid-1880s, Uganda underwent a period of political turmoil as four distinct religious factions competed for political dominance. In 1888, a coup orchestrated by the Muslim faction ousted King Mwanga II, replacing him with Kalema. The following year, Protestants and Catholics formed a coalition to unseat Kalema and reinstate Mwanga II. Collaborating with the Imperial British East Africa Company, they successfully removed Kalema, restoring Mwanga II to power in 1890.On 06/18/1894 Uganda was declared a British protectorate.[696] Uganda maintained a level of self-governance distinct from complete colonial administration. However, according to our coding rules the regime is a borderline case between a protectorate with internal sovereignty and a colony with no internal sovereignty.[697]

03/01/1961 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Semidemocracy [as independent country]: On this date, internal self-government was granted to Uganda in 1961 and the first elections were held. Benedicto Kiwanuka of the Democratic Party became the first Chief Minister. In April 1962 a new National Assembly was elected.[698] On 04/25/1962 Milton Obote, leader of the majority coalition in the National Assembly, became prime minister and led Uganda to formal independence on 10/09/1962.[699] In 1962 universal suffrage was introduced.[700] However, elections were not held in all parts of the country, with the Parliament of Buganda nominating 21 members (all of whom belonged to the Kabaka Yekka party) to the national parliament instead.[701] The constitutional position of Buganda (and the degree to which it would be able to exercise self-government) was a major issue in Uganda.[702] Obote ruled in a coalition with the Kabaka Yekka movement/party, whose leader King (Kabaka) Mutesa II was named president.[703] Under the Independence Constitution of 1962, the First Parliament of Uganda, the National Assembly, was partly elected and partly nominated. The Buganda representatives were

696 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Protectorate_of_Uganda#:~:text=The%20Protectorate%20of%20Uganda%20was,Buganda%20to%20the%20British%20government

697 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Protectorate_of_Uganda

698 https://2009-2017.state.gov/outofdate/bgn/uganda/55917.htm#:~:text=In%201894%2C%20the%20Kingdom%20of,Uganda%20maintained%20its%20Commonwealth%20membership

699 https://2009-2017.state.gov/outofdate/bgn/uganda/55917.htm#:~:text=In%201894%2C%20the%20Kingdom%20of,Uganda%20maintained%20its%20Commonwealth%20membership

700 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage

701 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1962_Ugandan_general_election

702 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Buganda#Government

703 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Milton_Obote

to continue to be indirectly elected by the Lukiiko.[704] There are several reasons why the regime is classified as a semidemocracy and not a full democracy: Although universal suffrage was introduced in 1962, elections were not held throughout the entire country. In Buganda, representatives were indirectly elected by the Lukiiko, rather than directly by the people. This indirect method of election reduced the accountability of representatives to the general populace, a key feature of full democratic systems. Although one could also argue that the appointment of a quarter of the parliament marks the crossing of the threshold towards an autocracy, there is a qualitative difference between the period 1961-1966 and 1966-1971 that must be taken into account. Not only was there an intact constitution, but with reference to the Civil Liberty Index and the Liberal Component Index of V-Dem it can also be observed that both political and civil liberties as well as judicial and legislative restrictions on the executive increased during this period. POLITY also notes a high level of control over executive activities during this period. Therefore, we classify this period as semidemocracy despite the rather severe deficits in the electoral process.

02/22/1966 End Semidemocracy/Start Personalist Autocracy: Due to a rift with Mutesa over the 1964 Ugandan lost counties referendum and later getting implicated in a gold smuggling scandal, Obote launched a self-coup with the support of the military. Obote suspended the constitution, arrested five ministers, and transferred all executive powers to himself after a no-confidence vote by members of his own UPC party. In March 1966, Obote relieved the president (the Kabaka, traditional leader of a different ethnic group) of his position. The imprisoned ministers, which were arrested according to the colonial law of Deportation Ordinance filed a lawsuit against Obote's government yet failed, the Supreme Court Chief Justice ruling that Obote's actions and ascent to power were legal. In a further case, the East African Court of Appeal found the ordinance unconstitutional. The government moved quickly to pass the Deportation Act, after the Ministers had immediately been rearrested after the court's ruling.[705] On 04/15/1966, a new constitution was promulgated that was intended to serve as a preliminary document until a Constituent Assembly had convened. It already gave Obote extensive powers, renamed his previous position president, and abolished the post of the prime minister.[706] The abolition of this post remained until 12/18/1980.[707] On 09/08/1967 a new constitution proclaimed Uganda a

[704] https://www.parliament.go.ug/page/history-parliament
[705] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mengo_Crisis
[706] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitution_of_Uganda
[707] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Prime_Minister_of_Uganda

republic, gave the president even greater powers, and abolished the traditional kingdoms.[708] In 1969, the UPC was officially designated as Uganda's sole official party.[709]

01/25/1971 Continuation Personalist Autocracy: Major General Amin removed Obote from power. On 02/02/1971, Amin proclaimed himself as the president of Uganda, assuming the roles of Commander-in-Chief of the armed forces, Army Chief of Staff, and Chief of Air Staff. Subsequently, hundreds of troops from Obote's region were killed in their barracks (Welch 1974: 133, Kapuscinski 2002: 141, Lansford 2012d: 1480, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 103).[710] On 06/25/1976 Amin was declared president for life.[711] The regime is coded as a personalist autocracy and not as a military autocracy because there was no observable selection process by members of the military, but Amin just declared himself president. Furthermore, the military became increasingly disorganized under Idi Amin. Formal command structures became less important, while loyalty to Idi Amin became crucial. Consequently, advancement in the system depended on the personal relationship with Idi Amin.[712] Because of the partial suspension of the constitution, the legislature was likewise no counterweight to the power of the executive under Amin.[713] The coding rule that there are no (direct or indirect) popular multi-party/multi-candidate executive (s)elections is fulfilled. Furthermore, the lifelong term of office is a sufficient condition for coding it as a personalist autocracy.

04/11/1979 End Personalist Autocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: A combined army of Tanzanian soldiers and Ugandan exiles successfully removed Amin from power. Following this, a coalition government led by former exiles assumed control, with Yusuf Lule assuming the role of provisional president (Mutibwa 1992: 135, Ingham 1994: 7, Lansford 2012a: 1480, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 103-104). Yusuf Lule was removed from his position as interim president by vote. The NCC (National Consultative Commission) of the Uganda National Liberation Front, which was to be an interim (non-elected) governing body will full legislative powers,[714] voted on the motion via secret ballot. He was succeeded by Godfrey Binaisa who was appointed by the NCC as 5th President of Uganda.[715]

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[708] https://www.monitor.co.ug/uganda/news/insight/the-first-coup-in-uganda-1534158; https://2009-2017.state.gov/outofdate/bgn/uganda/55917.htm#:~:text=In%201894%2C%20the%20Kingdom%20of,Uganda%20maintained%20its%20Commonwealth%20membership

[709] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitution_of_Uganda

[710] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Republic_of_Uganda

[711] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Idi_Amin https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Idi_Amin

[712] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Uganda_Army_(1971%E2%80%931980)#Organization

[713] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitution_of_Uganda#Third_constitution_(1967%E2%80%931995)

[714] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitution_of_Uganda

[715] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yusuf_Lule

05/12/1980 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Military (Transitional) Autocracy: President Godfrey attempted to relieve the army chief of staff and this decision in turn, resulted in his immediate removal by the Military Commission led by Paulo Muwanga. Muwanga ruled the country with a junta for a few days.

05/22/1980 End Military (Transitional) Autocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Non-Party) Regime: From this date on, Muwanga, a civilian, chaired the Presidential Commission of Uganda until 12/15/1980, assuming the powers of the president during this transitional phase.[716] This is a borderline case between a military (Transitional) regime and a non-electoral transitional regime.

12/11/1980 End Non-electoral Transitional (Non-Party) Regime/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, a parliamentary election tainted by fraud, violence, and intimidation resulted in a victory for the UPC, propelling Obote back to power as prime minister. The previous head of the interim government, aligned with the UPC, removed district commissioners who opposed the UPC and hindered opposition candidates from running. The widespread use of violence and intimidation during the election led us to categorize the 1980 election as undemocratic (Mutibwa 1992: 141, Lansford 2012c: 1480, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 104).The transition occurred in the wake of the Tanzania-Uganda war and the deposing of ldi Amin by victorious Tanzanian and Ugandan forces. Following a period of internecine conflict within the Uganda military forces that participated in the conflict, a transitional structure oversaw bitterly contested elections in December 1980 that were won by Milton Obote's Uganda People's Congress (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 64-65).

07/27/1985 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: On this date a military coup led by general Tito Okello and Brigadier (after the coup promoted to lieutenant general) Bazilio Olara-Okello ousted President Obotes government (Rowe 1990). Between 07/27 and 07/29/1985, Olara-Okello was Chairman of the Military Council, and de facto head of state, then General Tito Okello replaced him as chairman of the military council. Olara-Okello became chief of the armed forces. However, in this period no group controlled all the territory of Uganda and it is borderline case to No Central Authority (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 104, Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 9164-65).[717]

01/27[-01/29]/1986 End Military Autocracy/Start Military (Personalist) Autocracy: Tito Okello's ceasefire with the rebels broke down and Okello was forced to flee the country. Yoweri Museveni, the rebel commander and leader, became head of state and eventually president. The

[716] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Paulo_Muwanga
[717] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bazilio_Olara-Okello

National Resistance Army, under the leadership of Museveni, seized control of Kampala. Subsequently, the National Resistance Council was formed, comprising the 38 prominent members of the NRA and NRM, tasked with governance. In April 1987, the NRC broadened its composition to include cabinet members and their deputies, many of whom were not affiliated with the NRM. Further expansion occurred in April 1989, with the inclusion of elected members into the NRC (Mudoola 1989: 2, Kasfir 1990, Rowe 1990, Lansford 2012c: 1480-81, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 104). The regime is a non-electoral regime. It is a borderline case between a military and a personalist autocracy. The classification by BR as a civilian dictatorship in this period is wrong.

05/09/1996 End Military (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, elections were held in which Museveni's government was elected.[718] In elections on 02/18/2011 Museveni received 68% of the vote. After allegations of vote rigging, protests emerged that were harshly repressed with violence by security forces. In February 2016, Museveni won again despite international concerns over polling transparency. The opposition claimed widespread fraud, voting irregularities, the repeated arrest of opposition politicians and a climate of voter intimidation during the elections (Macmillan 2022d). Observers from the EU and USA also emphasized on the lack of transparency and criticized the detentions of opposition candidates while critics also claimed the misuse of state powers in favor of the incumbent.[719] In 2018 a constitutional amendment removed the presidential age limit of 75, allowing the president to seek re-election in 2021 and possibly to retain office for life (Macmillan 2022d).[720] On 01/16 Museveni secured another term in the 2021 general election with 58% of the vote. Electoral violence was high. After oppositional candidate Bobi Wine, disputed the results, he was subsequently placed under house arrest by the military (Macmillan 2022d). State violence and intimidation by security forces especially of the opposition continues.

Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Decalo 1998, Eriksen 2005, Flanary/Watt 1999, Ravenhill 1974, Rwengabo 2013)

Ukraine

[718] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yoweri_Museveni#Rise_to_power:_1986%E2%80%931996
[719] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2016_Ugandan_general_election
[720] https://freedomhouse.org/country/uganda/freedom-world/2022

01/01/1900 Part of other country [Russia, Absolute Monarchy] [Start: 04/19/1783]: On 02/09/1667 following the Truce of Andrusovo the historical region of left-bank Ukraine was incorporated by the Tsardom of Russia.[721] On 04/19/1783 the Russian Empire annexed the Crimean Khanate.[722] The historical region of right-bank Ukraine was annexed by the Russian Empire in the Second Partition of Poland in 1793.[723] A treaty between Prussia and the Russian Empire was signed on 01/23/1793.[724]

06/23/1917 End Part of other Country [Russia, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Non-electoral Transitional [Multiparty] Regime: The Ukrainian People's Republic (UPR), declared on this date, following the February Revolution in Russia, independence. Initially, it was a socialist-leaning entity under the Central Council of Ukraine, which sought autonomy within the Russian Provisional Government. The Central Council of Ukraine, or the Ukrainian Central Rada, declared Ukrainian autonomy and later proclaimed the UPR's independence on 01/22/1918, in response to the Bolshevik Revolution. During its brief existence, the UPR underwent several political changes. After the Bolshevik October Revolution, the UPR denounced the Bolshevik seizure of power. In December 1917, a competing government, the Ukrainian People's Republic of Soviets, was declared in Kharkiv by local Bolsheviks. This Soviet Republic, supported by Soviet Russia, aimed to establish a communist regime in Ukraine.[725] However, this did not represent the mainstream UPR government based in Kyiv, which continued to oppose Bolshevik control and sought to establish a democratic socialist republic. The political landscape in Ukraine at the time was highly fragmented, with various factions including the UPR, the Bolsheviks, and other nationalist and anarchist groups vying for control. The UPR government led by the Directorate, particularly under Symon Petliura, maintained a socialist orientation but was distinct from the Bolshevik communists.[726] [727]

01/09/1918 End Non-electoral Transitional [Multiparty] Regime/Start Semidemocracy: Universal suffrage was introduced, and the Ukrainian People’s republic (Ukrainian SSR) held multiparty legislative elections on this date [O.S. 12/27].[728] The elections dould only be held in

[721] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Left-bank_Ukraine
[722] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Annexation_of_the_Crimean_Khanate_by_the_Russian_Empire
[723] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Right-bank_Ukraine#:~:text=In%201793%20right%2Dbank%20Ukraine,Polish%20or%20Polonized%20Ukrainian%20nobility.
[724] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Second_Partition_of_Poland
[725] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ukrainian_People%27s_Republic
[726] https://www.encyclopediaofukraine.com/display.asp?linkpath=pages%5CU%5CK%5CUkrainian6SovietWar1917hD721.htm
[727] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ukrainian_People%27s_Republic
[728] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage

part of the territory and the elections had to be paused due to the invasion of Russia and the chaos that was spread as the result of it.

04/01/1918 End Semidemocracy/Start Military Autocracy: On this date, the socialist authority of the republic was suspended when it was overthrown by the pro-German Ukrainian State of Pavlo Skoropadskyi, who was elected as a Hetman by a congress of peasants.[729]

11/14/1918 End Military Autocracy/Start Communist Ideocracy: On this date, the Ukrainian socialists announced a new revolutionary government, the Directorate.[730]

12/30/1922 End Communist Ideocracy/Start Part of other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]: On this date, the Ukrainian Socialist Soviet Republic, proclaimed on 03/10/1919, was admitted to the USSR.

06/22/1941 End Part of other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Occupation Regime [by Germany, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]: On this date, the invasion of Ukraine by Nazi Germany began as part of Operation Barbarossa. German forces quickly advanced into Ukrainian territory, and many major cities, including Kyiv, were occupied by the German Army. At first, some of the Ukrainian population welcomed the Germans as liberators.[731] However, this changed quickly. Following the initial occupation, Ukraine was divided into several administrative regions. The Reichskommissariat Ukraine was established, and it included both the territory of modern-day Ukraine and parts of Belarus and Russia. Erich Koch served as the Reichskommissar. The German occupation was brutal and marked by the Holocaust, mass killings, and widespread destruction. In mid-1943 the Germans began their slow retreat from Ukraine, leaving wholesale destruction in their wake. In November the Soviets reentered Kyiv. With the approach of the front, guerrilla activity in western Ukraine intensified, and bloody clashes that claimed large numbers of civilian victims occurred between Ukrainians and Poles.[732]

10/31/1944 End Occupation Regime [by Germany, Right-wing (Fascist) Autocracy]/Start Part of Other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]: By the end of October 1944 all of Ukraine was again under Soviet control.[733] The Soviet victory, the Red Army's presence in Eastern Europe, and diplomatic negotiations among the Allies led to a lasting reconfiguration of Ukraine's western boundaries. In exchange for obtaining German territories in the west, Poland agreed to relinquish control of Volhynia and Galicia. A mutual population exchange ensued, during which the remaining Ukrainian population was deported by Poland to its newly acquired western territories.

[729] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ukrainian_People%27s_Republic
[730] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ukrainian_People%27s_Republic
[731] https://www.britannica.com/place/Ukraine/The-Nazi-occupation-of-Soviet-Ukraine
[732] https://www.britannica.com/place/Ukraine/The-Nazi-occupation-of-Soviet-Ukraine
[733] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ukrainian_Soviet_Socialist_Republic

This event marked a significant historical development, establishing a distinct ethnic and political Polish-Ukrainian border, for the first time in centuries. [734]

08/24/1991 End Part of Other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: On this date the independence of the former Ukrainian Soviet Socialist Republic from the Soviet Union was declared. The Ukraine's declaration of independence came in direct response to the coup attempt on 08/19/1991 when conservative Communist leaders sought to restore central Communist party control over the USSR. "The proclamation was succeeded by a proposition for a national referendum, jointly announced by majority leader Oleksandr Moroz and opposition leader Ihor Yukhnovsky. The referendum garnered widespread support, achieving an overwhelming victory with 90% of the votes cast (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 65).

12/01/1991 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Semidemocracy: On this date Leonid Kravchuk was elected in direct presidential elections (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 66).[735] The 1994 election led to a victory for former minister Leonid Kuchma over President Leonid Kravchuk (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016:66). Presidential elections in 2004 were won by Kuchma's chosen successor, Viktor Yanukovych. He defeated Viktor Yushchenko in the second-round run-off. But observers claimed the election failed to meet democratic standards and in Kyiv widespread protests came to be known as the 'Orange Revolution'. After the poll was declared invalid, Yushchenko was elected president in a repeat of the run-off. In February 2010 Yanukovych was elected president, defeating Yuliya Tymoshenko, a figurehead of the 2004 protests. Tymoshenko alleged fraud and initially refused to resign the premiership as requested by Yanukovych in order for him to install a new government. However, international observers characterized the poll as generally fair (Lansford 2021). Tymoshenko was imprisoned in October 2011 for alleged abuse of power in relation to a 2009 gas deal with Russia.[736] In April 2013 the European Court of Human Rights declared her arrest and detention unlawful (Macmillan 2022e). Unsuccessful attempts to implement judicial reforms and intensified assaults on anti-corruption bodies from 2019 to 2020 reached a climax with a constitutional crisis in late 2020. While there were alternations in power, the quality of democracy was overall low. Freedom House classifies Ukraine as partly free and the Varieties of Democracy Institute as an electoral autocracy. However, most other data sets classify Ukraine as being a democracy in this period. According to this dataset Ukraine constitutes a semidemocracy. Since Russia's invasion of Ukraine in

[734] https://www.britannica.com/place/Ukraine/The-Nazi-occupation-of-Soviet-Ukraine
[735] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Ukraine_2019?lang=en
[736] https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/UKR

February 2022, Ukraine has faced significant challenges that have impacted its political landscape. The conflict has led to a state of war, dramatically altering the daily lives of Ukrainians and placing immense pressure on the country's institutions and governance. Despite these challenges, Ukraine has continued its efforts to maintain democratic processes and resist authoritarian influences. The resilience of Ukraine's democratic institutions during this period is notable, as the country has held onto its semi-democratic status despite the ongoing war and external pressures.
Semidemocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Åslund/McFaul 2006, Beichelt 2004, Gilka-Bötzow 2007, Kubicek 1994, Prizel 1997, Way 2005)

United Arab Emirates

01/01/1900 Absolute Monarchy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 01/08/1820]: Todays territory of the United Arab Emirates became a British Protectorate in 1820 with the signing of the General Maritime Treaty on 01/08/1820.[737] Prior to 1971, the Trucial Sheikdoms of Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Sharja, Ajman, Umm al-Qaiwain, Fujairah, and Ras al-Khaimah were separately under a British protectorate.[738]
12/02/1971 Continuation Absolute Monarchy [as independent country]: On this date the protectorate of the United Kingdome ended. The United Arab Emirates (UAE) came into existence through the unification of multiple sheikdoms along the Gulf. The Supreme Council of the Union, comprising the hereditary rulers of the original six emirates (now expanded to seven), selects the president and vice president from among its members. It is the highest legislative authority in the country and receives guidance from the 40-member Federal National Council, which has the authority to assess proposed laws and interrogate government ministers. In the individual emirates, there are no elected legislative bodies.[739] The chosen president assumes the roles of head of state, chair of the Supreme Council of the Union, and commander of the military (Hoogland/Toth 1993, Smythe 1993, Lansford 2012d, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 104).[740] The president appoints a prime minister and a cabinet. The UAE is a federation consisting of seven emirates, with Abu Dhabi leading in practice due to its size and wealth from natural

[737] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Arab_Emirates#History
[738] https://history.state.gov/countries/united-arab-emirates
[739] https://freedomhouse.org/country/united-arab-emirates/freedom-world/2023
[740] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/United_Arab_Emirates_2009?lang=en

resources. Since 1971 the emirate of Abu Dhabi has maintained control over the presidency of the federation. Similarly, the emirate of Dubai holds authority over the position of prime minister. Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid al-Maktoum has been the ruler of Dubai and concurrently served as the prime minister and vice president of the UAE since 2006.[741] The allocation of positions in the federal government reflects the varying levels of prestige and financial influence of each emirate.[742] While there are limited elections for a federal advisory body, political parties are prohibited, and ultimate authority in executive, legislative, and judicial matters resides with the hereditary rulers of the seven emirates. Both citizens and noncitizens, who constitute the majority of the population, face significant restrictions on their civil liberties. In 2023 around 90 percent of the UAE's population are noncitizens who do not have political rights or chances to vote, including many stateless individuals. Even though women make up about 50 percent of the electoral body of the Federal National Council and the authorities appointed 13 women in 2019 in accordance with a commitment to guarantee equal representation in the 40-member body, ordinary women have few chances to independently organize and promote their interests within the political system. Non-governmental organizations face numerous restrictions and are required to register with the Ministry of Social Affairs. International human rights organizations have been refused entry to the UAE and local human rights activists face significant threats of arrest and mistreatment while in custody. The judiciary lacks independence, as court decisions are subject to review by the political leadership.[743] The UAE extensively uses advanced surveillance technologies to monitor public spaces, internet activities, and more, violating individual rights to privacy and freedom of expression.[744] In 2006 a limited suffrage was introduced for both men and women. A hand-picked 12% of Emirati citizens have the right to vote for half the members of the Federal National Council, an advisory quasi-parliamentary body. The UAE is an authoritarian state.[745] The Federal National Council comprised 40 members, with 20 elected and 20 appointed by the rulers of each Emirate. Since the size of the electorate is very small, half of the members of the Federal National Council are appointed, and the parliament is no real counterweight to the ruling monarchs the United Arab Emirates are still classified as a ruling absolute monarchy. The political regime ensures that the hereditary rulers of the emirates

[741] https://freedomhouse.org/country/united-arab-emirates/freedom-world/2023
[742] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_Arab_Emirates
[743] https://freedomhouse.org/country/united-arab-emirates/freedom-world/2023
[744] https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2023/country-chapters/united-arab-emirates
[745] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37

hold a monopoly on power, effectively ruling out the possibility of a change in government through elections.[746]
Absolute monarchy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Herb 1999, Herb 2003, Herb 2004)

United Kingdom

[In this case we use the name the country is commonly referred to. This is so because the official title and hence the historical name of the country changed over time. Until 1918 it was officially the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and from then on the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.[747]]

01/01/1900 (Monarchical) Electoral Oligarchy [Start: 01/01/1801]: The United Kingdom, as known today, was created in 1707 with the Acts of Union that united the Kingdom of England (including Wales) and the Kingdom of Scotland. This unification resulted in forming of a single legislative body, the Parliament of Great Britain.[748] Nonetheless, certain elements remained separate, such as Scottish and English law and the education systems of both countries.[749] The removal of voting rights based on religion occurred with the Roman Catholic Relief Act 1791 in the Kingdom of Great Britain and the Kingdom of Ireland. Since then the right to vote has never been based on race or religion.[750] On 01/01/1801, Great Britain and Ireland united to form the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and created a legislative Union, the Parliament of the United Kingdom, through the Act of Union 1800.[751] Until the late eighteenth century, ministers served as advisors to the sovereign, whose decision they were obliged to follow. However, the enactment of the Catholic Emancipation in 1829 market the decline of the sovereign's independent political power. The Reform Act of 1832 significantly impacted constitutional monarchy, expanding the franchise, giving rise to the modern party system, and effectively reducing the sovereign's influence in general elections. In 1868, prime minister Disraeli resigned without seeking parliament's audience, recognizing that public opinion, rather

[746] https://freedomhouse.org/country/united-arab-emirates/freedom-world/2023
[747] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_Kingdom
[748] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Acts_of_Union_1707
[749] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_the_United_Kingdom
[750] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Roman_Catholic_Relief_Act_1791
[751] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_the_United_Kingdom

than the House of Commons, held the power to form and dissolve governments. This resolved the long-standing conflict between the sovereign and parliament: It became evident that a government, even with the backing of the House of Commons, needed to gain the support of the voters. The sovereign could no longer sway voters to elect their preferred choice as prime minister (Bogdanor 1996: 27). After Queen Victoria's passing in 1901, no sovereign was able to veto a minister's appointment. As a result, the monarchy assumed the role of a politically neutral mediator between parties, as demonstrated by George V in 1914 regarding Irish Home Rule and in 1915 regarding conscription (Bogdanor 1996). Up until 1918 there was no universal male suffrage. Voting rights were linked to property.[752] We code the regime in this period as an electoral oligarchy rather than a constitutional monarchy since the sovereign lacked significant political power and was not in a position to appoint the prime minister to rule on their behalf. Instead, the prime minister was chosen through parliamentary elections, albeit with limited suffrage, and ceremonially accepted by the monarch.

12/14/1918 End (Monarchical) Electoral Oligarchy/Start (Monarchical) Semidemocracy: All adult men in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland were enfranchised by the Representation of the People Act 1918.[753] This Act granted women over 30 the right to vote in national elections, but about 60% of women (those under 30 or not meeting property qualifications) were excluded until the Equal Franchise Act 1928, when all women were granted the vote on the same terms as men in the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. After the 1918 general elections, the Irish party Sinn Féin won most Irish seats in the parliament but refused to take them. Instead, they formed the First Dáil parliament in Dublin and ratified a declaration of independence on 01/21/1919. Subsequently, the Anglo-Irish war was fought between the Crown forces and the Irish Republic Army. The conflict concluded with the signing of the Anglo-Irish Treaty on 12/06/1921, establishing the Irish Free State. Consequently, six counties in the north formed Northern Ireland and remained part of the United Kingdom. In 1927, Britain officially adopted the name "United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland" through the Royal and Parliamentary Titles Act 1927.[754]

05/30/1929 End (Monarchical) Semidemocracy/Start (Monarchical) Democracy: In the parliamentary election on this date (referred to as the "Flapper Election"), for the first time, women aged 21 to 29 had the right to vote, owing to the Representation of the People Act 1928, adopted on 07/02/1928.[755] However, only the Representation of the People Act 1948 removed

[752] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Representation_of_the_People_Act_1918
[753] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Representation_of_the_People_Act_1918
[754] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_the_United_Kingdom
[755] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1929_United_Kingdom_general_election

plural voting rights held by about 7% of the electorate. Hence, between 1918 and 1928 there were still severe deficits regarding equal participation in the United Kingdom. The Representation of the People Act 1969 reduced the voting age from 21 to 18. In the 1960s, Northern Ireland's unionist prime minister, Terence O'Neill, attempted reforms to grant Catholics a greater political voice. On 10/05/1968, a march organized by the Northern Ireland Civil Rights Association (NICRA) in Derry sparked the onset of the Northern Ireland Conflict, also known as "The Troubles". This period saw escalating violence between nationalists (predominantly Catholic republicans) seeking Irish reunification and unionist (mostly Protestant loyalists) desiring to remain part of the United Kingdom. Consequently, British authorities suspended Northern Ireland's parliament and implemented direct rule. In the 1990s, the Irish Republican Army's failure to gain widespread public support or achieve their goal of British withdrawal led to negotiations that resulted in the signing of the Good Friday Agreement (Belfast Agreement) on 04/10/1998, establishing a power-sharing arrangement within the Northern Ireland Assembly.[756] The holding of referendums in Scotland and Wales on 09/11/1997 and 09/18/1997, respectively, resulted in the passage of the Scotland Act 1998 and the Government of Wales Act 1998, establishing the devolved Scottish Parliament and the National Assembly for Wales in 1999.[757] Within the UK's system of devolution, Parliament has delegated varying levels of legislative authority to the Northern Ireland Assembly, the Welsh Assembly, and the Scottish Parliament, thereby enhancing the political representation of regional populations.[758] As of 2019, 529,902 British nationals (257,646 people in Crown Dependencies and 272,256 people in British Overseas Territories) are represented in local legislatures in their territories but not in the House of Commons unless they are residents in the United Kingdom.[759] The political system of the United Kingdom is a multi-party system in which elections are held regularly. The parliament is bicameral, consisting of the House of Commons and the House of Lords. The members of the House of Commons are directly elected to serve five-year terms. The ceremonial head of state is the monarch. Although the government upholds strong safeguards for political rights and civil liberties, there have been growing concerns regarding government surveillance of residents, as well as an increase in Islamophobia.[760] On 07/04/2024, general elections were held, marking the

[756] https://www.britannica.com/event/The-Troubles-Northern-Ireland-history
[757] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1997_Welsh_devolution_referendum
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Scottish_devolution
[758] https://freedomhouse.org/country/united-kingdom/freedom-world/2022
[759] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[760] https://freedomhouse.org/country/united-kingdom/freedom-world/2023

Labour Party's first victory in a general election since 2005 and ending the Conservative Party's fourteen-year tenure as the main governing party.[761]
(Monarchical) Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Bagehot 1867, Fröhlich 1997, Garrard 2000, Jennings 1966, Kaiser 2002, McKibbin 2007, Rose/Munro 2010, Sturm 2009)

United States of America

01/01/1900 Electoral Oligarchy [Start: 07/04/1776]: On 07/04/1776 independence from Great Britain was declared and on 09/03/1783 Great Britain recognized the independence.[762] Initially, most states allowed only white male adult property owners to vote, representing about 6% of the population. This period, therefore, cannot be considered fully democratic. The perception that the democratic regime started on 04/07/1776, as posited by MCM, is contentious, especially considering the minimal criteria for a democracy. The introduction of male suffrage at the national level in 1856 was a significant step, but it occurred in the shadow of prevalent slavery. The passage of the 13th Amendment by Congress on 01/31/1865, and its ratification on 12/06/866, abolishing slavery, was a pivotal moment in American history. However, the reality of social and political equality was far from being achieved. The 15th Amendment, ratified in 1870, granted suffrage to males regardless of skin color or ethnicity, including former slaves.[763] The constitutional amendment provided explicit protection for the voting rights of black people in both the North and the South. However, more robust versions of the amendment, advocated by Radical Republicans and black people, which aimed to prohibit states from imposing nativity, property, or literacy tests, and grant the federal government complete control over rights, were rejected due to concerns about their ratification (Davidson 1992). Therefore, African Americans faced systemic barriers to voting, particularly in the Southern states, through mechanisms like poll taxes, literacy tests, and other discriminatory practices.[764] As a result in 1906, only two percent of Alabama´s black population were registered, whereas 83 percent of white Alabamians were registered. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), founded in 1910, took the lead role in legal actions against discriminatory procedures (Davidson

[761] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2024_United_Kingdom_general_election
[762] https://www.systemicpeace.org/polity/P5UnitedStates2020.pdf;
https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/United_States_of_America_1992?lang=en
[763] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_the_United_States_(1865%E2%80%931917)
[764] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_the_United_States_(1865%E2%80%931917)

1992). Overall, in the period 1900-1920 between 18.4 and 15.8 percentage of the overall population participated in the elections (Vanhanen 2019). Therefore, we classify the regime in this period as an electoral oligarchy. While the percentage is slightly above our criteria of 15 percent for a semidemocracy the systemic character of discrimination of black people in the South resembling regulations of the Apartheid-regime in South Africa justifies in our view the classification as an electoral oligarchy. However, in a strict sense in this period the Northern States would be classified as semidemocratic, while the Southern States were (electoral) civilian oligarchies.

11/02/1920 End Electoral Oligarchy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date, with the first presidential elections allowing female suffrage, the United States transitioned from an electoral oligarchy to a semidemocracy.[765] This change followed the ratification of the 19th Amendment on 08/18/1920, which granted women the right to vote, a significant step towards gender equality in voting rights. Despite this progress, full voting rights for African Americans were not effectively established until the Voting Rights Act of 1965, signed into law on 08/06/1965 (Yang/Gaines 2008).[766] Throughout the 20th century, segregation and racial discrimination, particularly in the Southern states, continued to pose significant challenges to American democracy. The enforcement of Jim Crow laws institutionalized racial segregation, undermining democratic ideals.[767] In Texas for example black people were kept from party membership. Therefore, being white was necessary to take part in the Democratic primary. This was only overturned by the Supreme Court in Smith v. Allwright in 1944. In 1940 black voters in the South stood at only three percent of voting-age blacks. In 1957 the percentage had increased to 25 of voting-age blacks. Among whites, however, it was 60%. Besides poll tax, the most effective barrier to keep blacks from voting was literacy tests. In 1944 literacy tests were operative in all Southern States except from Arkansas and Texas (Davidson 1992).[768] Even if it had been administered fairly, the system would have still marginalized many black individuals due to disparities in education. However, white registrars often exercised arbitrary judgment in administering the test, allowing illiterate whites to vote while excluding literate blacks.(Davidson 1992). Although the number of registered blacks had doubled between 1952 and 1964 (up to 43.3 percentage), in Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and South Carolina the average black registration was only at 22.5 percent of voting-age blacks. In Mississippi it stood only at 6.7 percentage (Davidson 1992). Robert A. Dahl notes that the United States of America was less inclusive than

[765] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1920_United_States_presidential_election
[766] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[767] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_the_United_States_(1865%E2%80%931917)
[768] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Smith_v._Allwright

all other polyarchies, with the exception of Switzerland, despite the introduction of universal male and female suffrage. For in no other polyarchy was a group of comparable size excluded. "It would not be entirely unreasonable to define polyarchy as requiring a degree of inclusiveness greater than that met by the United States, in which case this country would have to be classified as near polyarchy" (Dahl 1971: 29). Therefore, the United States of America still do not fulfill the requirements to be classified as full democracy even though de jure universal male and female suffrage had been granted. Like in the previous period, in a strict sense the Northern States and the Southern states would have to be classified differently. The former as democratic and the latter as semidemocratic. However, it must also be noted that the repressive system of the Southern states was also supported by an agreement with the most important political class in the North not to interfere in the affairs of the Southern states (Dahl 1971: 93-94). Overall, the de facto restrictions on the black population were so severe until 1965 that we classify the period as semidemocracy.

08/06/1965 End Semidemocracy/Start Democracy: On this date the Voting Rights Act of 1965, was signed into law.[769] This act was designed to overcome legal barriers at state and local levels that prevented African Americans from exercising their right to vote as guaranteed under the 15th Amendment and therefore marks the transition from a semidemocracy to a full democracy.[770] Entering the 21st century, the American democratic system faced new challenges. The 2000 presidential election raised concerns about election integrity and judicial involvement in electoral processes. These issues highlighted the complexities and vulnerabilities in the U.S. electoral system.[771] The presidency of Donald Trump from 2017 to 2021 brought additional challenges to democratic norms in the U.S., including claims of foreign interference in the 2016 election and unprecedented challenges to the electoral process. On 01/06/2021, supporters of then-U.S. President Donald Trump stormed the United States Capitol in an attempt to prevent the certification of President-elect Joe Biden's victory. Despite their efforts, the attack did not succeed in overturning the election results. An investigation by a bipartisan House select committee determined that the incident was part of a larger plan by Trump to overturn the election.[772] These events underscored vulnerabilities in the American democratic system, igniting debates about electoral integrity, media influence, and the role of political institutions. While there are strong safeguards for civil liberties and a robust system of checks and balances in the

[769] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[770] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States
[771] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States
[772] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/January_6_United_States_Capitol_attack

U.S., there is a growing concern with regards to political extremism and the erosion of democratic institutions.[773]
Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Lindner/Schultze 2005, Rodgers/Harrington 1985, Woll/Binstock 1984)

U.S. Virgin Islands

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of Denmark, Constitutional Monarchy]: Denmark-Norway showed interest in the islands, and in 1672, the Danish West India Company established settlements on St. Thomas, followed by St. John in 1694. Subsequently, in 1733, they acquired St. Croix from France. These islands were officially designated as royal Danish colonies in 1754 and collectively named the Danish West Indian Islands. The United States developed an interest in the islands, and in 1867, there was an agreed treaty to sell St. Thomas and St. John to the U.S., although it was never implemented. The outbreak of World War I marked the end of the reform period and once more left the islands in isolation. Concerned about the possibility of the islands being seized by Germany as a submarine base during the submarine warfare phases of the war, the United States once again approached Denmark to discuss the potential purchase of the islands. On 08/04/1916, the Treaty of the Danish West Indies was signed, and a referendum on the sale took place in Denmark in December 1916, gaining approval from voters. The formalization of the agreement occurred on 01/17/1917, as the United States and Denmark exchanged their respective treaty ratifications.[774]
03/31/1917 End Colonial Regime [of Denmark, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Colonial Regime [of USA, (Male) Semidemocracy]: On this date, the United States assumed control of the islands, leading to the renaming of the territory as the Virgin Islands of the United States.[775]
02/25/1927 End Colonial Regime [of USA, Democracy]/Start (de facto) Colonial Regime [of USA, Democracy]: In 1927, the Virgin Islands formally attained the status of an unincorporated U.S. territory.[776] The U.S. Navy managed the islands until 1931, at which point control was transferred to the Department of the Interior. Subsequently, civilian governors, appointed by the

[773] https://freedomhouse.org/country/united-states/freedom-world/2024
[774] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_Virgin_Islands#Danish_period
[775] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_Virgin_Islands#American_period
[776] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_the_United_States_Virgin_Islands#American_period,_1917%E2%80%93present; https://fam.state.gov/FAM/08FAM/08FAM030808.html

president, oversaw the administration of the islands.[777] Many residents of the islands were conferred U.S. citizenship in 1927 and 1932. The establishment of the local government was formalized through the 1936 Organic Act and the 1954 Revised Organic Act.[778]

08/23/1968 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [of USA, Democracy]/Start Democracy [as (de facto) protectorate of USA, Democracy] In 1968 the Elective Governor Acts were enacted. These acts established the transition from the appointed selection to the popular election of the Governors of the U.S. Virgin Islands and Guam, marking a departure from the previous appointment process.[779] Residents of the Virgin Islands hold U.S. citizenship, yet the territory lacks electoral votes for the presidential or vice-presidential elections. Despite being unable to elect voting members of Congress, the U.S. House of Representatives includes a delegate representing them. While this delegate can vote in congressional committees, they do not have voting privileges in the House itself.[780] Although lacking these democratic rights, the democratically elected legislators of the US Vrigin Islands have the same legislative powers as any US state legislators.[781] We therefore classify the US Virgin Islands as a democracy and de facto protectorate of the USA.

Democracy [as (de facto) protectorate of USA, Democracy] as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Uruguay

01/01/1900 Electoral Oligarchy [Start: 07/18/1830]: Uruguay's Independence from the Empire of Brazil was declared on 08/05/1825 and Uruguay joined a union with the United Provinces of the Río de la Plata (current Argentina). The Treaty of Montevideo was signed on 08/27/1828, recognizing Uruguay's independence by Brazil. On 07/18/1830 the Constitution of 1830 was approved.[782] On 07/19/1870, Uruguay's independence was recognized by Spain. On 11/26/1901, parliamentary elections were held. Suffrage was limited to literate men. Voting was not secret, as voters had to sign their ballot paper.[783] In 1903 Batlle y Ordóñez won the presidency by a slim margin, sparking tensions with the opposing Blanco Party and triggering a civil war in 1904. Following the conflict, Batlle y Ordóñez and his supporters emerged triumphant in 1905, securing the Colorado Party's uncontested authority. In 1905, he conducted fair presidential and

[777] https://www.britannica.com/place/United-States-Virgin-Islands/Government-and-society#ref7726
[778] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/United_States_Virgin_Islands#American_period
[779] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elective_Governor_Acts_of_1968
[780] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_United_States_Virgin_Islands
[781] https://www.britannica.com/place/United-States-Virgin-Islands/Government-and-society
[782] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Uruguay
[783] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1901_Uruguayan_parliamentary_election

legislative elections, which he and his party secured. Upon completing his term in 1907, he willingly relinquished the presidency, although he remained involved in selecting his party's next presidential nominee.[784] The parliamentary elections on 11/09/1910 were the first after introducing the "double simultaneous vote" or "Lema Law", whereby all representative organs (president, chamber of deputies, senate) were elected with one single ballot and vote. This electoral system made it difficult for new parties to attain lema (or party) status and promoted the vote for the Colorados and Blancos, the two traditional parties in Uruguay (Nohlen 2005).

11/27/1919 End Electoral Oligarchy/Start (Male) Semidemocracy: On this date, the first parliamentary elections with universal male suffrage took place after male suffrage was introduced with the 1918 Uruguayan Constitution. In the same year, the financial requirements for candidacy for the president, the senate, or the chamber of representatives were abolished (Nohlen 2005). On 12/16/1932, female suffrage was introduced.[785] Gabriel Terra had been elected president in 1930, a position that did not offer much authority. Executive power rested with the nine person Consejo Nacional de Administracion, CNA). However, the 1934 general election was cancelled due to Gabriel Terra's autogolpe.[786]

03/31/1933 End (Male) Semidemocracy/Start Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy: On this day, Terra orchestrated an autogolpe with the backing of the National Police, under the leadership of Baldomir Ferrari, and the Armed Forces, leading to the dissolution of the CNA. Terra's regime implemented press censorship and cracked down on opposition factions (Casey et al. 2020: 17, Finch 1991: 197-99).[787] On 04/19/1934, the third constitution of Uruguay was adopted in a referendum, which abolished the colegiado (nine-member executive), reinstated a presidential system, and introduced universal adult suffrage. In the same year, the Electoral Court gained constitutional status (Nohlen 2005).

06/19/1938 End Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: On 06/19/1938, "Terra lost an election in 1938 and stepped down" (Casey et al. 2020: 17, Finch 1991: 200). This was the first election in which women participated. Terras brother-in-law, General Alfredo Baldomir, was elected to the presidency in these general elections until 03/01/1943.[788] Pressured by opposition, organized labor and National Party, Baldomir advocated free elections, freedom of the press, and a new constitution.[789] On 11/29/1942 Baldomir dissolved the General Assembly

[784] https://www.britannica.com/biography/Jose-Batlle-y-Ordonez
[785] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Universal_suffrage#cite_note-centralasiainstitute.org-37
[786] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage_in_Uruguay
[787] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gabriel_Terra
[788] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alfredo_Baldomir
[789] https://countrystudies.us/uruguay/15.htm

and established the Council of State (Consejo de Estado), consisting of Batllists and other members of the Colorado Party.[790] The new constitution of 1942 made it possible for political parties to act freely.[791] This regime period is classified as semidemocracy as it marks the end of the autocratic Terra Era and is characterized by enhancements in the guarantee of democratic principles.

11/29/1942 End Semidemocracy/Start Democracy: The general elections in 1942 saw Amézaga from the Colorado Party emerge as winner. He became president on 03/01/1943.[792] He restored civil liberties and promoted economic development and the welfare state.[793] The slogan "There´s no place like Uruguay" is characteristic for this period.[794] In 1946 general elections took place. Tomás Berreta was elected and took office on 03/01/1947.[795] After his death in August 1947 his vice president Luis Battle Berres took office.[796] The constitution of 1952 promulgated a system of collective presidency, called National Council of Government.[797] It remained in place until 1966, when a new constitution reinstated the presidential system.[798] The National Council of Government (Spanish: Consejo Nacional de Gobierno) was the ruling body in Uruguay between 1952 and 1967. It consisted of nine members, of which six were from the party that received the most votes in general elections, and three from the runner-up party.[799] However, due to its poor performance the body was abolished through a referendum on 11/27/1966 and Diego Gestido elected president. On 02/15/1967, the presidential system was reestablished through the adoption of a new constitution.[800]

12/06/1967 End Democracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, Vice President Jorge Pacheco Areco succeeded President Diego Gestido, who had passed away six months after taking office. Pacheco implemented repressive measures, including banning the Socialist Party, suppressing leftist organizations, and cracking down on labor unions. His repressive politics and high inflation contributed to the emergence of the left-wing Tupamamros guerrilla group, initiating armed resistance against the political system in Uruguay (Nohlen 2005). Consequently, Pacheco declared a state of emergency on 06/13/1968, and the armed forces created the Joint

[790] https://countrystudies.us/uruguay/15.htm
[791] https://www.britannica.com/place/Uruguay/The-struggle-for-national-identity
[792] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1942_Uruguayan_general_election
[793] https://countrystudies.us/uruguay/16.htm
[794] https://countrystudies.us/uruguay/16.htm
[795] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1946_Uruguayan_general_election
[796] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tom%C3%A1s_Berreta
[797] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitution_of_Uruguay_of_1952;
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Council_of_Government_(Uruguay)
[798] https://www.britannica.com/place/Uruguay/The-military-regime
[799] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1954_Uruguayan_general_election
[800] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Council_of_Government_(Uruguay)

Chiefs of Staff (Junta de Comandantes en Jefe y el Estado Mayor Conjunto), who were granted complete independence from the Ministry of Defense.[801] On 11/28/1971, Juan María Bordaberry Arocena as elected constitutional president.[802] He began his presidency while institutional crisis occurred caused by authoritarian figures and terrorist threats.[803] Bordaberry augmented the authority structures established by his predecessor, implementing measures such as the suspension of civil liberties, the prohibition of labor unions, and the detention and elimination of opposition figures.[804] On 04/15/1972, the legislative body consented to proclaiming a "state of internal war" in reaction to the Tupamaro guerrillas. This declaration curtailed civil liberties, permitted civilians to be judged in military tribunals, and authorized the military to establish detention facilities for individuals charged with political offenses.(Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 104)

06/27/1973 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: Upset over the appointment of a civilian defense minister, the investigation of claims of torture against military officers of the legislature, and the course of the war against the leftist insurgency the armed forces threatened a coup. In February 1973, succumbing to military pressure, the elected president acquiesced to establishing a National Security Council (Cosena). This council comprised the commanders of the three military branches, an extra officer, and the Ministers of Defense, Interior, Economy, and Foreign Affairs, along with the president. Its role was to provide advice on policy, essentially formalizing the informal veto power held by the military (GWF Codebook: 104-105). On 06/27/1973, President Juan María Bordaberry launched with the military a coup against the other civilian power entities including the legislature and the Constitution itself. He ruled by decree and by the military-based National Security Council advisory board. The coup was legitimized by the official explanation that it was necessary to crush a Marxist guerrilla group (Tupamaros) (Kaufman 1979: 113-15, Weinstein 1988: 44-50, Jacob/Weinstein 1992, Arceneaux 2001: 185-88). Real power was held by the Junta de Oficiales Generales, made up 18-28 top officers from the three services, which "dominated critical military and government policy decisions" and the Junta de Comandantes en Jefe, the junta of service commanders (Arceneaux 2001: 190, Weinstein 1988: 50, Gillespie 1984: 99). On 06/12/1976 Bordaberry, who wanted to reform the government into a corporatist system, was dismissed by the military. On 11/30/1980, the military government held a constitutional referendum to legitimize its power, which was rejected by the population. In 1982, the military government allowed the Colorados, the Blancos, and the Unión

[801] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Civic-military_dictatorship_of_Uruguay
[802] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Juan_Mar%C3%ADa_Bordaberry
[803] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Juan_Mar%C3%ADa_Bordaberry
[804] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Juan_Mar%C3%ADa_Bordaberry

Cívica to choose new leaders through primary elections. The result confirmed the decline in the military's support and the strengthening of opposition forces within the traditional parties (Nohlen 2005).

11/25/1984 End Military Autocracy/Start Democracy: In 1984, the military entered formal negotiations with a coalition of center and left parties, resulting in an agreement to hold competitive elections and return power to civilian government (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 67). Free and fair general elections on 11/25/1984 led to a democratically elected government . Uruguay is, for instance, by the Economist Intelligence Unit rated as a "full democracy" in 2019. Uruguay operates as a presidential democracy with a bicameral legislature. The political landscape is characterized by a multiparty system.[805] Uruguay possesses a robust historical framework for democratic governance and has consistently demonstrated a commitment to preserving political freedoms and civil liberties while actively promoting social inclusivity. Despite legal equality for all citizens, discrepancies persist in the treatment and political representation of women and the Indigenous community.[806] On 10/27/2019 general elections took place to elect the President and the General Assembly. Following an absence of a majority winner in the initial voting round, a runoff election was conducted on 11/24/2019. The final vote counts confirmed Lacalle Pou (National Party) as the victor over Martinez (Broad Front). The elections represented the Broad Front's initial defeat in a presidential election since 1999.[807] Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Fitzgibbon 1948, Collier/Collier 2002, Finch 1989, Fitzgibbon 1954, Gillespie/González 1999, González/Gillespie 1994, Taylor 1951, Taylor 1952, Taylor 1984, Wagner 2006, Weinstein 1975, Weinstein 1993)

Uzbekistan

01/01/1900 Part of other Country [Russia, Absolute Monarchy] [Start: 06/15/1865]: Tashkent was conquered in 1865 and fell under the control of the Russian Empire.[808] With the annexation of Kokand in 1876, all of present-day Uzbekistan became part of the Russian Empire.[809] At the

805 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Uruguay#:~:text=The%20politics%20of%20Uruguay%20abide,as%20a%20multiform%20party%20system

806 https://freedomhouse.org/country/uruguay/freedom-world/2023

807 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2019_Uruguayan_general_election

808 https://www.britannica.com/place/Tashkent

809 https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Uzbekistan

beginning of the twentieth century, the Russian Empire exerted full dominion over Central Asia. The region of Uzbekistan was partitioned into three distinct political entities: the khanates of Bukhara and Khiva, and the Governorate General (Guberniya) of Turkestan, with the latter being directly governed by the Russian Ministry of War.[810]

11/07/1917 End Part of other Country [Russia, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Part of other Country [Russia, Communist Ideocracy]: On this date the Russian Soviet Republic was proclaimed.[811] The Russian Revolution of 1917 created instability and conflict in Turkistan. In response, Muslims held a National Congress in Kokand and formed an autonomous government led by Mustafa Chokayev. However, in February 1918, Red Army forces from Tashkent dissolved the government, leading to the Basmachi (Qorbashi) Revolt.[812] On 10/08/1920 the Bukharan People's Soviet Republic was proclaimed on, the territory of which was mostly in Uzbekistan with parts in Tajikistan and Turkmenistan. Also the Turkestan ASSR, an autonomous republic of the RFSR included territories of present-day Uzbekistan (Fedorenko 2015: 3).[813]

12/28/1922 End Part of other Country [RSFSR, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Part of other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]: With the establishment of the USSR, Uzbekistan became a part of the Soviet Union.[814] On 10/27/1924 the Uzbek Soviet Socialist Republic was created, which included present-day Tajikistan and Uzbekistan (Fedorenko 2015: 3).[815] In 1929, the Tajik and Uzbek Soviet socialist republics underwent a division, becoming distinct entities.[816] Uzbekistan was governed by the Uzbek branch of the Soviet Communist Party. Universal suffrage was introduced in 1938.[817]

06/20/1990 End Part of Other Country [USSR, Communist Ideocracy]/Start Electoral Autocracy: The Uzbek SSR adopted the Declaration of State Sovereignty within its borders and therefore was a sovereign part of the USSR with its own legislation from 1990-1991, under the control of Karimov, the communist leader during Soviet rule .[818] Despite the 1992 constitution's acknowledgment of multiparty democracy, Uzbekistan functioned as a de facto one-party system.[819] Opposition parties like the nationalist Unity (Birlik) movement and the more moderate Erk faced continuous persecution, eventually being banned outright. There is a notable absence

[810] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Uzbekistan#Entering_the_twentieth_century
[811] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Russian_Soviet_Federative_Socialist_Republic
[812] https://www.britannica.com/place/Uzbekistan/Russian-and-Soviet-rule
[813] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Turkestan_Autonomous_Soviet_Socialist_Republic
[814] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Soviet_Union#Treaty_on_the_Creation_of_the_USSR
[815] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Uzbekistan#History
[816] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Uzbekistan#The_Stalinist_period
[817] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[818] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Uzbek_Soviet_Socialist_Republic
[819] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Uzbekistan_2011?lang=en

of genuine organized political opposition, and none of the parties can be seen as actively opposing the president. In fact, all five registered parties express support for the president's policies and, as a whole, do not present alternative plans or actions distinct from his agenda (OSCE 2019). Simultaneously, the government promoted the creation of new parties aligned with its policies. It's worth noting that all pro-government parties and organizations mentioned were established with the president's explicit approval (Lansford 2021). Following President Karimov's demise, the parliament appointed Mirziyoyev as the acting president of Uzbekistan on 09/08/2016. In the – non-competitive – he secured a full five-year term as president representing the Uzbekistan Liberal Democratic Party (O'zLiDeP).[820] Uzbekistan has seen some reforms under the leadership of Mirziyoyev. These reforms include easing some restrictions on media and political expression, improving relations with neighboring countries, and making the political environment slightly more open. Despite these changes, the political landscape remains heavily skewed in favor of the ruling party, with limited space for opposition. The Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) election observation mission found the 2021 presidential elections to be neither fair nor free, noting a lack of meaningful engagement among candidates and an absence of transparent electoral procedures.[821] In June 2022 a flurry of constitutional amendments were released to the public which would allow president Mirziyoyev to run an additional two terms, which would be extended to 7 years, and give him a way to circumvent the term-limit all together.[822] Mass protests against these reforms were met with repression and violence, with nearly two civilians killed. The amendments were passed in a heavily marred referendum in 2023 with an alleged 90.2% positive vote. In May 2023 president Mirziyoyev called for snap elections under the new constitution, in which he was re-elected with reported 87% of the vote, in a non-competitive, free, or fair election.[823]
Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Grotz 2001b)

Vanuatu

01/01/1900 (de facto) Colonial Regime [as joint Protectorate of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy and France, Semidemocracy] [Start: 10/16/1887]: Vanuatu was ruled by a joined

[820] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Shavkat_Mirziyoyev
[821] https://freedomhouse.org/country/uzbekistan/freedom-world/2022
[822] https://freedomhouse.org/country/uzbekistan/freedom-world/2023
[823] https://freedomhouse.org/country/uzbekistan/freedom-world/2024

Anglo-French naval commission since 10/16/1887.[824] In 1878, a 'mutual exclusiveness' policy led to an 1887 British-French naval commission. The 1906 Convention introduced the Condominium ('The Pandemonium'), revised in 1914, granting equal residency, protection, and trade rights to British and French nationals until independence (Corrin 1985). In 1975 Universal suffrage was introduced.[825]

07/30/1980 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy and France, Democracy]/Start Democracy [as independent country]: On this date Vanuatu achieved its planned independence, under the leadership of Prime Minister Walter Lini.[826] As part of the transition, the Resident Commissioners were replaced by a ceremonial President. Following the withdrawal of Anglo-French forces in August, Lini requested assistance from troops in Papua New Guinea to address the Vemarana separatists led by Jimmy Stevens, which led to a brief conflict known as the 'Coconut War.' The Papua New Guinea forces swiftly suppressed the Vemarana uprising, and Stevens surrendered on 09/01, resulting in his subsequent imprisonment. Lini continued to serve as Prime Minister until 1991, leading a government predominantly composed of English-speaking individuals and winning both the 1983 and 1987 elections.[827] Between 1983 and 1984 there were significant restrictions to the freedom of press, with most of the media being state owned and critical newspaper being shut down (Gastil 1984: 448, Gastil 1989: 478). This renders Vanuatu between 1983 and 1989 a borderline case between democracy and semidemocracy. In the first general elections on 11/02/1983 the Vanua'aku Pati, which was the ruling party, secured 24 seats, while the Union of Moderate Parties won 12 seats. Walter Lini, who belonged to the Vanua'aku Pati, retained his position as Prime Minister.[828] Vanuatuan politics have experienced instability since the general election in 1991, characterized by a succession of divisive coalition governments and the frequent use of no confidence votes leading to frequent shifts in prime ministers. Nonetheless, Vanuatu has managed to uphold its democratic system.[829] Vanuatu holds democratic elections but grapples with recurring unstable coalition governments. Despite significant political corruption, the mostly independent judiciary has effectively held elected officials accountable in notable cases.[830] In 2023, the country saw three government transitions. As a result, the country reverted to a pattern of governmental instability. Prime Minister Ishmael Kalsakau was removed from office following a no-confidence vote. Sato

[824] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Vanuatu

[826] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Vanuatu_2013?lang=en
[827] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vanuatu#Independent_Vanuatu_(1980%E2%80%93present)
[828] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1983_Vanuatuan_general_election
[829] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vanuatu#Independent_Vanuatu_(1980%E2%80%93present)
[830] https://freedomhouse.org/country/vanuatu/freedom-world/2022

Kilman was elected as the new prime minister but was soon replaced by Charlot Salwai after another no-confidence vote.[831]
Democracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Stöver 2001)

Venezuela

01/01/1900 Military Autocracy [Start: 10/12/1899]: Venezuela gained its independence from Spain on 07/05/1811.[832] Male suffrage was introduced in 1858. (PIPE) Venezuela became a military autocracy on 10/12/1899 under Cipriano Castro. Juan Vicente Gómez was vice president in this time. After Castro had to leave Venezuela due to health issues, Gómez became president with US support.[833] From 12/19/1908 to 08/13/1913 Castros tried to overthrow Juan Vincente Gómez several times after his health had improved.[834] These coups were not successful and Gómez was able to remain president of Venezuela.[835] Gomez largely ruled indirectly eliminating free press and opposition until his death on 12/17/1935. Following the death of the president, the Council of Ministers appointed Minister of War Eleazar Lopez Contreras as provisional president, pending confirmation by a compliant Congress on 01/02/1936. His inauguration was met with protests, which were swiftly suppressed, and all forms of "open political activity" were outlawed in 1937. In 1941, Minister of War Gen. Isaias Medina Angarita assumed the presidency after Lopez. (Deas 1986: 676-78, Ewell 1991: 727, 732-33, Casey et al. 2020: 17).
10/18/1945 End Military Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: Medina Angarita was deposed and Rómulo Betancourt seized power in a junta (Lachapelle et al. 2020: 17, Ewell 1991: 742). In 1946 Female suffrage was introduced.[836]
10/27/1946 End Military Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date, Constituent Assembly elections were held in Venezuela, following a coup the year before which launched El Trienio Adeco. The result was a victory for Democratic Action, which won 137 of the 160 seats in the Assembly. Voter turnout was 86.6%.[837]

[831] https://freedomhouse.org/country/vanuatu/freedom-world/2024
[832] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Venezuelan_independence
[833] https://www.britannica.com/biography/Juan-Vicente-Gomez
[834] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Juan_Vicente_G%C3%B3mez
[835] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cipriano_Castro
[836] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[837] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1946_Venezuelan_Constituent_Assembly_election

07/05/1947 End Semidemocracy/Start Democracy: On this date a new constitution was ratified. Regarded as the nation's first genuinely democratic constitution, it introduced direct and universally free elections. Notably, it was the first Venezuelan constitution to grant women's suffrage, along with extending voting rights to illiterate individuals and all citizens aged 18 and above.[838] On 12/14/1947 presidential elections were held. This election has been the first honest and democratic election. It was won by Rómulo Gallegos of Democratic Action and therefore saw Democratic Action formally elected to office.[839]

11/24/1948 End Democracy/Start Military Autocracy: President Rómulo Gallegos reduced military influence in the government and signed a polarizing land reform. The loss of influence of the military was the motivation behind a military coup led by Leutnant Coloenel Delgado Chalbaud and Leutnant Coloenel Perez Jimenez[840], that ousted the elected government of president Gallegos, suspended the constitution and Congress, and installed a military ruling group (Burggraaff 1972: 101-9, 115, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 105).[841] From 1948 to 1950 Chalbaud headed the junta. In 1950 Pérez Jiménez achieved de facto control.

01/23/1958 End Military Autocracy/Start Military (Transitional) Autocracy: Marcos Pérez Jiménez resigned and fled the country in response to weeks of massive demonstrations by several sectors of society that caused the military to abandon him (Trinkunas 2000: 89). A military transitional government agreed to include civilian political leaders in an interim government and began plans to restore democracy (Taylor 1968: 52-60, Burggraaff 1972: 154-166, Coronil 1997: 65-66, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 105).[842]

12/07/1958 End Military (Transitional) Autocracy/Start Democracy: On this date, free and fair general elections were held.[843] On 04/12/2002 military and businessmen plotted a coup to evict Chavez during ongoing protests against controversial bills concerning oil and land reform. Opposition leader Pedro Carmona seized the interim presidency and declared the constitution and legislature suspended.[844] On 04/13/2002 a pro-Chavez street movement and sectors of the military peacefully evicted the coup plotters less than 48 hours later from power and restored Chavez to constitutional rule in a counter coup. This is counted as a failed coup and not a regime period. The process of Venezuela's 'authoritarianization' unfolded gradually from August 2004

[838] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Constitution_of_Venezuela_(1947)
[839] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1947_Venezuelan_general_election
[840] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Marcos_P%C3%A9rez_Jim%C3%A9nez
[841] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1948_Venezuelan_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat
[842] https://choosedemocracy.us/case-study-venezuela-january-1958/#.Y480uH2ZMuU
[843] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1958_Venezuelan_general_election
[844] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2002_Venezuelan_coup_d%27%C3%A9tat_attempt

to December 2005. Even during the recall elections in August 2004, international election observers still regarded them as free and fair (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 105).

12/04/2005 End Democracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: Geddes, Wright, and Frantz consider the legislative election on this date to be the final gradual move across the delicate boundary separating imperfect democracy from electoral authoritarianism (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 105-106). Following Chavez's success in the recall, the Chavista-dominated Assembly enacted legislation to expand the size of the Supreme Court and enable the dismissal of judges through a simple majority Assembly vote. Ahead of the December 2005 legislative election, OAS election monitors observed that the fingerprint machines utilized for voter identification could potentially be linked to voting machines, raising concerns about identifying opposition voters. Despite the removal of fingerprint machines due to protests before the elections, the five largest opposition parties opted to boycott the election. This stance remained unchanged, resulting in only 25 percent of registered voters participating in the vote. Although the European Union election observers criticized the boycott, they also highlighted government manipulation of the media and an excessive military presence around polling stations on election day. The Chavistas secured all seats in the Assembly, leading to a five-year period where no opposition voices were represented in any branch of government. Furthermore, opposition voices faced suppression through harassment, intimidation, and occasional arrests, diminishing their public presence. (Degutis 2005: 7, Marcano/Barrera 2007, Holland 2008, Corrales 2009)Different from LIED the regime period in our dataset is not classified as a one-party autocracy since the regime did not opt for a complete exclusion of the main opposition parties but they boycotted the elections. The parties continued to work outside the national parliament. However, the regime is clearly non-democratic. In a 2009 referendum term limits for the offices of President, state governors, mayors and National Assembly deputies were abolished, and Chávez promised to supporters that he would lead Venezuela until 2030.[845] On 04/19/2013 Nicolás Maduro won the presidential election to formally succeed Chávez. He was re-elected in 2018 in presidential balloting marked by fraud and voter intimidation (Lansford 2021).[846] A constitutional crisis followed. Opposition leader Guaidó announced, on 01/23/2019, that he was formally assuming the role of interim president under Article 233 of the Constitution of Venezuela, with the backing of the National Assembly, until free elections could be held. He received formal recognition of legitimacy from almost 60 governments worldwide, including the United States, Canada and various Latin American and European countries. However, other nations, including Russia, China, Iran, Syria,

[845] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2009_Venezuelan_constitutional_referendum

Cuba and Turkey continued to recognize Maduro. On 01/06/2021 the European Union stopped recognizing Guaidó as president, without recognizing Maduro as the legitimate president, and threatening further sanctions. As of December 2021, Guaidó was not able to remove Maduro from power.[847]
Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Alvarez 2006, Boeckh 2003, Boeckh 2005, Brewer-Carías 2010, Coppedge 1994, Coppedge 2005, Kornblith 2006, Myerson 2008, Welsch 2005, Zimmerling 2005, Peeler 1985, Schultze 2000, Sonntag 2001, Zagorski 2003)

Vietnam

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy] [Start: 06/06/1862]: With the Treaty of Saigon on 06/05/1862, Saigon and three southern provinces known as Cochin-China were ceded to France.[848] On 06/06/1884 Tonkin and Annam became a French protectorate by the Treaty of Hue.[849] The three significant regions of Vietnam—Tonkin in the north, Annam in the central area, and Cochin-China in the south - fell under French control between 1862 and 1884. Subsequently, they were amalgamated with Cambodia and Laos to establish the French-ruled Indochinese Union, commonly referred to as French Indochina (Lansford 2021: 1846). The French administration was centralized with a governor-general in Saigon and a "résident superieur" in each protectorate's capital. The civil service, overseen by the French, included Vietnamese officials at lower levels, some working in the colonial administration. French Indochina operated through three advisory councils, dealing with governance, economics, and defense. Yet, Cochinchina was governed by a lieutenant governor (and, after 1911, a governor), advised by private and colonial councils. The private council, consisting of ten members appointed by the governor-general, featured two Vietnamese officials. In contrast, the colonial council comprised ten members elected by resident French citizens and ten "native" members chosen by Vietnamese citizens with limited voting rights. While the Vietnamese emperor held nominal authority, actual power resided with the French. Khải Định, seen as a French pupped, was proclaimed emperor on 05/17/1916, succeeded by his son, Bảo Đại, on 01/08/1926. The anti-French Thái Nguyên uprising broke out during the Second World War but was swiftly suppressed (Corfield 2008).

[847] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Juan_Guaid%C3%B3
[848] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Treaty_of_Saigon_(1862)
[849] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Treaty_of_Hu%E1%BA%BF_(1884)

09/22/1940 End Colonial Regime [of France, Democracy]/Start Occupation Regime [by Japan, Constitutional Monarchy under French administration]: On 09/20/1940, an agreement was signed between the French governor general, Jean Decoux, and Japan, granting Japanese access to Haiphong harbor and permission to station up to 6,000 troops in northern Vietnam. Just two days later, on 09/22/1940, Japanese forces initiated an invasion of Vietnam, swiftly achieving full control within a week. Despite this invasion, the French colonial government had nominal power, albeit significantly weakened, as Vietnam was effectively in Japan's possession under the French administration. From 1941 to 1945, under the leadership of Decoux, the French colonial authorities adopted a policy of coexistence with the Japanese occupiers.[850]

03/11/1945 End Occupation Regime [by Japan, Constitutional Monarchy under French administration]/Start Colonial Regime [of Japan, Constitutional Monarchy]: The Japanese forces ceased their support of the dual imperial regime, leading to the ousting of the French administration through the arrest of all French colonial officials. Consequently, Japan replaced the French colonial administration, and Vietnam became de facto a Japanese colony. Following the disarmament of French soldiers, the emperor Bảo Đại was permitted to declare Vietnamese independence and appoint a Vietnamese national government. Nevertheless, the actual political authority remained firmly under the control of Japanese military commanders. In March 1945, Vietnam became part of the Greater East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.[851] After the French administration was ousted from the North, Hồ Chí Minh's section of the Indochinese Communist Party (ICP) joined with non-communist forces, forming the leading political group called the League for the Independence of Vietnam (Viet Nam Doc Lap Dong Minh, or simply Viet Minh) (Hartmann 2001).

09/02/1945 End Colonial Regime [of Japan, Constitutional Monarchy]/Start Communist Ideocracy: After Japan surrendered on 08/15/1945, a series of events which was later called collectively the "August Revolution", took place and China and France began occupying Vietnam. On 09/02/1945, Hồ Chí Minh took over as president following emperor Bảo Đại's resignation and declared the Democratic Republic of Vietnam (DRC). On 11/11/1945, the ICP dissolved itself to reassure the Chinese occupation authorities, and the DRV controlled the government and most provinces in the north. However, the communist DRV was "in an uneasy relationship with the Chinese military" which enforced a power-sharing system with China-oriented anti-communist parties, the Viet Nam Nationalist Party (VNQQD) and the Vietnamese

[850] https://alphahistory.com/vietnamwar/japanese-occupation-of-vietnam/

[851] https://www.nationalww2museum.org/war/articles/vietnam-war https://alphahistory.com/vietnamwar/japanese-occupation-of-vietnam/

Revolutionary League (DMH) (Tønnesson 2010: 16). In the months following independence, the DRV drafted and enacted its first constitution which provided for universal, direct, and secret suffrage and granted women equal rights and full political participation (Lessard 2004). On 01/06/1946, the first general election ever in areas controlled by north Vietnam was held, in which all people 18 years old or older were eligible to vote.[852] However, in most areas, only the Việt Minh put forth candidates. Voters chose from a list of names, electing those with the most votes. Before the election, Chinese generals brokered an agreement between the Việt Minh and the two China-oriented nationalist parties, VNQQD and DMH. This deal permitted the latter to appoint seventy unelected delegates to the national assembly. This portrayed the Việt Minh as a political party rather than an overarching national consensus organization. However, despite the VNQDD and DMH being granted some ostensibly significant positions in the government, they never wielded genuine control, with the Việt Minh maintaining dominance (Tønnesson 2010: 26). Conducted according to the provisions of the 1946 constitution, the election saw the Communist-led Việt Minh emerge victorious, securing 182 out of 302 seats. However, the allocation of seats among parties had been predetermined prior to the elections. Notably, the voting process lacked secrecy, with ballot papers completed in the presence of aides to assist comrades facing challenges in marking their ballots.[853] The south of Vietnam was controlled by France, which rejected a communist-led unification and aimed for an Indochinese federation to contain the communist government in the north. On 03/06/1946, an agreement was signed between France and Hồ Chí Minh, leading to nine months of co-existence between the French Fourth Republic and the DRV. On 09/14/1946, the conflicting parties signed a modus vivendi, including a ceasefire in southern Vietnam, effective from 10/31/1946. However, on 12/19/1946, an armed struggle broke out in Hanoi, marking the outbreak of the First Indochina War between France and the DRV (Tønnesson 2010). On 07/02/1949, France proclaimed the Associated State of Vietnam, granting it partial autonomy within the French Union under the leadership of Bao Dai. This led to a struggle for legitimacy between Bảo Đại and Hồ Chí Minh during the First Indochina War. However, since 09/02/1945, the DRV had already declared the nation's independence and controlled the majority of Vietnam's territory. Furthermore, its legitimacy was enhanced by the national assembly election of 01/06/1946, which saw an 89 percent participation rate among Vietnamese voters, both in the north and the south.[854] Consequently, we classify this regime as a communist ideocracy of the DRV, supported by China and challenged by the southern

[852] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/National_Assembly_(Vietnam)
[853] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1946_North_Vietnamese_legislative_election
[854] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/State_of_Vietnam

non-communist regime controlled by France. The Geneva Accords temporarily partitioned the nation into northern and southern zones at the 17th parallel, with the provision for general elections set for July 1956, intended to pave the way for the reunification of Vietnam.[855]

[For the time between 07/21/1954 until 07/02/1976, see **Vietnam, North** and **Vietnam, South**.]

07/02/1976 Continuation Communist Ideocracy [**of Vietnam, North]:** On 6/6/1975, the Provisional Revolutionary Government, ostensibly led by Huỳnh Tấn Phát, was established as the government of South Vietnam. However, true power rested in the hands of Phạm Hùng, the fourth-ranked member of the VWP Politburo and secretary of the party's South Vietnamese Committee. Subsequently, on 4/25/1976, a reunified Vietnam conducted elections for an expanded national assembly. On 7/2/1976, the assembly declared the establishment of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam (SRV). On the same day, Tôn Đức Thắng, the incumbent president of North Vietnam, was appointed as the head of state, with Nguyễn Lương Bằng and Nguyễn Hữu Thọ as vice presidents. Phạm Văn Đồng, the former DRV premier, was tasked with leading a cabinet primarily composed of former North Vietnamese ministers, along with six additions from South Vietnam. Further, on 12/20/1976, the VWP concluded a congress in Hanoi, renaming itself the Vietnamese Communist Party (VCP) and adopting guidelines aimed at realizing the nation's "socialist goals."(Lansford 2021: 1846). On 12/18/1980, the national assembly unanimously passed a new constitution, establishing a state council as a collective presidency and a council of ministers led by a prime minister as head of government. These positions were to be elected by the national assembly. Constitutional changes in 1992 affirmed the central role of the VCP, replaced the state council by a president as head of state who would appoint the prime minister (approved by the national assembly) as head of the council of ministers.[856] Nonetheless, political dissent remains prohibited (Hartmann 2001). Moreover, elections to the national assembly are controlled by the VCP, which won 485 of 499 seats in an election held on 05/21/2021, even the ostensibly independent candidates were under the VCP's influence. The VCP remains the only legal party, controlling all electoral bodies and disqualifying or arresting genuinely independent candidates.[857] President Nguyen Xuan Phuc was compelled to resign following a sweeping anti-corruption crackdown in January 2023. He was succeeded in March by Vo Van Thuong after being elected by the parliament. On 05/22/2024 To Lam took over as

[855] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/North_Vietnam
[856] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Socialist_Republic_of_Vietnam_2013?lang=en
[857] https://freedomhouse.org/country/vietnam/freedom-world/2023

president. The VCP still maintains exclusive control over political power, with no other parties permitted to function legally. [858]
Communist Ideocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources Additional sources (Donnell/Joiner 1974, Malesky/Schuler 2008, Saxonberg 2001, Lai/Slater 2006)

Vietnam, North
[Officially known as the Democratic Republic of Vietnam (DRV)]

07/21/1954 Communist Ideocracy: After the French defeat at Điện Biên Phủ, their French forces withdrew, and the Việt Minh government took control of northern Vietnam. North Vietnam was formally established in the Geneva Accords on 07/21/1954, which tentatively delineated the nation into northern and southern zones along the 17th parallel, with general elections slated for July 1956, after which Vietnam was meant to be reunited (LePoer 1989, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 106).[859] The DRV, led by the communist Vietnamese Workers Party (VWP), accepted the provisions to achieve reunification under their governance. In July 1956, the deadline for the promised elections passed, which was followed by a phase of domestic "détente" in North Vietnam, marked by political and social liberalization and expanded individual rights enforced by the council of ministers and national assembly. The North ostensibly underwent its most "democratic" period even after a Politburo reshuffle (Asselin 2013: 68-72). Realizing that the southern Republic of Vietnam (RVN) would not accept national polls, North Vietnam started forming its own regime. The 1960 Constitution established a semi-presidential government within a communist framework, with president Hồ Chí Minh elected by the national assembly to lead the council of ministers. Although citizens over 21 were formally allowed to run for elections, the communist Vietnamese Fatherland Front (VFF) controlled lists and candidature approvals. However, the DRV retained its claims of a multi-party system, and some Vietnamese Socialist Party (VSP) and Democratic Party (VDP) candidates secured seats in Hanoi (Hartmann 2001). A pivotal moment was communist politician Lê Duẩn's fourteen-point plan, outlining a strategy of revolutionary militancy for southern political struggle and reunification. Initially rejected, the Central Committee later authorized targeted assassinations of "reactionary traitors" and terror bombings to oppose the Diệm regime and American presence (Asselin 2013: 74).

[858] https://freedomhouse.org/country/vietnam/freedom-world/2024

Later on, the People's Army of North Vietnam (PAVN) and the Việt Cộng guerrillas, based in South Vietnam, engaged in conflict against the military forces of the Republic of Vietnam, supported by their communist allies, primarily China and the Soviet Union.[860] Hồ Chí Minh served as president of the DRV until his passing on 09/03/1969. He was then succeeded by his vice president, Tôn Đức Thắng. Phạm Văn Đồng, appointed head of government through the Geneva Conference, held this position until reunification in 1976 (Hartmann 2001).

07/02/1976 Continuation Communist Ideocracy [as unified Vietnam, see **Vietnam**]: On 04/30/1975, North Vietnamese forces entered Saigon, and the city fell under their control. After this event, known as the fall of Saigon, the Provisional Revolutionary Government of the Republic of South Vietnam (PRG), formed by Northern Vietnam on 06/08/1969 to oppose the Republic of Vietnam, governed South Vietnam. Initial plans for separate administrations were eventually abandoned and on 07/02/1976, after national assembly elections, the reunification of North and South Vietnam took place and the Socialist Republic of Vietnam (SRV) was declared (Hartmann 2001).

For the time since 07/02/1976, see **Vietnam**.

Vietnam, South

[Officially known as the Republic of Vietnam]

07/21/1954 Start (Monarchical) Non-electoral Transitional (Non-Party) Autocracy: On this date, the Geneva Accords established South Vietnam as a separate independent state, dividing the nation into northern and southern zones along the 17th parallel, with general elections slated for July 1956, after which Vietnam was meant to be reunited.[861] At independence Vietnam was led by prime minister Ngô Đình Diệm, appointed by emperor Bảo Đại, who was living in Paris and had little ability to influence events on the ground (LePoer 1989, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 106). Diệm opposed the general elections outlined in the Geneva Accords, and, instead, established a republic, formed South Vietnamese republican institutions, and began prosecuting communist insurgents (Hartmann 2001, Davidson 1991).

10/23/1955 End Non-electoral Transitional (Non-Party) Regime/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, Diệm held a referendum, formally serving as presidential elections between head of state Bảo Đại and head of government Diệm to determine the president of a new, independent Vietnamese state. At the time, Bảo Đại was out of the country and had not been asked to stand

[860] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/North_Vietnam
[861] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/North_Vietnam

as candidate. The referendum introduced universal suffrage with an 18-year voting age and secret voting. However, in practice, voters were given a ballot on which they had to tear off the half featuring the picture of their preferred candidate. The results showed an overwhelming 98.2 percent in favor of Diệm (Hartmann 2001, Asselin 2013). Despite allegations of a manipulated vote, the result reinforced Diệm's legitimacy and effectively supplanted the internationally recognized State of Vietnam with the Republic of Vietnam in the south, which garnered support from the United States, France, Laos, Republic of China, and Thailand.[862] Diệm emerged as a proponent of Vietnamese nationalism, advocating for both anti-communism, as a counterforce to Hồ Chí Minh, and decolonization, opposing Bảo Đại's influence.[863] The inaugural Constitution included provisions for establishing the republic and orchestrating the election of its president.[864] As outlined in the 1956 Constitution, Diệm, serving as president, wielded a significant concentration of power, and his style of governance gradually veered towards authoritarianism.[865] Moreover, candidates for the national assembly could run as independents or under party affiliations. However, political parties needed authorization from the ministry of interior to attain legal status, which only allowed pro-government political parties and disqualified candidates with links to communism. Once elected, candidates clustered around blocs, such as the People's Bloc, the Unification Bloc, and the Society Bloc, although they were never formalized (Hartmann 2001). Diệm did not control the army, faced administrative deficiencies, and held minimal authority over significant areas of the South controlled by powerful religious sects like the Hòa Hảo and Đạo Cao Đài. Moreover, fearing potential coups, Diệm prioritized personal loyalty in his officers and established fragmented military authority, with no single officer controlling all troops in any given region (Davidson 1991, Asselin 2013). 11/01/1963 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: On this date, the armed forces led by Lieutenant General Dương Văn Minh ousted president Diệm in a military coup because of their disapproval of his handling of the Buddhist crisis and their fear of the Vietcong threat. Subsequently, Minh assumed the leadership of a twelve-man Military Revolutionary Council (MRC) (Ky 1978: 31, Goodman 1973, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 106).[866] However, General Minh was ousted in another coup on 01/30/1964, orchestrated by General Nguyễn Khánh and senior officers due to personal ambition, policy differences, and an ineffectual junta. Following the coup, General Minh remained a figurehead chief of state until 10/26/1964, when General

[862] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vietnam
[863] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ngo_Dinh_Diem
[864] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ngo_Dinh_Diem
[865] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ngo_Dinh_Diem
[866] https://www.systemicpeace.org/polity/P5SouthVietnam2018.pdf

Nguyễn Khánh established himself as the chairman of the new junta.[867] On 09/26/1964, Khánh and the military junta established a semblance of civilian rule by creating the High National Council (HNC), an advisory body with limited legislative authority. The HNC designated Phan Khắc Sửuas chief of state and Hương as prime minister. However, this is not classified as a regime change because the real power remained with the military (Kahin 1986, Moyar 2006, Tucker 2011: 486). On 12/20/1964, General Khánh and other military assets removed the parallel civilian governing council and arrested several of its leaders. This removal can be seen as internal military clashes between the young and old members of the military junta. On 01/27/1965, the armed forces removed the last of the civilian elements of the government and imposed direct rule by replacing the MCN with a new Armed Forces Council (AFC), in which younger officers had greater representation (Kahin 1986). This was done with the support of commanders inside and outside of the junta who were concerned about the goings of the war and were opposed to some of the US's demands carried out by the remainder of the civilian administration. On 02/19/1965, the junta infighting and personal ambition led Thảo and Kỳ to attempt to overthrow Khánh.Despite a considerable amount of both fighting and uncertainty regarding junta leadership, the coup ultimately failed, but Khánh was convinced by the US military advisors to flee. A complex series of power shifts allowed new military and civilian leaders to take power. Quát is identified as head of government, appointed by the military junta on 02/16/1965. However, Quát's civilian government was ousted by air marshall Ký, General Thiệu, and General Hữu Có on 06/11/1965. Following this event, the military proclaimed a National Leadership Committee, with Ký as prime minister and Thiệu as chief of state (Michaels 2014). Thiệu became the chairman of the National Leadership Committee on 06/14/1965 (Hartmann 2001).[868]

10/31/1967 End Military Autocracy/Start Electoral (Military) Autocracy: On 04/01/1967, Thiệu promulgated a new constitution, previously adopted by the constituent assembly on 03/18/1967, which provided for a semi-presidential system with a bicameral parliament (Hartmann 2001, Flanz 1967). Under pressure from the United States to adhere to constitutional governance, elections for both the presidency and the legislature were arranged.[869] The elections took place on 09/03/1967. After winning the elections Nguyễn Văn Thiệu became President of South Vietnam on 10/31/1967. In 1971, Thiệu sought reelection, yet his tainted reputation for corruption led his political adversaries to suspect electoral manipulation and opt out of the race.

[867] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nguy%E1%BB%85n_Kh%C3%A1nh
[868] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nguy%E1%BB%85n_V%C4%83n_Thi%E1%BB%87u
[869] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nguy%E1%BB%85n_V%C4%83n_Thi%E1%BB%87u

Running unopposed, Thiệu secured a straightforward reelection on October 2nd, garnering 94% of the vote with an 87% turnout, a statistic widely regarded as fraudulent.[870] The new regime's stability was challenged by the absence of strong political parties. Deputies were elected as independents who later formed loose parliamentary blocs. Thiệu attempted to create a supportive political movement in parliament and introduced a new party law legalizing 23 parties between 1969 and 1970. However, in 1973, all existing parties were dissolved by decree (Hartmann 2001). He remained in office until 04/21/1975.[871] The regime relied on the support of the United States, especially during the Vietnam war, which saw heavy involvement of US-troops but also south-Vietnamese interference.[872] Because of the elections the regime is classified different from other regime data sets as an electoral autocracy and not a military autocracy. However, regarding the subtype it was an electoral military autocracy and largely the continuation of the previous regime. On 01/31/1968, the Tet Offensive commenced. This offensive, by thrusting the war into South Vietnam's urban areas and showcasing the enduring potency of communist forces, signaled a pivotal moment in US backing for the South Vietnamese government. The incoming administration of Richard Nixon initiated a strategy of Vietnamization to diminish US combat engagement and initiated discussions with the North Vietnamese to seek an end to the conflict.[873] US-military troops withdrew from South Vietnam in March 1972 after the Paris Peace Accords were signed on 01/27/1972.[874] North Vietnam used the created power vacuum to start another military campaign, the Easter Offensive, between 03/30/1972 and 10/22/1972 against South Vietnam.[875] 04/21/1975 The communist rebels and the North Vietnamese Army closed in on the capital and Thien resigned and fled. His Vice President carried on the fight for seven more days. The final 'Spring Offensive' between 12/13/1974 and 04/30/1975 marked the concluding North Vietnamese campaign in the Vietnam War.[876]

04/30/1975 End Electoral (Military) Autocracy/Start Occupation Regime [by Vietnam, North, (Communist) Ideocracy]: On this date, Communist forces seized Saigon, effectively marking the conclusion of South Vietnam's existence as an independent nation. The formal reunification with the North took place the subsequent year (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 107). On 07/02/1976, the conclusion of the Vietnam War signaled the commencement of the transitional phase leading towards reunification. This culminated in a national election for reunification on the same day,

[870] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nguy%E1%BB%85n_V%C4%83n_Thi%E1%BB%87u
[871] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nguy%E1%BB%85n_V%C4%83n_Thi%E1%BB%87u
[872] https://www.britannica.com/place/Vietnam/The-two-Vietnams-1954-65
[873] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Vietnam
[874] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Vietnam
[875] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Easter_Offensive
[876] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1975_spring_offensive

when the Republic of South Vietnam merged with North Vietnam, establishing the modern-day Vietnam.[877]

07/02/1976 End Occupation Regime [by Vietnam, North, (Communist) Ideocracy]

For the time since 07/02/1976, see **Vietnam**.

Additional sources (Donnell/Joiner 1974, Penniman 1972)

Wallis and Futuna

01/01/1900 (de facto) Colonial Regime [of France, Semidemocracy] [Start: 04/05/1887]: The French were the first Europeans to settle in the area, with French missionaries arriving in 1837. On 04/05/1887, the queen of Uvea, from the traditional chiefdom of Wallis, formally signed a treaty, officially establishing a French protectorate. Subsequently, on 02/16/1888, the kings of Sigave and Alo, representing the islands of Futuna and Alofi, also signed a treaty, officially establishing a French protectorate. From that point onward, the islands came under the jurisdiction of the French colony of New Caledonia.[878]

10/27/1946 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [of France, Democracy]/Start Part of other Country [France, Democracy]: In 1946, New Caledonia and thus Wallis and Futuna attained the status of an overseas territory. By 1953, French citizenship was extended to all residents of New Caledonia, irrespective of their ethnic background. [879] In 1959, the residents of the islands decided through a vote to attain independent status as a distinct French overseas territory, and this change became effective on 07/29/1961. As a result, their previous affiliation with New Caledonia came to an end. As a French overseas collectivity, it operates within the framework of the French constitution. The President of France is chosen through a popular vote, serving a five-year term. The High Administrator is designated by the French President with recommendations from the French Ministry of the Interior. The leaders of the Territorial Government and the Territorial Assembly are elected by the assembly's members.[880]

Part of Other Country [France, Democracy] continued as of 07/01/2024.

Western Sahara

[877] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reunification_Day
[878] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wallis_and_Futuna#History
[879] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/New_Caledonia#History
[880] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Wallis_and_Futuna#Governance_and_law

01/01/1900 (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of Spain, Constitutional Monarchy] [Start: 12/26/1884]: During the Berlin Conference held between 1884 and 1885, European nations were defining regulations for creating zones of control in Africa. During this time, Spain declared a 'protectorate over the African coast' from Cape Blanc to Cape Bojador on 12/26/1884. Spain then initiated the establishment of trading posts and a military force in the region. By July 1885, King Alfonso XII of Spain appointed Emilio Bonelli as the commissioner of the Río de Oro, granting him both civil and military authority over the area. In 1924, the territory known as Spanish Sahara came into existence by merging the Spanish regions of Río de Oro and Saguia el-Hamra.[881] Following its independence in 1956, Morocco asserted its ownership of Spanish Sahara as a part of its historical pre-colonial land. In 1957, during the Ifni War, the Moroccan Army of Liberation nearly occupied the Ifni territory to the north of Spanish Sahara. Spanish forces stationed in the nearby Canary Islands thwarted the attacks, with French assistance helping Spain regain control. Through the 1960s, Morocco persisted in claiming Spanish Sahara and convinced the United Nations to include it on the list of territories needing decolonization. Spain relinquished control of Ifni to Morocco in 1969 but retained Spanish Sahara. In 1973, the Polisario Front emerged, advocating Sahrawi nationalism. The Front rapidly built a guerrilla army, resulting in Spain losing effective control over much of the region by early 1975.[882] On 02/26/1976, Spain officially informed the United Nations (UN) of its withdrawal from Western Sahara, leaving the area without any governing authority. Neither Morocco nor Mauritania received international recognition for their claims, leading to conflict with the pro-independence Polisario Front.[883]

02/27/1976 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [as Protectorate of Spain, Right-wing (Corporatist) Autocracy]/Start One-Party Autocracy: On this date, the Polisario Front declared the establishment of the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic (SADR) in Bir Lehlou, Western Sahara.[884] In 1979, Mauritania established peace with the Polisario Front and relinquished its territorial demands. Subsequently, Morocco took control of Mauritania's portion and asserted authority over the entire region. A vote was planned for 1992 to decide if the territory would stay under Moroccan rule or achieve independence, but this was delayed multiple times. When Muḥammad VI assumed the Moroccan throne in 1999 after his father Hassan II, the referendum plans came to a halt. Morocco signaled a change in its stance, indicating that it was no longer

[881] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spanish_Sahara
[882] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Spanish_Sahara
[883] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sahrawi_Arab_Democratic_Republic
[884] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sahrawi_Arab_Democratic_Republic

willing to consider the possibility of a referendum.[885] The SADR's administration refers to the areas it governs as the Liberated Territories or the Free Zone. Meanwhile, Morocco holds authority over and manages the remaining contested land, which it designates as its Southern Provinces.[886] As outlined in its constitution, the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic (SADR) functions as a one-party system, a status that persists as long as it lacks authority over its territory.[887] Starting from August 1982, the highest position within the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic (SADR) has been the President, held by the secretary-general of the Polisario Front. The President appoints the Prime Minister. The SADR's governmental framework included a Council of Ministers, headed by the prime minister, a judiciary with judges chosen by the president, and the Sahrawi National Council (SNC), a parliamentary body.[888] On 03/08-03/09/2020, the Sahrawi Republic conducted legislative elections to select 52 out of the 53 representatives of the Sahrawi National Council, the singular chamber of the SADR's parliament. Over 100,000 Sahrawis were registered for voting, and a total of 145 candidates competed in the elections.[889] As of September 2022, a total of 85 nations have extended recognition to the Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic.[890] The one-party system is justified by the SADR as a necessary measure due to the ongoing conflict and lack of full control over its claimed territory. The situation is complicated by the fact that Morocco controls the majority of Western Sahara and considers it part of its own territory, referring to it as its Southern Provinces.
One-party autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Western Samoa: see Samoa

Yemen

[Abstract before 1900: Between the 12th BC and 6th AD Yemen was considered the center of civilization and wealth in the near east region. In pre-Islamic times, the area that is now known as Republic of Yemen was described as Eudaimon Arabia or Arabia Felix – Happy Arabia – and ruled by several indigenous dynasties in different kingdoms. The coming of Islam around 630

[885] https://www.britannica.com/place/Sahrawi-Arab-Democratic-Republic
[886] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sahrawi_Arab_Democratic_Republic
[887] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_the_Sahrawi_Arab_Democratic_Republic
[888] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sahrawi_Arab_Democratic_Republic#Government_structure
[889] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2020_Sahrawi_legislative_election
[890] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sahrawi_Arab_Democratic_Republic#International_recognition_and_membership

AD changed the country permanently until the 20th century.[891] Between 1900 and 05/22/1990 have separate histories: see **Yemen, North** and **Yemen, South**.]

05/22/1990 Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: After the unification as Republic of Yemen the former leaders of south and north Yemen were assigned as president and vice-president.[892]

04/27/1993 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy: On this date the first parliamentary elections after unification took place. They were classified by election monitors as the first free, multiparty polls in Yemen despite minimal irregularities.[893] In this pivotal electoral event, the General People's Congress (GPC) emerged victorious in 123 constituencies. The Islah Party followed with 62 seats, with its support mainly derived from its tribal rather than its Islamist components. The Yemeni Socialist Party (YSP) secured 57 seats, predominantly in the former People's Democratic Republic of Yemen (PDRY) territories.[894] Following August 1993, Vice President al Beidh left Sanaa (capital de jure) to Aden (capital de facto), effectively withdrawing from the political process.[895] On 05/04/1994 civil war started between the two Yemeni forces and their supporters. On 05/04/1994, the southern air force bombed Sanaa and other areas in the north, as a response to a major tank battle a few days prior; the northern air force responded by bombing Aden. Vice President al-Beidh was officially dismissed.[896] On 07/07/1994 Northern troops and Jihadist forces led by Tariq al-Fadhli entered Aden on 07/04/1994, factually ending the conflict. As a result, Saleh gained control over all of Yemen.[897] On 10/01/1994 Ali Abdullah Saleh was elected by parliament for a five-year term. On 09/23/1999 Saleh was reelected in the first direct presidential elections.[898] He held the position until 2012.[899] Abdrabbuh Mansur Hadi took his position.[900] On 02/21/2012 Vice President Hadi won presidential elections with 99.8% of the vote. He was the only candidate and thus uncontested. His candidacy was backed by the ruling party, as well as by the parliamentary opposition.[901] Since 04/27/2003 there have been no parliamentary elections (Macmillan 2022d).

[891] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ancient_history_of_Yemen
[892] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Yemen
[893] https://merip.org/1993/11/elections-and-mass-politics-in-yemen/; http://archive.ipu.org/parline-e/reports/arc/2353_93.htm
[894] https://merip.org/1993/11/elections-and-mass-politics-in-yemen/
[895] https://web.archive.org/web/20130616022328/http://www.yca-sandwell.org.uk/history_7.htm
[896] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yemeni_Civil_War_(1994)
[897] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yemeni_Civil_War_(1994)
[898] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1999_Yemeni_presidential_election
[899] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yemeni_Civil_War_(1994)
[900] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abed_Rabbo_Mansur_Hadi
[901] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abdrabbuh_Mansur_Hadi

Hence, from 2007 onwards it is problematic to classify Yemen as an electoral autocracy. GWF classifies the regime as a personalist autocracy.

09/21/2014 End Electoral (Personalist) Autocracy/Start Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: On this date, Houthi Rebels, who are aligned with Iran, occupied Sanaa. A power-sharing agreement between the Yemeni government and the Houthi rebels led to the resignation of Prime Minister Mohammed Basindwa and other cabinet members followed by a temporally cease-fire agreement. A new government was established with Baha as prime minister in December 2014, while Hadi remained president. The Houthis rejected to ratify a draft constitution aimed to end the civil war and continued with new attacks on the capital.[902] The new cabinet under Hadi and Khaled Baha, that existed for less than a month, was forced to resign on 01/22/2015.

02/06/2015 End Non-electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start No Central Authority: The Houthi rebels established a rival administration in Sanaa on 02/06/2015 that was not recognized internationally. Hadi withdrew his resignation and temporarily governed from exile (Macmillan 2022d, Lansford 2021). Having lost control over large parts of Yemen to the rebels, the Hadi government continued to govern from Aden backed by a Saudi-led military coalition. Since 2016 peace negotiations have made no progress.[903] The humanitarian crisis in Yemen is one of the most drastic in the world, famine, diseases like cholera, lack of access to safe water or sanitation are dominating the country.[904] Beginning on 01/28/2018, separatists loyal to the Southern Transitional Council seized control of the Yemeni government headquarters in Aden in a coup d'état against the Hadi government. The 26 members of the STC include the governors of five southern governorates and two government ministers. The STC works toward the separation of southern Yemen from the rest of the nation – as it was before 1990. By 07/01/2023 the situation continued to be defined by a political stalemate between the conflict-parties. As the line of control resembles that of the border between the former countries of North and Ssouthern Yemen before their unification, the situation seems to approach a de facto desintegration and reinstatement of the two distinct entities. As both parties to the civil war do, however, still claim to fight for authority over all of Yemen, we will for now continue to list Yemen as one entity with no central authority. This is, however, not final and may change according to the developments on the ground.

No central authority as of 07/01/2024 continued.

[902] https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Yemen_2015D?lang=en
[903] https://www.cfr.org/backgrounder/yemen-crisis
[904] https://www.unicef.org/emergencies/yemen-crisis

Additional sources (Alley 2010, Khalili 2009, Ingrams 1938, Ismael 1981, Robbins 1939)

Yemen, North

[Officially known as The Yemen Arab Republic; also known as Yemen (Sanaʿa)]

01/01/1900 Part of other country [Ottoman Empire, Absolute Monarchy] [Start: 07/29/1872]: North Yemen, which was known as the Yemen Vilayet, became a part of the Ottoman Empire on 07/29/1872. The formal incorporation of the region into the Ottoman Empire was the result of an agreement between the Ottomans and local Yemeni leaders. However, Ottoman control was largely confined to cities.[905] Already before the fall of the Ottoman Empire, the Shiite Imam Yahya bin Hamiduddin took power in the Northern Kingdom of Yemen in 1911.[906]

10/30/1918 End Part of other country [Ottoman Empire, Absolute Monarchy]/Start Absolute Monarchy: After the conclusion of World War I and the subsequent collapse of the Ottoman Empire, the region of northern Yemen gained independence and established itself as the Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen.[907] Autonomy from the Ottoman Empire during the Hamid al-Din dynasty era marked the establishment of the traditional imamate of the Zaidi people in the region that later became North Yemen (Burrowes 1987, Haddad 1973, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 107).[908] On 09/02/1926 The Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen was internationally recognized.

02/17/1948 End Absolute Monarchy/Start Absolute Monarchy: Ruling Imam Yahya Muhammad Hamid ed-Din was killed in the Alwaziri coup attempt.[909] The rivalling Sayyid family seized power for three weeks[910] under putschist and family member Abdullah bin Ahmad al-Wazir.[911]

03/13/1948 End Absolute Monarchy/Start Absolute Monarchy: The ruling monarchy was restored with Ahmad bin Yahya, Yahya Muhammad Hamid ed-Dins respective son taking over the throne.[912] On 03/08/1958 North Yemen joined the federation of Egypt and Syria (UAR) as a

[905] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yemen_Vilayet
[906] https://insidearabia.com/president-al-hamdi-yemen-collective-memory/
[907] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yemen_Arab_Republic
[908] https://content.time.com/time/subscriber/article/0,33009,844159-1,00.html
[909] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yahya_Muhammad_Hamid_ed-Din
[910] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alwaziri_coup
[911] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sayf_Abdallah_ibn_Ahmad_al-Wazir
[912] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alwaziri_coup

confederate partner[913], until Syria withdrew in 1961. Thereafter the relations between North Yemen and Egypt declined.[914]

09/27/1962 End Absolute Monarchy/Start Military Autocracy: On this date the Yemen Arab Republic (YAR) was established when revolutionaries, motivated by the Arab nationalist beliefs of Egyptian President Gamal Abdel Nasser, deposed Imam Muhammad al-Badr, the son of late Imam Ahmad bin Yahya[915], a week after he seized power in Sanaa. The North Yemen civil war started with the aforementioned coup, which saw YAR forces, aided by the United Arab Republic (Egypt), clash with the loyalist troops of King al-Badr, backed by Saudi Arabia and Jordan. The leader of the coup, Abdullah al-Sallal, created the Revolutionary Command Council to rule and thus rose to the presidency of the newly declared republic.[916] The Yemeni army was small and weak and could probably have been defeated by tribesmen loyal to the royal family, but the regime was kept in power by Egyptian troops and administrators" (Burrowes 1987, Haddad 1973, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014, Clark 1998). The conflict persisted intermittently until 1967, when Egyptian forces withdrew from Yemen to participate in the Six-Day War.[917]

11/05/1967 End Military Autocracy/Start Electoral Oligarchy: A coup ousted al-Sallal and installed a coalition led by the civilian Abdul Rahman al-Eryani, along with military figures (Burrowes 1987: 28, Haddad 1973: 285-88) (Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 107).[918] Rahman al-Eryani was originally a leader of the Free Yemeni Movement (Al-Ahrar), a opposition group during the time of the Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen.[919] A compromise on 12/01/1970 resulted in a republican form of government in North Yemen with prominent positions granted to members of the royalist faction, was agreed upon by the leaders of the region with the approval of the major foreign players involved, namely Egypt and Saudi Arabia. A new constitution came into force in 1970 and the first parliamentary elections were held in February and March 1971 (Glosemeyer 2001: 293).[920] As political parties were banned, all candidates ran as independents. The indirect election system in rural areas led to a parliament being dominated by tribal elites. Secret elections only took place in urban areas, whilst indirect elections were held in rural areas, effectively barring women from voting (Glosemeyer 2001: 297). Since there were neither elections of the government by the parliament nor the population the preconditions for an

[913] https://de.wikipedia.org/wiki/Vereinigte_Arabische_Staaten
[914] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mutawakkilite_Kingdom_of_Yemen
[915] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mutawakkilite_Kingdom_of_Yemen
[916] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abdullah_al-Sallal
[917] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/North_Yemen_Civil_War; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Yemen_Arab_Republic
[918] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abdul_Rahman_al-Eryani
[919] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abdul_Rahman_al-Eryani
[920] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elections_in_Yemen; https://www.britannica.com/place/Yemen/The-age-of-imperialism#ref964972

electoral autocracy are not fulfilled. By LIED the period is classified as a non-electoral autocracy According to our classification the regime is an electoral oligarchy.

06/13/1974 End Electoral Oligarchy/Start Military Autocracy: Lieutenant Colonel Ibrahim al-Hamdi orchestrated a military coup that ousted the civilian-led government led by Abdul Rahman al-Eryani. Following the coup, a Military Command Council was established, the sheiks and other cilvilians. Subsequently, in 1975, the MCC dissolved the partially elected Consultative Council, diminishing the representation of tribal interests and consolidating control within the regime (Clark 2010: 107, Burrowes 1987: 57-60, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 107). The appointed cabinet comprised mostly of technocrats. [921]

10/11/1977 End Military Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: On this date Ibrahim al-Hamdi, along with his brother, was assassinated, in his vice president's Ahmad al-Ghasmi's house in Sana'a with the support of Saudi Arabia. Major general al-Ghasmi took over as president.

06/24/1978 End Military Autocracy/Start Military Autocracy: President Ahmad al-Ghashmi was assassinated on this date together with an envoy of the People's Democratic Republic of Yemen.[922] Abdul Karim Abdullah al-Arashi followed al-Ghasmi as president.[923]

07/17/1978 End Military Autocracy/Start Military (Personalist) Autocracy: The four-member Presidential Council, which briefly governed the regime from 1974 to 1978 following the assassinations of previous leaders, appointed Lieutenant-Colonel Ali Abdullah Saleh as president and commander-in-chief of the armed forces (Burrowes 1987: 92-93). The post-1978 regime is considered different from the 1974-78 regime because Saleh began almost immediately to change the identity of those who could influence policy, reducing the military's role and incorporating sheikhs. Beginning in late 1978, he purged important officers, narrowing the faction of the military included in the inner circle. He brought back to influences sheikhs who had been excluded since 1974 and gave his family and tribe a privileged place in decision making, distribution, and command positions in the military (Clark 2010: 122, Burrowes 1987: 94-130). Starting in 1979, Saleh initiated the establishment of institutions aimed at enabling broader political engagement for ordinary citizens (Burrowes 1987: 112-131)(Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 107-108). In 1980 Salih created the political party 'the General People's Congress' (GPC).

05/22/1990 End Military (Personalist) Autocracy: Unification as Republic of Yemen (see **Yemen**)

[921] https://www.britannica.com/place/Yemen/The-age-of-imperialism#ref964972

[922] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ahmad_al-Ghashmi

[923] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Abdul_Karim_Abdullah_al-Arashi

Yemen, South

[Officially known as The People's Democratic Republic of Yemen; also known as Yemen (formerly Aden)]

01/01/1900 (de facto) Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 01/19/1839]: South Yemen, formerly known as Aden, was annexed by the British on 01/19/1839 and subsequently partitioned into two distinct administrative regions: the Aden Hinterland and Aden Colony. Both regions fell under British Indian jurisdiction during Yemen's colonial history. (Ingrams 1938, Robbins 1939).[924] The Aden hinterland (the territory north and northeast of what was later affirmed the Aden Colony) was declared a British Protectorate in 1873, yet its boundaries were not precisely demarcated (Ingrams 1938). The hinterland was not administered directly by Aden but was tied to Britain by treaties of protection with local rulers of traditional polities.[925] Aden remained under direct British rule and administered by the government of the Bombay Presidency until 1932.[926] In 1932, Aden was ruled as part of British India officially known as the Chief Commissioner's Province of Aden when its administration was put under the direct control of the Viceroy of India.[927] Since Aden was directly ruled it is classified as a de facto-colony. In accordance with the Aden Colony Order, 1936, Aden became a Crown Colony under the full responsibility of the Colonial Office, effective 04/01/1937.[928] The Aden Colony encompassed a limited area of 75-80 square miles, comprising Aden, Little Aden, Shaikh Othman, and Perim (Robbins 1939). When Aden was declared a colony in 1937, its hinterland became subject to distinctive jurisdiction issued by the Aden Protectorate Order of 1937 (Robbins 1939). Hence, more precisely it was partially both, a protectorate and a colony. In 1959, six states within the Aden protectorate were joined under the Federation of the Arab Emirates of the South. On 04/04/1962 nine formerly protected states were added and the State of Aden, formerly Aden Colony, joined the Federation on 01/18/1963 establishing the Federation of South Arabia with Aden as its capital city. In June 1963, the National Liberation Front for South Yemen (NLF) was formed in opposition to the British government.[929] The NLF started an armed struggle with the Front for the Liberation of Occupied South Yemen (FLOSY) known as the Aden Emergency on 10/14/1963 against British control. Following the Emergency period, the NLF rebranded itself

[924] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Yemen#British_rule
[925] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Yemen#British_rule
[926] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chief_Commissioner%27s_Province_of_Aden
[927] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chief_Commissioner%27s_Province_of_Aden
[928] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chief_Commissioner%27s_Province_of_Aden
[929] https://uca.edu/politicalscience/dadm-project/middle-eastnorth-africapersian-gulf-region/british-south-arabian-federation-1959-1967/

as the National Front and ultimately played a central role in forming the Yemeni Socialist Party, which later governed the nation as a Marxist-Leninist state under a single-party system.[930]

11/30/1967 End (de facto) Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy] [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start One-Party Autocracy [as independent country]: On this date, South Yemen gained independence from the United Kingdom. British troops completed their withdrawal from the territory on 11/29/1967. Following the British departure, the NLF seized power.[931] Quathan Muhammad al-Shabii became the country's first president leading the NLF. In 1967 Universal suffrage was introduced, but no elections were held. [932]

06/22/1969 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Communist Ideocracy: Al-Shabii held the presidency until 06/22/1969, when on that day, a hard-line Marxist group from within his own NLF led by Abdul Fattah Ismail and Salim Rubai Ali seized control in an event known as the Corrective Move.[933] A new constitution was proclaimed on 11/30/1970 which changed the name of the country to People's Democratic Republic of Yemen (PDRY) (Ismael 1981). PDRY became a Marxist–Leninist one-party state in 1969 and was the only communist state to be established in the Arab world.[934] On 06/26/1978 Salim Rubai Ali was overthrown and executed allegedly for his role in assassinating the president of North Yemen. Ali Nasir Muhammad became head of the presidential council in the aftermath.[935] On 12/18/1978 all political parties were amalgamated into the National Liberation Front, renamed the Yemeni Socialist Party in 1978. The first post-independence parliamentary elections were held in South Yemen between 12/16 and 12/18/1978. They saw 175 candidates (all affiliated with the Yemeni Socialist Party, the sole legal party) contest the 111 seats.[936] On 12/27/1978 Ali Nasir Muhammad was forced to resign by Abdul Fattah Ismail who formed a new military-party based junta. However, this is classified as a continuation of the previous communist regime. On 04/02/1980 Abdul Fattah Ismail was forced to resign after a confrontation with his prime minister. The Soviets wanted him to remain as figure head in the government to starve off a bloody conflict between the two factions.[937] On 01/13/1986 a violent struggle between supporters of Nasir and opponents became a civil war. In

[930] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Yemen#1969_establishment_of_a_Marxist-Leninist_state
[931] https://uca.edu/politicalscience/dadm-project/middle-eastnorth-africapersian-gulf-region/british-south-arabian-federation-1959-1967/
[932] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[933] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Yemen; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Corrective_Move
[934] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Yemen
[935] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ali_Nasir_Muhammad
[936] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/South_Yemen;
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1978_South_Yemeni_parliamentary_election
[937] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ali_Nasir_Muhammad

the midst of the fight a violent coup purged Nasir and others. Haidar Abu Bakr al-Attas claimed executive power in the party and the ruling junta in the aftermath.[938]

On 05/22/1990 the Unification of North and South Yemen as Republic of Yemen End Civil War Unification of South Yemen with the North ended the existence of South Yemen as a separate nation (Clark 2010: 134-40). For the years 1990 onwards see **Yemen**.

Zambia

[Formerly known as Northern Rhodesia]

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 11/28/1899]: Since around the end of the 19th century, North-Eastern and North-Western Rhodesia were administered by the charter of the British South Africa Company (BSAC).[939] On 11/28/1899 North Western Rhodesia with Barotziland officially became a British protectorate by the Barotziland-North Western Rhodesia Order in Counsil.[940] On 01/29/1900 North-Eastern Rhodesia officially became a British protectorate by the North-Eastern Rhodesia Order in Council.[941] On 08/17/1911, they were united as Northern Rhodesia (McCracken 1986, Paxton 1980). While the British legislation "gave it the status of a protectorate" the BSAC charter de facto had features of a charter colony.[942] The colonial economy was based on special treaties concluded with the company in 1898 and 1900, although they were later reduced (McCracken 1986).

04/01/1924 End Colonial Regime [of British South Africa Company]/Start Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Semidemocracy]: On this date, the British South Africa Company was relieved of the administration of the territory by the Crown and Northern Rhodesia was transferred to the control by the Colonial Office (Paxton 1980). Although now officially a British Protectorate, the first years of Colonial Office rule also favored white settlers. Moreover, in 1925, a legislative council was set up. It was presided by the Governor of Northern Rhodesia who was appointed by the British Government.[943] The electoral franchise system was established in such a way that

[938] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Haidar_Abu_Bakr_al-Attas
[939] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/British_South_Africa_Company
[940] http://bnfa.info/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/Barotseland-Northwestern-Rhodesia-Order-in-Council-1899.pdf
[941] https://hansard.parliament.uk/lords/1900-02-15/debates/7361c6a7-ce8b-4433-b398-f85b74fc5824/ForeignJurisdictionAct1890
[942] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Northern_Rhodesia
[943] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Governor_of_Northern_Rhodesia

it almost completely excluded Africans (McCracken 1986). Electors had to be United Kingdom citizens. Additionally, they had to be able to fill out an application form in English and have an annual income of at least £200.[944] Therefore, it is only justified to code this period as colonial rule. The protectorate of Northern Rhodesia with Southern Rhodesia and Nyasaland joined in a Union as part of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland in August 1953. The Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was not a sovereign state, and yet it markedly differed from a normal British dependency. It had control over its defense, finance, and trade policies, all areas in which dependent British territories lacked full authority. Although it did not have equal status with the members of the Commonwealth, it enjoyed virtual responsible government. Its affairs were the concern of the Commonwealth Relations Office and its Prime Minister attended the Commonwealth Prime Ministers Conference (Rosberg 1956: 98-105).

12/31/1963 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Semidemocracy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Democracy]: On this date, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was dissolved. A nine-month period of internal self-government followed thereafter (Paxton 1980). Nkumbula agreed to work in a coalition with Kaunda as prime minister. the two and their parties worked together until the United National Independence Party (UNIP) gained 55 of the 75 parliamentary seats in a pre-independence election in 1964 with a much wider franchise.[945] A new UNIP-led government was sworn in shortly before the end of January. Governor Evelyn Dennison Hone retained responsibility for foreign affairs, defense and policing.[946] He fostered a positive working rapport with Kenneth Kaunda, contributing to the groundwork for Northern Rhodesia's independence.[947]

10/24/1964 Continuation Semidemocracy [as independent country]: On this date Northern Rhodesia was granted independence as the Republic of Zambia (Paxton 1980). Kaunda became the first president of independent Zambia. From the beginning autocratic tendencies were evident, especially with regard to the political rights of the opposition.[948]

02/28/1967 End Semidemocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: In line with GWD, we identify 02/28/1967 as the point in time when the UNIP-dominated government crossed the fine line between democracy and Autocracy: the February 1967 by-elections, triggered to replace MPs who had departed from UNIP to establish a new opposition party and subsequently had their mandates revoked, saw widespread intimidation and violence by ruling party (UNIP) activists,

[944] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Northern_Rhodesia#Pre-war
[945] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Northern_Rhodesia#End_of_Federation_and_independence
[946] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1964_Northern_Rhodesian_general_election
[947] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Evelyn_Hone
[948] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kenneth_Kaunda

resulting in victories for UNIP (Tordoff and Molteno 1974, 23). Further violations of opposition political rights occurred during the following couple of years. In the first half of 1968, prior to the December 1968 general election, a number of UP supporters were beaten or stoned by UNIP youths, and some houses were burned (Rasmussen 1969, 414). In August 1968, the UNIP government banned the opposition UP and arrested most of its leaders (Molteno and Scott 1974, 156, Tordoff and Molteno 1974, 27). A number of ANC (the traditional opposition) candidates were prevented from filing their nomination forms prior to the 12/1968 election by UNIP roadblocks and local violence (Molteno/Scott 1974: 164). The 1968 election was thus not free and fair.

12/08/1972 End Electoral Autocracy/Start One-party Autocracy: On this date, Zambia became a one-party state led by the United National Independence Party (UNIP). All other political parties were banned. The 1973 constitution, along with the subsequent national elections in December 1973, marked the culmination of the establishment of what was termed a "one-party participatory democracy".[949] In July 1990, members of the Kaunda cabinet defected from the regime and entered a coalition with opposition leader Frederick Chiluba, head of the copper workers union.

11/01/1991 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: Kaunda agreed to call multiparty elections on this date, thinking he would win. However, the election was won by the opposition and opposition leader Chiluba took power (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 68, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 109, Bjornlund 1992: 405-31, Molteno/Scott 1974). In December of the same year, a multi-party democracy was re-introduced.[950] From the start of the new regime there were repeated violations of democratic norms by the MMD, particularly with regard to the opposition. Controversial modifications to the constitution and the imprisonment of political adversaries drew significant criticism, leading some donor nations, such as the United Kingdom and Denmark, to withdraw their financial assistance.[951]

05/28/1996 End Semidemocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: Relying on an overwhelming legislative majority, president Chiluba pushed through a series of constitutional amendments on this date that made former president Kenneth Kaunda ineligible to run for office as the new rules required presidential candidates to have two parents holding Zambian citizenship.[952] On 11/18/1996, general elections were held which were boycotted by the main opposition party, the

[949] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Zambia

[950]https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Zambia#:~:text=The%20politics%20of%20Zambia%20takes,of%20a%20multi%2Dparty%20system.

[951] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Zambia#Frederick_Chiluba_and_the_MMD

[952] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/History_of_Zambia#Frederick_Chiluba_and_the_MMD

United National Independence Party, together with five other allied parties.[953] President Chiluba easily defeated a weakened and fractured opposition (Haggard/Kaufman/Teo 2016: 93).[954] International and domestic observers also noted a number of other irregularities in the conduct of the election. It is generally viewed as not free and fair (Baylies 1997: 113-128, Mbao 1996: 1-11). General elections were held in December 2001 and even though a variety of parties contested, administrative and credibility problems arose. The newly elected president was Levy Mwanawasa and after a by-election his party got the majority in parliament.[955] International observers noted "serious irregularities with the campaign and election, including vote rigging, flawed voter registration unequal and biased media coverage and the MMD's improper use of state resources."[956]

11/28/2006 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date, Mwanawasa was re-elected as president. According to observers of the Commonwealth, the electors were able to exercise their democratic rights freely and fairly. Although there were some logistical problems and instances of violence of the police towards the opposition, these can be seen as isolated events. Overall, the results reflected the will of the Zambian people.[957] In this term, Mwanwasa's politics are seen as more democratic and in accordance with the rule of law, compared to Chiluba. He died after suffering a stroke in 2008, leading to new elections the same year.

10/30/2008 End Semidemocracy/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, elections were held after Mwanawasa's death in office. Mwanawasa´s vice president Rupiah Banda was elected president. Sata contended that the elections were marred by fraud and lodged a legal challenge seeking a recount. However, in March 2009, his plea was dismissed by the Supreme Court.[958] Several instances of violence were recorded and riots broke out after the results were announced.[959] Irregularities within the electoral process and the failure to reform such have paved the way for vote rigging, unequal access to resources by campaigners, flawed voter registration, unequal and biased media coverage and corruption have defined and led to the constant outbreak of electoral violence during Zambian elections over the past decades.[960]

08/12/2021 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Semidemocracy: On this date, the general elections indicated a major step towards democracy.[961] Hichilema was elected president over the

[953] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1996_Zambian_general_election
[954] https://freedomhouse.org/sites/default/files/2020-02/Freedom_in_the_World_2000-2001_complete_book.pdf
[955] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Politics_of_Zambia#2001%E2%80%932008
[956] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2001_Zambian_general_election
[957] https://aceproject.org/ero-en/regions/africa/ZM/zambia-final-report-general-elections-commonwealth-1/view
[958] https://freedomhouse.org/sites/default/files/2020-03/FIW_2010_Complete_Book_Scan.pdf
[959] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2008_Zambian_presidential_election
[960] https://freedomhouse.org/sites/default/files/2020-02/Freedom_in_the_World_2015_complete_book.pdf
[961] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2021_Zambian_general_election

incumbent president Edgar Lungu with a voter turnout of 70% marking the third transition of power since the countries' first multi-party elections in 1991 (Resnick 2022: 70-84, Lansford 2021). Yet, although the outcomes were deemed trustworthy, the competitions were also tainted by violence and the biased application of the law to obstruct the opposition.[962] Further, active manipulation of the voters' roll was also reported.[963]
Semidemocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

Additional sources (Krennerich 1999)

Zanzibar

01/01/1900 Absolute Monarchy [as Protectorate of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start:10/19/1856]: Zanzibar was incorporated into Oman's overseas territory in 1698 after Oman's victory over the Portuguese in Mombasa. Said bin Sultan moved to Zanzibar in the early 1800s and established a ruling Arab elite, promoted clove plantations with slave labor, and attracted Indian traders.[964] His sons Majid and Thuwaini fought over control, leading to the separation of Oman and Zanzibar. On 10/19/1856 the Sultanate of Zanzibar was created.[965] Zanzibar then became a British protectorate on 07/01/1890 after the Heligoland-Zanzibar Treaty between the United Kingdom and Germany.[966] In 1886, the British government encouraged William Mackinnon to increase British influence in the region, leading to the formation of the British East Africa Association and the Imperial British East Africa Company. However, the company failed, and the British government proclaimed the East Africa Protectorate in 1895. In 1902, the administration was transferred to the Colonial Office, and Uganda was incorporated into the protectorate.[967] Zanzibar is in this period a borderline case between a de facto colony and a protectorate with a say in its inner affairs. During the British rule, they exercised their power thru an indirect rule. The Sultanate was allowed to continue, however, it had less power.[968]
12/10/1963 Continuation Absolute Monarchy [as independent country]: On this date, the United Kingdom terminated the protectorate over Zanzibar, which had been in place since 1890. Although the United Kingdom never had sovereignty over Zanzibar, the Zanzibar Act of 1963

[962] https://freedomhouse.org/country/zambia/freedom-world/2022
[963] https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-dashboard/ZMB
[964] https://academic.oup.com/book/33093/chapter-abstract/282271632?redirectedFrom=fulltext
[965] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_sultans_of_Zanzibar
[966] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heligoland%E2%80%93Zanzibar_Treaty
[967] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sultanate_of_Zanzibar
[968] https://www.britannica.com/place/Sultanate-of-Zanzibar

ended the protectorate status and allowed for Zanzibar to have full self-government as an independent country within the Commonwealth. Zanzibar became a constitutional monarchy within the Commonwealth under the Sultan.[969]

01/23/1964 End Absolute Monarchy/Start One-Party Autocracy: On this date, a month after Zanzibar's independence, a rebellion ousted the monarchy and brought a repressive autocratic regime led by the Afro-Shirazi Party to power (Lansford 2012a: 1411, Zolberg 1968: 82). After the Zanzibar Revolution, the Afro-Shirazi Party (ASP)[970] and Umma parties formed a Revolutionary Council to serve as an interim government, with Abeid Karume as the President and Abdulrahman Mohammad Babu as the Minister of External Affairs. The country was renamed the People's Republic of Zanzibar, and the new government immediately banned the Sultan, as well as the Zanzibar Nationalist Party and Zanzibar and Pemba People's Party.[971]

04/26/1964 End One-Party Autocracy/Start Part of other Country [Tanzania, Electoral Autocracy]: On this date, Zanzibar merged with mainland Tanganyika. The new country was then named the "United Republic of Tanganyika and Zanzibar".[972] ASP leaders agreed to union with Tanganyika to buttress their own position in Zanzibar. The union of Zanzibar and Tanganyika consolidated ASP's control over Zanzibar. Irregularities and violence have continued to plague Zanzibari elections.[973] In 1964, Tanu's tolerance of opposition also declined. lt began to coerce the civil servants and police to join Tanu, and citizens had to produce a TANU card to get medical care or crop selling privileges (Burton/Charton-Bigot 2010: 208).

See for the time after 04/26/1964 **Tanzania**.

Zimbabwe

[Formerly known as Southern Rhodesia]

01/01/1900 Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Electoral Oligarchy] [Start: 10/29/1889]: At the beginning of the 20th century, Zimbabwe (Mashonaland and Matabeleland) was administered by the British South Africa Company (BSAC) as Southern Rhodesia as a British colony. This arrangement followed the Rudd Concessions, a treaty signed under pressure by Lobgengula, King of Ndebele (Matabele) in 1888, granting Cecil Rhodes, founder of the BSAC, exclusive

[969] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sultanate_of_Zanzibar
[970] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Afro-Shirazi_Party
[971] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/People%27s_Republic_of_Zanzibar
[972] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tanzania#Modern
[973] http://www.state.gov/r/pa/ei/bgn/2843.htm

control over metal and mineral rights, as well as commercial and legal powers in exchange for British protection, payments, and weapons. Based on this treaty, Cecil Rhodes received a charter from the British government on 10/291889 allowing him to establish the BSAC, modelled on the British and Dutch East India companies (Roberts 1986).[974] The BSAC had the authority to raise its police force, create settlements, and govern Zimbabwe on behalf of Britain. In 1895, the BSAC officially renamed the region as Southern Rhodesia. The Southern Rhodesian order-in-council of 1898 in the British government established the colony's governance and remained in effect until 1923 when the BSAC's rule ended, and Southern Rhodesia gained self-government. Moreover, it was a compromise between business and imperial interests, resulting in a settler colony characterized by land seizures, segregation in governance, denying African political participation (Mlambo 2014, Raftopoulos/Mlambo 2009). On 10/10/1898, an all-white Southern Rhodesian legislative council was introduced as the governing body of the BSAC. Legislative council elections were held on 04/17/1899, marking the first election in the colony. The council consisted of at least ten voting members: the Southern Rhodesia administrator, five members nominated by the BSAC, and four members elected by registered voters. The right to vote was limited to British subjects, male, aged 21 years or older, literate, and meeting specific financial requirements. No political parties existed at the time, and candidates ran independently.[975] In 1919 restricted suffrage was introduced (for whites only).[976]

10/01/1923 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Electoral Oligarchy [as self-governing colony/(de facto) Protectorate of United Kingdom]: On this date, the British government formally assumed control of Southern Rhodesia from the BSAC and integrated it into the British Empire after a referendum on 10/27/1922 (Day 1969). In the referendum, only sixty members of the 900.000 African population were eligible to vote. The 1923 constitution granted significant self-government to the Southern Rhodesian prime minister, but foreign policy and specific legislation affecting Africans to conditions or restrictions not applying to Europeans were subject to British government veto (Martin/Johnson 1981, Day 1969, Mlambo 2014). Moreover, a government was established under a British governor, assisted by an executive council and a legislature (McCracken 1986, Steinberg 1966). First general elections under the new constitution took place on 04/29/1924.[977] However, only white settlers formed the government, excluding any native population from exercising power.[978] On 08/01/1953, the

[974] https://www.sahistory.org.za/dated-event/queen-victoria-britain-approves-charter-rhodes

[977] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1924_Southern_Rhodesian_general_election
[978] https://www.britannica.com/topic/British-South-Africa-Company#ref29434

British government established the Central African Federation (CAF) comprising Southern Rhodesia, Northern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland. In the preceding Southern Rhodesian federation referendum on 04/09/1953, only 429 Africans were eligible to vote (Martin/Johnson 1981). As it was not a sovereign entity, the constitutional status of Southern Rhodesia as a self-governing entity was not affected.[979] The federation had a two-tier system of government in which federal administrative posts, such as governor and parliament, were replicated at the territorial level. While the territorial government had autonomy over local matters, including African affairs, the federal government was responsible for defense and foreign policy. African representation in the federal assembly was severely limited, and they were allocated only six representatives, two for each territory, of the 35 seats (Raftopoulos/Mlambo 2009). On 09/12/1957, the Southern Rhodesian National Congress (SRANC), the first nationalist African party, was formed but banned again in 1959. The same year, Prime Minister Edgar Whitehead declared a state of emergency, and 500 leaders and members of the SANC were arrested (Day 1969, Martin/Johnson 1981). The SANC was succeeded by the National Democratic Party (NDP) on 01/01/1960, advocating for African rights, one man, one vote, and a constitutional conference. However, the NDP was banned in 1961 and succeeded by the Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU) (Raftopoulos/Mlambo 2009). On 07/26/1961, a new constitution was approved in a referendum. It gave Southern Rhodesia almost complete internal autonomy (Crawford 2006). The new electoral system purportedly widened the franchise for Africans by creating a 'B Roll' with lower qualifications. It also provided for an enlargement of the Rhodesian parliament from 30 to 65 members, 15 of whom would be elected by B Roll voters (Raftopoulos/Mlambo 2009). General elections under the new constitution were held in 1962. However, they were boycotted by many black Africans many of whom did not qualify to vote under the constitution anyway.[980] The federation was dissolved on 12/31/1963 and on 10/24/1964, the country was renamed Rhodesia. From then on, the country was de facto independent (Steinberg 1966). On 11/11/1965 a unilateral declaration of independence by Southern Rhodesia followed. In 1964, Ian Smith became Prime Minster and led the white minority government, a position he held until 1979. Under him, the independence was declared, and the Bush War took place.[981] On 03/02/1970 a new constitution was adopted. General elections were held on 04/10/1970 in which the Rhodesian Front Party won 50 of the 66 seats. On 05/28/1970 the new bicameral Parliament was opened by the president, replacing the unicameral Legislative Assembly.[982] Britain, however,

[979] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Federation_of_Rhodesia_and_Nyasaland
[980] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1962_Southern_Rhodesian_general_election
[981] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ian_Smith
[982] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Parliament_of_Zimbabwe

declared the regime and independence as illegal (Paxton 1980). In 1978 universal suffrage was introduced.[983] A draft constitution was accepted by the white electorate in a referendum in 1979. In April 1979 general elections were held under a restricted 'whites-only' franchise for the 72 black seats in the IOO-seat Parliament. The United African National Council (UANC) won 51 of the 72 seats and Bishop Abel Muzorewa became prime minister of Rhodesia-Zimbabwe on 06/01/1979.

12/12/1979 End Electoral Oligarchy/Start Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]: On this date Zimbabwe returned to colonial status. Elections took place on 02/14/1980 and 02/04/1980. The newly formed House of Assembly was designed to consist of 100 members. Of these, 80 would be elected proportionally by province, with all adult citizens participating in a common roll. Additionally, 20 members would be elected in single-member constituencies, but only by white voters on a separate roll.[984] The result was a victory of Robert Mugabe and the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) won 57 of the 80 black seats (Paxton 1980). Ian Smith's Rhodesian Front won all 20 of the white roll seats, with most of its candidates running unopposed. Increasing tensions between black majority and white minority led to civil war. The elections were clearly not fair. The electoral regime still had a bias towards the white minority. Conversely, onlookers noted extensive violence and coercion against non-white voters by ZANU combatants and supporters. The trend of violence against dissenters has persisted ever since (Kriger 2003: 311, Norman 2004: 84-87, 95-96, Geddes/Wright/Frantz 2014: 109).

04/18/1980 End Colonial Regime [of United Kingdom, Democracy]/Start Electoral Autocracy: Zimbabwe became an independent state under the rule of ZANU and Mugabe. Its independence was recognized by the United Kingdom. One of the most contentious issues during this period was land redistribution. Land was a key source of tension, with many white-owned farms still in the hands of a few landowners, while the majority of the population had limited access to arable land.

Among the earliest and most egregious displays of the new regime's brutality were the Gukurahundi massacres in Matabeleland, claiming approximately 20,000 lives, predominantly from the Ndebele minority.[985] The formation of the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) in 1999, by a wide range of civic movements, led to the first opposition party that posed a serious threat to ZANU-PF rule.[986] The outcomes of successive elections during the period from 2000 to 2018 were highly contested, while the elections themselves were marked by gross human rights

[983] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Women%27s_suffrage
[984] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/1980_Southern_Rhodesian_general_election
[985] https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/ZWE
[986] https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/ZWE

violations (particularly in 2002 and 2008) and election irregularities. The 2013 election was characterized by more subtle forms of intimidation and violence.[987] On 11/06/2017, Mugabe dismissed Mnangagwa Emmerson as vice-president, in a move that positioned First Lady Grace Mugabe to succeed the aging president.[988]

11/21/2017 End Electoral Autocracy/Start Non-Electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime: On this date, following nationwide protests in 2016, a military coup took place. It forced Mugabe to step down after he dismissed his Vice-President, and he was replaced by Mnangagwa. Mnangagwa was also a leading member of ZANU–PF and a longtime ally of Mugabe.[989] However, his appointment was not in accordance with the constitution.[990] Since the military launched a coup but did not take over the new regime is classified as a non-electoral transitional regime and not a military autocracy.[991]

07/30/2018 End Non-Electoral Transitional (Multiparty) Regime/Start Electoral Autocracy: On this date, general elections were held. The 2018 elections were historic, as they were the first ones in which Mugabe did not participate. It saw the ZANU-PF getting control of the parliament (again), and Emmerson Mnangagwa victorious in the presidential election beating the young MDC-A leader, Nelson Chamisa.[992] The elections showed competitive campaigning and peaceful voting but fell short in key areas. There were deficiencies in legal recourse, equal suffrage, and voter registration. The pre-election environment was marred by biased state media, misuse of state resources, and an electoral commission lacking impartiality. Final results lacked transparency and errors were abundant. Post-election, political freedoms were restricted, security forces used excessive force, and human rights abuses occurred. These shortcomings mean the 2018 elections did not meet international standards.[993] The current government has predominantly upheld the legal, administrative, and security structures inherited from the Mugabe era. Despite an initial phase of enhancement, it has intensified repression to solidify its control.[994] In the general elections on 08/23/2023 Mnangagwa was reelected as president.[995] The elections were overshadowed by claims of intimidation, electoral irregularities, and violence.

[987] https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/ZWE
[988] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emmerson_Mnangagwa
[989] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emmerson_Mnangagwa
[990] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Zimbabwe#History
[991] https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/ZWE
[992] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2018_Zimbabwean_general_election; https://bti-project.org/en/reports/country-report/ZWE
[993] https://www.europarl.europa.eu/cmsdata/212506/Zimbabwe-General-Elections_2018_final-report.pdf
[994] https://freedomhouse.org/country/zimbabwe
[995] https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2023_Zimbabwean_general_election

Persistent issues, including the need for electoral reforms and unfair voter registration processes, remained unaddressed.[996]

Electoral Autocracy as of 07/01/2024 continued.

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