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A Level AQA Course Companion: Paper 2S

The Making of Modern Britain: Part 2 1979–2007

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Teacher's Introduction

This comprehensive resource is designed to help teachers deliver and students study for a key module of the AQA A Level Modern History syllabuses, The Making of Modern Britain, 1951–2007: Part Two: Modern Britain, 1979–2007. This pack is for year two of the A Level Course. If you are looking for year one material then you will need our co-teachable pack, Part One: building and new Britain, 1951–1979. A timeline and introductory tasks have been provided to give a broad overview of the time period.

Remember!

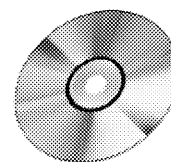
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The years after World War II saw Britain facing a new landscape in attempting to recover from the hardships of war. The country faced bankruptcy and economic disaster due to the costs of a prolonged military conflict that had lasted almost six years, and there was continued rationing and austerity even when the war was over, as politicians struggled to find answers that would speed up the nation's economic recovery. In the ensuing years, both Conservative and Labour governments sought to deal with the challenges the country faced, offering a range of policies that adhered broadly to the concept of a post-war 'consensus'. Only with the advent of Margaret Thatcher in the mid-1970s did a more radical and alternative approach in dealing with the country's economic and social problems emerge.

This document covers how Britain developed politically, economically and socially during this post-war period, focusing on key twentieth-century leaders including Thatcher, Major and Blair. It also charts key events such as the Falklands War, the miners' strike, the Poll Tax riots, Black Wednesday and events surrounding the Iraq War of 2003.

This resource, therefore, thoroughly charts and analyses the attempts by various British governments to reconstruct the country in the post-war era, with specific focus on the politicians who sought to steady the nation's domestic and international position in what was a challenging period. There is also focus on the changing nature of the relationship between the citizen and the state, again with particular focus on the economic, social, political and foreign elements of historical study. The document ultimately focuses on the key events, issues and developments of the early 1980s through to the early twenty-first century.

The material is produced in an easy-to-read way, with key terms and phrases highlighted throughout and visual content (charts, photos, etc.) to enhance learning. There are regular tasks and talking points which can be used as formal assignments or can be more casually used as question and answer sessions in lessons which may generate further discussion. ***There are also some accompanying PowerPoint presentations that are aimed at complementing and enhancing student learning of some of the issues and concepts discussed throughout this period of history.***



In addition to this, there are also specific assignments for students to engage in, including filling in flow charts, gapped exercises, revision quizzes, source-based exercises, graphs and diagrams. It is hoped such material can enhance existing materials and introduce some new teaching techniques into the delivery of the subject, while making learning more enjoyable for the students. The material can be used in its entirety in a sequential way, or, alternatively, can be dipped in and out of to supplement and bolster existing teaching materials (which you may be short of) or to vary your teaching of a particular topic.

This resource follows the time period in a chronological manner. This is to make it easier for students to understand as they follow a clear timeline of events, and to show them how one factor (such as economic policy) can affect and impact on another factor (e.g. politics). As the specification has taken a thematic approach, we've added the following symbols to each subheading so students know which theme is being addressed in the text.

- £ Economy
- 🌐 Foreign affairs
- 👥 Social issues
- 🏛️ Politics

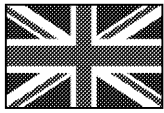
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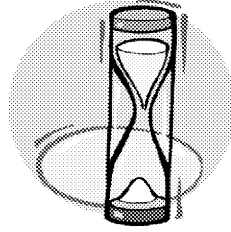
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July 2017



Timeline of British History (1978-1987)



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1978-9	Sustained industrial unrest results in the ' <i>winter of discontent</i> ' and Margaret Thatcher win power for the Conservatives.
1979	Margaret Thatcher (<i>right</i>) is elected as Britain's first female prime minister as the Conservatives return to power after five years in opposition. Michael Foot takes over from Callaghan as Labour's new leader.
1980	Thatcher removes the link between pensions and average earnings, which helps control public expenditure. She also introduces laws to limit power of trade unions, privatises nationalised industries and encourages home ownership.
1981	The ' <i>Gang of Four</i> ' break away from the ' <i>moderate</i> ' right-wing of the Labour Party to form the SDP (<i>Social Democrat Party</i>).
1982	The Falklands War (<i>right</i>), commences in April after Argentina invades the islands. Britain declares war and reclaims the territory after 74 days, boosting Thatcher's status ('Falklands factor').
1983	After the Falklands victory, Thatcher wins the general election in a landslide triumph. Opposition is divided and Labour's worst performance since 1945 result sees Neil Kinnock succeed Foot as leader.
1984	The miners' strike begins. After a year of violence and unrest, the strike is defeated and Thatcher is victorious. <i>*Brighton bomb – the IRA attack the Conservative Party Conference, killing Thatcher and her cabinet.</i>
1986	The Single European Act is signed by Margaret Thatcher, leading to closer European integration. <i>*The 'Westland affair' leads to Michael Heseltine's resignation from the cabinet, creating a potential rival for Conservative leadership.</i>
1987	A historic third election win for Thatcher amidst economic boom and its downside sees unemployment creeping up.

1989	<p>The Poll Tax is introduced in Scotland, a year ahead of the rest of the UK. Chancellor Nigel Lawson resigns in protest at Thatcher's style of leadership and use of political advisers.</p> <p><i>*Britain joins the ERM (Exchange Rate Mechanism) – a cross-European link.</i></p>
1990	<p>Riots in London and other cities against the flagship Poll Tax, damage Thatcher's position. Prior to her departure from office, Deputy Prime Minister Sir Geoffrey Howe resigns, criticising the Prime Minister's leadership style.</p> <p><i>*After over eleven years as prime minister, Thatcher reluctantly resigns following a leadership challenge by Michael Heseltine. John Major (right) succeeds as prime minister.</i></p>
1992	<p>Against all the odds, John Major wins the 1992 general election with a narrow parliamentary majority of 21, the Conservatives' fourth in a row.</p> <p><i>*Black Wednesday – September 1992 – the pound leaves the ERM, destroying Conservatives' economic credibility.</i></p>
1993	<p>John Major's disastrous 'back to basics' campaign leads to further erosion of support for the Conservatives.</p>
1994	<p>Tony Blair (right) becomes the new leader of the Labour Party, leading the 'New Labour' and 'modernising' the party in the process.</p> <p>John Major wins leadership election to remain Conservative leader, but outflanks his critics.</p>
1995	<p>Tony Blair removes 'Clause 4' (of nationalisation of industry) from the Labour Party's Constitution.</p>
1996	<p>Following defections and deaths of MPs, at the end of 1996 John Major loses his parliamentary majority and the Conservatives form a minority government.</p>
1997	<p>Labour takes office for the first time in 18 years under Tony Blair with a landslide 179 seat majority. The Conservatives suffer their worst election defeat of the twentieth century.</p>
1997–8	<p>Devolution introduced in Scotland and Wales, while Northern Ireland agrees to peaceful government with the signing of the Good Friday Agreement (1998).</p>
2001	<p>Blair is re-elected with a second landslide election victory. The September 11 terrorist attacks (right) have major impact on both foreign and domestic policies of Blair's Government.</p>

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2003	Blair controversially supports US invasion of Iraq, causing major divisions within the governing party and across the country.
2005	Despite growing unpopularity and the failures of Iraq War, Blair is re-elected with a reduced majority, becoming the first Labour prime minister to win three successive general elections.
2007	After ten years as prime minister, Tony Blair stands down to be replaced by his long-term Chancellor and political rival, Gordon Brown.

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Introductory History Exercise

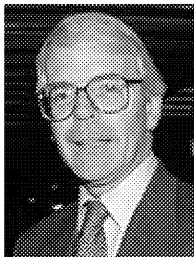
Key figures of Britain 1979–2007

Using textbooks and the Internet, can you find out at least six things about the individuals below? Present your findings to the rest of your group.

Margaret Thatcher



John Major



Tony Blair



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The Impact of Thatcherism (1979)

After two demoralising yet very close general election defeats in 1974, Edward Heath was ousted by Margaret Thatcher as Conservative leader in February 1979. Many historians mark this date as the end of the so-called 'years of consensus' in British politics. Four years later in 1979, in the midst of trade union unrest, the Conservatives eventually came to national power with a convincing parliamentary majority. On being elected and as she was about to enter 10 Downing Street for the first time as prime minister, Margaret Thatcher quoted St Francis of Assisi, stating:

Where there is discord, may we bring harmony. Where there is error, may we bring truth. Where there is doubt, may we bring faith, and where there is despair, may we bring hope.

There would be much debate over future years as to whether she successfully fulfilled her inspired promise. The swing of 5.2%, which was the biggest since 1945, indicated a change within the British electorate, and Thatcher appeared to offer a clear vision of the future. However, she was less clear about what she proposed to do or what she was for. She was entering a challenging existing environment of industrial decline and rampant trade union power.

Thatcher's style was deliberately confrontational. She made no secret of the fact that she was blowing apart misbegotten notions of 'consensus'.¹

Party	MPs
	1979
Conservative	339
Labour	269
Liberal	11
Others	16

Thatcher and her 'New Right' allies were determined to end the 'years of consensus' that had existed since the 1950s, and they represented 'a major change in the consensus on welfare... (and) also a fundamental change in the Conservatives'.²

Task

Look at the Conservative Party's 1979 manifesto on the Internet and try to identify the party's policies represented a new direction after the 'years of consensus'. Provide two policy examples to support this viewpoint.

The following web links may be of use for this purpose:

- <http://www.margareththatcher.org/document/110858>
- <http://www.conservativemanifesto.com/1979/1979-conservative-manifesto>



New Right

The 'New Right' is a conservative political movement that emerged in the USA in the 1980s. Its views consisted of a combination of very liberal (neo-liberal) attitudes towards a free capitalist economy, combined with conservative social attitudes relating to personal responsibility and the importance of maintaining law and order.

¹ Eric J Evans, *Thatcher and Thatcherism* (2nd ed., 2004), Ch. 4, p. 43.

² C Collette & K Laybourn, *Modern Britain Since 1979* (2003), Ch. 1, p. 8.

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The *'Thatcherites'* as they became known, identified successive Labour and Conservative governments as pursuing failed *'Keynesian'* policies that were damaging Britain's economy. They argued that the state had to do less and the individual be given more freedom. They also argued for higher general living standards, offering a significant review of the relationship between the state and the economy over the previous thirty years. They had also not forgotten the political humiliation of the Conservatives in 1974 at the hands of what they believed to be an over-powerful state that needed to be restricted and controlled.

Margaret Thatcher as leader

As well as being the first female prime minister, Thatcher was unusual in coming from outside the part of the semi-aristocratic Conservative hierarchy of landowners and gentry. She came from a lower middle class background, the daughter of a grocer with distinctly trade roots. Thatcher rejected the paternalistic approach of the *'One Nation'* Conservative tradition in favour of an *'individualistic'* free market outlook.

A key influence was the American economist **Milton Friedman** who devised monetarism as an alternative to socialism. She and her allies on the *'New Right'*, including Keith Joseph were also particularly influenced by **F A Hayek's** (right) *'The Road to Serfdom'* (1944), an academic attack on collectivist government. Below is an extract from Hayek's *'individualistic'* viewpoint on economic management:

As soon as the state takes upon itself the task of planning the whole economic system, the interests of different individuals and groups must indeed become the central political problem. If the state will alone decide who is to have what, the only power worth having is the power of this directing power.

This single power, the ruling group, should have control over all human ends. It should have complete control over the position of each individual in society.³

Although Margaret Thatcher herself had no clearly formulated ideology or philosophy, she instead had a *'gut instinct..... to break away from the consensus that the two major parties had built up since the Second World War.'*⁴ This rejection of much of the post-war **consensus** (policy of gradualism and increasing adherence to such *'radical'* policies and ideas would subsequently be described as *'Thatcherism'*) led to her becoming *'the most controversial prime minister in post-war British history'*.⁵

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³ F A Hayek, *The Road to Serfdom* (1944), pp. 80–81.

⁴ Andy McSmith, *No Such Thing as Society: A History of Britain in the 1980s* (2011), Ch. 1, p. 1.

⁵ Alan Sked & Chris Cook, *Post War Britain: A Political History* (4th ed., 1993), Ch. 12, p. 32.

Thatcher's economic policies and the

Amidst early economic difficulties, there was division within the cabinet as moderates within the Conservative Party urged Margaret Thatcher to ease monetarist economic policies which involved severe cutbacks in public spending. To come from the 'Heathite wets' such as Ian Gilmour, Francis Pym and James Prior, a group of moderates who Thatcher often dismissed as 'Those Tory grandees', and who were eventually removed from her cabinet over the years. At the 1980 Conservative Party Conference, in response to growing social discontent due to her economic policies, Thatcher responded in a firm manner to calls to review her economic approach with a policy U-turn:

You turn (U-turn) if you want to, the lady's not for turning.

These sentiments, expressed in what became a landmark speech, cemented Thatcher's reputation as a strong leader and went some way to establishing her as the 'Iron Lady' in British politics. The explicit dismissal of a U-turn was also a pointed criticism of her economic policy in the early 1970s.

How Thatcher tackled inflation

Thatcher and her first Chancellor of the Exchequer, Geoffrey Howe, targeted inflation in the British economy, given that it peaked at 26% in the mid-1970s, and was still high when the Conservatives took office.

Inflation was a monetary phenomenon which it would require monetary discipline to control.

Thatcher and Howe believed that excessive inflation was at the root of Britain's economic poor performance throughout the 1970s. Harsh public spending cuts and monetarism were Thatcherite medicine for dealing with the key problems of inflation, balance of payments, and dealing with militant trade unions.



Monetarism

This economic theory focuses on inflation as the key economic indicator that needs to be controlled in the economy. This viewpoint believes that inflation is caused by an excess quantity of money in the system, and is closely aligned with a free-market outlook. The emphasis is, therefore, on controlling the money supply along with the provision of credit (financial loans), in order to generate growth while controlling inflation.

Key Thatcherite economic tools were as follows:

- Raising interest rates
- Reducing government expenditure and borrowing and running a balanced budget
- Direct and indirect taxes raised in the short term, notably VAT
- Deregulation of state controls and reduced subsidies to industry

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⁶ Margaret Thatcher, *The Downing Street Years* (1993), Ch. 1, p. 33.

Key Question

Did monetarism mean that high levels of unemployment, social unrest and strikes were inevitable?



Key Thatcher Cabinet Members

- **Geoffrey Howe** – Chancellor of Exchequer, Foreign Secretary and Deputy Prime Minister. Viewed as one of her most loyal supporters until he resigned and publicly criticised her in 1990.
- **Nigel Lawson** – Chancellor of Exchequer (1983–1989). Along with Howe, seen as one of the architects of Thatcherite economic policy. Like Howe, he tired of her autocratic style and resigned before arguing for her removal in 1990.
- **Michael Heseltine** – Environment Secretary, Defence Secretary (1979–1986). Resigned in 1986 after a downfall after resigning from her cabinet in 1986 and challenging her for the leadership.
- **Norman Tebbit** – Employment Secretary, Trade Secretary, Conservative Party Chairman. A loyalist of Thatcher, but one who remained loyal. Was heavily involved in passing new employment laws and steering the government through the 1984–1985 miners' strike. Resigned for his wife after they were both injured in the 1984 Brighton Bombing.

Thatcher's early Budgets have been summarised as follows:

Faced with an annual inflation rate well in excess of 20 per cent, Thatcher moved in favour of the rich in Geoffrey Howe's tax-cutting Budget of 1979... She then moved in favour of money, supporting Howe's 1981 Budget, which raised taxes during a recession to reduce inflation – which ran contrary to accepted 'Keynesian' policy.⁷

Howe's first Budget raised indirect taxation (e.g. VAT) as a means of controlling inflation; however, cut direct taxation, notably in relation to the top level of income tax, which was punitive 85% down to 60% in 1979. Limits on government spending and borrowing were introduced as part of the first phase of monetarism. Howe's most significant Budget was the one which took place in 1981, which saw significant spending cutbacks, particularly in various inner-cities. There are contrasting views of this particular Budget, with some seeing it as:

...the epitome of soundness, an exercise in rigour that laid the foundations for the success of the Thatcher revolution.⁸

By contrast, the 'wet' liberal Conservatives and some left-leaning commentators criticised the implications of such fiscal conservatism, while 364 economists famously wrote in a newspaper in 1981 warning that such hardline monetarist policies would cause a damaging recession and create further unemployment.

⁷ C Collette & K Laybourn, *Modern Britain Since 1979* (2003), Ch. 1, p. 8.

⁸ Larry Elliott, 'Budget 2010: George Osborne's austerity package haunted by spectre of 1981', <http://www.guardian.co.uk/uk/2010/jun/22/budget-budget-deficit>

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Unemployment and economic re-alignment

The successful evidence of the Conservative government's purge against inflation figures which indicated that inflation had **fallen by 21.8% in April 1980** to a figure which would fluctuate. This was a great economic achievement but at the cost of unemployment, peaking at over three million on two separate occasions, and **interest rates**, which ranged between 10 and 17% for most of the 1980s.

High interest levels were seen as a key element in controlling the money supply. There was also a sharp decline in manufacturing output due to these policies. Howe's early Budgets '*spectacularly gruesome*'.⁹ Chancellors Howe and Thatcher abandoned monetarism by 1986 with unemployment rapidly rising, inflation rising, and money supply rising rapidly: a situation ostensibly impossible according to monetarist economic policy. It was actually the lack of spending power due to reduced inflation, not the government's attempts to control the money supply.

8

Recession

A period of temporary depression in economic activity or overall prosperity. It specifically refers to a decline in any nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) or negative real economic growth, for two or more successive quarters of a year.

Thatcher's economic policies had led to a sharp **recession** from 1979–1982, and unemployment rocketed from one million in 1979 to a staggering three million in 1982, matched in the twentieth century during the depression-plagued 1930s. The government's spending reductions and the economy actually **shrank by 2%** over the period. These factors resulted in significant social problems and unrest, and notable riots in *Liverpool (Toxteth)*, with elements of racial tension evident in such unrest. It meant that '*throughout 1981, Britain was a country nowhere near to being at peace*'. Minister Michael Heseltine recalled the turbulence of '*that long hot summer*' in his memoirs:

*The trouble had begun with the riots in Brixton over Easter. In July the riots spread to South London, in Southall, in Moss Side in Manchester, in Birmingham, Preston, to a lesser extent in other cities around the country. But among the very worst was a period of a week or more in Toxteth, Liverpool.*¹²

Questions and Talking Points

1. Outline key differences between monetarism and Keynesianism economic policy in the 1970s. Focus on the following points: money supply, inflation, tax levels, interest rates.
2. Why was there so much civil and social unrest in the early 1980s?

⁹ Eric J Evans, *Thatcher and Thatcherism* (2nd ed., 2004) Ch. 2, p. 21.

¹⁰ Hugo Young, *One of Us* (1989), Ch. 12, p. 239.

¹¹ Michael Heseltine, *Life in the Jungle* (2000), Ch. 12, p. 215.

¹² Michael Heseltine, *Life in the Jungle* (2000), Ch. 12, p. 215.

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The Falklands War (1982)

Lead-up to conflict

There had been simmering tensions for some time about ongoing British sovereignty over the distant **Falkland Islands**, a one-time part of the Empire situated over 8,000 miles from mainland Britain. Given its location just off the Argentinian coast in the South Pacific, it was a group of islands which Argentina referred to as 'The Malvinas' and sought to reclaim for itself. Following some significant defence cuts and the withdrawal of British forces from the area from the late 1970s onwards, the unpopular military 'junta' that controlled Argentina saw an opportunity to boost its position, and on 2nd April 1982 it ordered the invasion of this distant British colony.

Political context and key events

The Argentinians had wrongly calculated that Britain was too weak to respond despite advice from some ministers and Foreign Office civil servants to negotiate. Thatcher was determined to avenge this aggression. She consequently sent a task force within days of the invasion. The military conflict formally commenced with the islands on 30th April 1982.

By mid-June the islands had been recaptured with the loss of 254 British troops and 25 Argentinians, at a financial cost of approximately £700 million for the British. One controversial incident of the conflict was Thatcher's order to sink the Argentinian ship *Belgrano* on 2nd May 1982. It was sunk because the British Navy claimed it was in a 'danger zone' around the islands, but Argentina claimed the ship was outside it. In the end, 21 Argentinian sailors and some have subsequently accused Thatcher of being too hard on the Argentinians in carrying out this order. However, others have hailed it as decisive leadership and a turning point in the war.

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Consequences of the conflict

The British military victory was confirmed when the Argentinians surrendered after a period of tension and uncertainty as to how the conflict would develop. It re-asserted itself on the international stage. There were then some major domestic changes that followed, and it ultimately appeared worth it for Thatcher and her government as their government's popularity soared as a result.

Prior to the Falklands conflict the Conservatives were staring down the barrel of a general election. Unemployment was rising and the opinion polls were indicating a loss of support. In November 1981 the formerly safe Conservative seat of Crosby on Merseyside was won by Labour's Peter Williams in a stunning by-election result. Had the war gone wrong, the Conservatives would certainly have seen the departure of Margaret Thatcher as prime minister, and she was fully aware of this throughout the conflict. This perceived national 'regeneration' created a surge in patriotism back in Britain and a boost in her own self-confidence. It was a boost for the Conservatives' election prospects, which had previously been undermined by rising unemployment and the emergence of the SDP (following this new party's split from the Labour Party in early 1981).

For further details on the 1982 Falklands War, the following website has more information:

🔗 http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/in_depth/uk/2007/falklands_anniversary/default.stm

There is also a good timeline below:

🔗 <http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2016/06/14/the-falklands-war-timeline/>

The 'Falklands Factor' was the single most important factor in the large Conservative victory in 1982.

Some have argued that the Falklands victory was part of a more **assertive** foreign policy for Margaret Thatcher, which included a more active and vigorous role against the Soviet Union during the Cold War.

Thatcher and the Cold War

The election to office of Thatcher in 1979 and **Ronald Reagan** (*below*) in the USA in 1980 can be very significant for the development and ultimate outcome of the Cold War. A conflict had existed between the capitalist West and the communist Eastern Bloc. Thatcher and Reagan shared a 'right-wing' ideology and were ardent 'free market' capitalists. They both sought to challenge and undermine the Soviet Union, a nation they perceived to be an enemy of the free world communist state.



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¹³ Eric J Evans, *Thatcher and Thatcherism* (2nd ed., 2004), Ch. 8, p. 99.

President Reagan's initial retreat from 'détente' to a more aggressive style of relations with the Soviet Union in the 1980s was ardently supported by his key ally Margaret Thatcher. As the 1980s progressed, it became clear that Thatcher and Reagan used their shared conservatism and their unity in often tense diplomatic dealings with the Soviet Union and its allies from a similar viewpoint. This close ideological affinity between Thatcher and Reagan formed an extremely close 'special relationship' during the 1980s.



Détente

Détente is a French term used in recent times to refer to a relaxing or easing of tensions in international politics particularly since the early 1970s, primarily relating to the thawing of relations between the Soviet Union and the USA and a general thawing of the Cold War tensions that had existed from the 1960s until the early 1980s.

Many believe that such a united approach was a key factor in bringing **Mikhail Gorbachev** to the negotiating table and ultimately contributed to the collapse of European communist regimes in the late 1980s, the end of the Cold War and the eventual break-up of the Soviet Union in 1991. Thatcher was said to have played a key role between the two superpowers:

She used her good relationship with Gorbachev to demonstrate...that she was able to move easily between the superpowers.¹⁴

Thatcher's support for the USA in this ideological conflict with the Soviets, her opposition to nuclear missiles on Greenham Common, sparking significant protests from **CND** (Campaign for Nuclear Disarmament), and also allowing US aircraft to fly over British airspace when necessary, all contributed to her reputation. Thatcher's high-profile visit to the Soviet Union in early 1987 projected her as a strong leader and generated powerful images that enhanced her reputation in the run-up to the 1992 election. As US-Soviet relations thawed and the Cold War appeared to be reaching its end in the final years of the 1980s, episodes such as the fall of the Berlin Wall (1989) and the reunification of Germany (1990) were seen to be major events in this process. Given her close relationship with superpower leaders over previous years, Margaret Thatcher could claim to have played a key role in the build-up to this dramatic shift in global relations.

This burgeoning international role appeared to have played a part in transforming Britain's position on the international scene, having been viewed as 'the sick man of Europe' in the 1970s. Britain could never claim to have the military or economic capacity of either of the superpowers, but by the mid to late 1980s it appeared to have a valuable contribution to make as a key player in the world. The implications of this were a marked improvement in Britain's reputation.

1983 general election and beyond

Party	MPs
	1983
Con	397
Lab	209
Lib	23
Others	21

After the patriotic frenzy created by the 1982 Falklands War, Margaret Thatcher won a massive electoral victory in 1983 with a parliamentary majority of 144 seats. Her overwhelming re-election for a second term was a surprise considering there were three million people unemployed at the time. The year marked the high point of Conservative popularity, assisted by a divided opposition, with the Labour Party winning only a quarter of the popular vote as Labour slumped to its lowest level since 1945.

¹⁴ Eric J Evans, *Thatcher and Thatcherism* (2nd ed., 2004), Ch. 9, p. 111.

During the 1983 general election campaign, Labour's left-wing shift under Foot had resulted in policies that were seen by the wider public as extreme and its manifesto later famously described by one Labour MP as *'the longest suicide note in history'*. Damaged by its SDP defectors, the Labour Party appeared to be in a very poor position to win government. Many wavering voters, therefore, rejected Labour, as opposed to endorsing the Conservatives.

The Prime Minister now appeared to be much more focused and *'driven by a clear vision'*. Policies developed further and took shape as an ideology. From the outset, the government was more confident and focused:

Far more successful than the first...it had direction, it became increasingly confident in the direction of public services and the reduction of public expenditure... on the welfare state.

Labour divisions – The Gang of Four and the SDP

The eventually decisive Conservative general election victory of 1983 was helped by ongoing Labour Party divisions. Such divisions came to a head at the party's general election defeat in May 1979, with each party faction blaming the other for the loss of power. The following year, 1980, saw the election of Michael Foot as new Labour leader, a figure from the party's left-wing faction which was now in ascendancy. The left-wing radical Tony Benn (*right*) also only lost out on becoming deputy leadership to the more moderate Denis Healey by the tiniest of margins.

Foot's leadership position was too much for the party's moderate wing to tolerate. Former Labour ministers **Roy Jenkins, David Owen, Shirley Williams** and **'Limehouse Declaration'**, *'calling for a new start in British politics... duly forming the SDP two months later'*.¹⁷

The SDP's main policy grievances with Labour were focused on its left-wing defence policies involving nuclear disarmament and its *'anti-Europeanism'* towards the EEC. The four prominent MPs at the SDP's head became known as *'The Gang of Four'*. The party threatened to *'break the mould'* of British politics and was initially bolstered by the defection of Labour MPs and one Conservative MP to its ranks.

Despite winning a series of high-profile by-elections in 1981–1982, namely in Crosby and in Glasgow, the SDP fizzled out as a political force against the Conservatives. The SDP won only six MPs in 1983 as part of an alliance with the Liberals and ceased to be an effective player on the British political scene. Most of its members joined the newly formed Liberal Democrats in 1988, but a few die-hards fought to the bitter end and the party dissolved as an organisation in 1990.

¹⁵ Eric J Evans, *Thatcher and Thatcherism* (2nd ed., 2004), Ch. 12, p. 146.

¹⁶ C Collette & K Laybourn, *Modern Britain Since 1979* (2003), Ch. 1, p. 9.

¹⁷ Andrew Marr, *A History of Modern Britain* (2007), p. 396.

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Post-election aftermath

In the aftermath of her second and most decisive general election victory in 1983, Thatcher have transformed her political fortunes and a dominant period of her leadership. A political ideology known as '*Thatcherism*' had been coined by the media, and as one



Key Principles of Thatcherism

- The 'free market' ideas/philosophy of Thatcher's ideological mentors Sir Keith Joseph and Enoch Powell
- Return to nineteenth-century classical laissez-faire economics
- Reduced role for the state (government)
- Victorian values
- Priority of market forces
- Creating a culture of enterprise
- Monetarism
- Focus on individualism and self-help
- British patriotism and nationalism

Thatcher was the only female prime minister to become emperor of 'Thatcherism'.¹⁸

Not everyone agrees with Thatcher's philosophy, as many critics argued that her approach was based on opposition to certain issues, e.g. trade union influence, etc. and that her policies were put together in a somewhat ad hoc way, what soon became clear as 'Thatcherite' policies were implemented and social division with

Questions and Talking Points

1. Was Thatcherism a credible political philosophy?
2. In what ways did Thatcherism mark a break from the political consensus of the 1970s?
3. Summarise the key factors in the 1983 general election result.

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¹⁸ Eric J Evans, *Thatcher and Thatcherism* (2nd ed., 2004), Ch. 1, p. 2

Thatcher and Europe

Margaret Thatcher generally became more hostile to all things European the longer she remained in office. In 1984 she negotiated a **financial rebate** from the European Union due to Britain getting a poor deal relating to how much countries paid into Europe and how much they got out. This was mainly due to the UK's relatively small farming sector, which resulted in Britain receiving only a small share of European farming subsidies. She signed the **Single**



Sovereignty

Supreme authority within a territory.

European Act in 1986, when, expressing scepticism towards Europe, 'she gave up **sovereignty** to the European Commission done before or since'.¹⁹

However, her evolving mood was particularly evident in her hostile and Eurosceptic speech in September 1988:

To try to suppress nationhood and concentrate power at the centre of a Europe is highly damaging and would jeopardise the objectives we seek to achieve. Europe is not a homogeneous entity because it has France as France, Spain as Spain, Britain as Britain, each with its own identity. It would be folly to try to fit them into some sort of identikit Europe.
Margaret Thatcher, Bruges Speech, 20th September 1988

This speech has been viewed as a key moment in the modern Conservative Eurosceptic discourse on Europe, as it:

...did reconfigure Conservative political discourse on Europe and legitimated Euroscepticism.

The **Bruges Group** of Eurosceptic Conservative MPs was formed in 1988 in response to such anti-European hostility was heightened by the **1988 Immigration Act** which restricted immigration to citizens of the EEC (later known as the EU). However, rising Euroscepticism and growing hostility to Europe. Tensions also emerged within the Conservative Party over the plan to build a Channel Tunnel which would improve transport and trade links with Europe. Some Conservatives were less enthusiastic than others, fearing a further undermining of national detachment and political **sovereignty**. However, commercial and business links with Europe began work commencing in 1988 and the landmark project being eventually completed in 1994.

Tensions over Europe appeared to come to a head with the damaging resignation of Deputy Prime Minister **Sir Geoffrey Howe** in November 1990. Howe cited his opposition to Europe and reluctance to join the **ERM (Exchange Rate Mechanism)** as being in the national interest. Britain's trade with Europe had increased from 30% to 50% of GDP, a fact cited by pro-Europeans as a key factor in maintaining constructive relations with the European Community.

¹⁹ Michael Heseltine, *Life in the Jungle* (2000), Ch. 16, p. 348.

²⁰ Source: <http://www.margaretthatcher.org/speeches/displaydocument.asp?docid=107332>

²¹ Andrew Geddes, 'Europe' in Kevin Hickson (ed.), *The Political Thought of the Conservative Party*

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From 1989 onwards Britain entered another recession, the second significant one since the Thatcher administration when unemployment again peaked at over 10%. Eurosceptics have blamed the onset of this economic slump on the decision to join the **Mechanism (ERM)** in October 1990, a policy Thatcher is said to have adopted from pro-European ministers. This policy, which continued under John Major, was part of an anti-inflation strategy, whereby the pound's interest rate was pegged to the German mark at all costs. This often resulted in interest rates that were higher than they should be. The reasons for joining were emphasised by Sir Geoffrey Howe in November 1990:



The conduct of our policy against inflation could no longer resist the pressures of the market and control the domestic money supply. We had no doubt that we were in a difficult battle, and, indeed, in other respects, by joining the Exchange Rate Mechanism, we were entering a monetary system.²²

Thatcher's increasing level of hostility to Europe was a key factor in many of the criticisms against her in 1990, as they felt her attitude to the continent was harming the British economy and sphere:

Her uncompromising stance on the European Community did not unify the Conservative Party, the image of a government that was both arrogant and divided.²³

It was perhaps no coincidence that her chief opponent for the leadership in 1990 was an ardent pro-European. In the post-Thatcher years, Europe has appeared to be running through the party, creating damaging divisions in its wake. One commentator has described the European issue as having 'formed the fault line of Conservative politics'.

Impact of Thatcherism on society

The miners' strike 1984–1985

In March 1984, simmering trade union unrest exploded into a full-scale miners' strike, which erupted as a successor to the two large strikes of the early 1970s and which went on to become 'the longest major strike in British history'.²⁵ The National Coal Board had announced proposals to close 20 mines with the loss of 20,000 jobs, and such plans to streamline and close hundreds of coal pits provoked an inevitable angry response from the mining unions. An earlier threat to strike had been curtailed in 1981 when a deal was struck with the unions.



However, many within the Conservative Party's leadership now saw the need to bring greater economic efficiency into the mining industry, along with the opposition following Heath's humiliation at the hands of the *National Union of Mineworkers*. The latter factor was particularly relevant to Thatcher who had been a cabinet minister in the previous government, and her administration felt that it was in a strong position in the 1980s, less reliant on British coal for electricity as had been the case in the past.

²² Sir Geoffrey Howe, speech in the House of Commons, Hansard, 13th November 1990, C.1000.

²³ Dennis Kavanagh & Anthony Seldon, *The Powers Behind the Prime Minister: The hidden influence of the Conservative Party*, p. 100.

²⁴ Philip Norton, 'The Constitution' in Kevin Hickson (ed.), *The Political Thought of the Conservative Party*, p. 100.

²⁵ Sammy Palfrey, *Writing and the Miners' Strike 1984–85*, Working Class Movement Library, p. 100.

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It was also an opportunity for the Thatcherite ideology to address the 'trade' all, as it had pledged to on taking office in 1979. The Thatcher administration had sourced cheap overseas coal supplies to prevent the over-reliance on domestic coal. Following her recent electoral success and defeat of the Argentinian invasion, she felt increasingly confident in dealing with what she viewed as 'the enemy within'.

Governments had walked in fear of a coal strike for decades... Margaret Thatcher did not just a strike but a spell. Parliament had regained its sovereignty.²⁶

With the weight of the government's resources and the police behind her and coal stockpiled in preparation for this dispute, it was always likely that Thatcher would win the strike victorious, unlike the less focused Heath in the 1970s. However, some miners enjoyed a degree of luck during this prolonged and bruising crisis, where violence between miners and police were common occurrences at picket lines throughout 1984. There was significant social instability in the process. The strike created great division among the people, primarily those on the left of politics and within mining communities. The impact on the miners' plight, particularly the impact that the strike had on their families, was severe.

Bitterly divided in many areas, subjected to intimidation and violence by miners in some parts of the country, and in others facing a desperate struggle to make ends meet while the strike continued.

The impact of the strike on the country's mining communities was harsh in many terms, with striking miners receiving no pay and relying on union hardship funds for a prolonged period. Many families were divided between striking and non-striking members, and there was further regional division between striking and non-striking parts of the country. Although the strike had been won in the government's favour, many mining communities became poorer and high unemployment for many years to come.

Some cabinet ministers later admitted that despite the determined focus on winning this struggle, there were times during the strike when it was unclear whether Thatcher's career hung in the balance. Many 'One Nation' Conservatives criticised the aggressive and unsympathetic stance Thatcher adopted towards the miners during the dispute, particularly as many mining communities suffered great hardship. Thatcher was accused by her opponents of wanting to destroy the power of the unions, a theme of the events of the 1970s, and was ultimately greatly strengthened by this incident. The cause was divided by divisions between the miners themselves:

Thatcher was lucky to defeat the miners, the lack of unity amongst the miners was the main reason.

Thatcher's determination was, therefore, aided by some political luck in that the unions did not comply with her new trade union legislation. With the Yorkshire miner **Arthur Scargill** calling the strike without an official ballot (required by Thatcher's legislation), he alienated miners in Nottinghamshire in particular, the majority of whom called for the end of the strike. This factor helped to strengthen the government's position significantly. The strike formally ended a year later in March 1985, with the miners beaten and divided.

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²⁶ Norman Tebbit, *Upwardly Mobile* (1989), Ch. 11, p. 302.

²⁷ Alan Sked & Chris Cook, *Post War Britain: A Political History* (4th ed., 1993), Ch. 14, p. 41.

²⁸ C Collette & K Laybourn, *Modern Britain Since 1979* (2003), Ch. 1, p. 9.

Consequently, many largely northern mining communities went into terminal decline. The NUM, which lost the bulk of its membership as a result of the strike, was replaced in the following years; indeed its membership fell by 72% between 1979 and 1985. Thatcher's approach in defeating the miners was symptomatic of her belief that Britain needed to modernise, although whether in doing so she saved or destroyed Britain's industrial base has been a matter of significant debate in subsequent years.

Task

To find out more about the 1984–1985 miners' strike, particularly in relation to its social and economic impact on Britain's mining communities, watch the films *Brassed Off* (1996) and *Billy Elliott* (2000) which are set during this period of industrial conflict. Again, be aware of bias along with factual evidence. For more details on the 1984–1985 miners' strike, the following website has lots of good facts and information:

🔗 http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/in_depth/uk/2004/miners_strike/default.stm

Questions and Talking Points

1. Why did Thatcher refer to the miners as the 'enemy within'?
2. How did the miners' strike fit in with the Conservatives' wider strategy towards trade unions?
3. Why did the Thatcher Government defeat the miners' strike of 1984–1985?

Thatcher and industrial relations

The miners' dispute was the crescendo in Thatcher's long-term strategy to reduce the influence of trade unions in British politics. Thatcher had come to power in 1979 promising to bring trade union control under government control, and it was a key issue at the 1979 election. During her time in office, significant legislation aimed at reforming the country's industrial relations, bringing trade unions under control by preventing a return to the unrest of the 1970s.

Margaret Thatcher had been a government minister in Heath's doomed administration, and such an experience at the hands of the trade unions had sharpened her determination to reduce the power of trade union power once and for all. The Thatcher administration subsequently introduced a series of key anti-union legislation throughout the 1980s that severely reduced the power of trade unions in the following notable ways:

- Outlawing 'flying pickets' – prohibiting workers picketing places of work other than their own.
- The 'closed shop' made more difficult to enforce – outlawing a practice where only members of a trade union in certain jobs/industries.
- Introducing regular elections to key union positions such as general secretaries.
- Requiring trade unions to regularly ballot members on who political candidates to support.
- Requiring ballots of members and notice to be given to employers before a strike can take place.
- Making trade unions legally and financially responsible for any 'wildcat' industrial action).


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Thatcher was particularly motivated by restoring the rule of law following had regularly occurred at industrial picket lines in the 1970s due to trade unionism. She ultimately felt that trade unions and the labour market in general needed to be brought under control by a revised legal framework. This approach was part of a consistent policy from 1979 onwards that appeared to view the 'public sector' (state employees) as a unionised sector in comparison to those employed by private companies (private sector). She therefore, sought to encourage the extension of an enhanced non-unionised sector and growth in small businesses as a means of altering the balance of the labour market, thereby undermining trade union power.

Year	Union membership	% of the workforce
1975	12 million	51
1979	13.5 million	53.4
1985	10.7 million	45.6
1991	8.1 million	37

Source: Trade Union membership levels, British Historical Studies, Department of Employment/Labour Force Survey

 <http://www.unionancestors.co.uk/Images/TU%20membership%201975-1991.pdf>

The table above indicates that by a combination of legislation and defeating the miners' strike at the time she left office Margaret Thatcher appeared to have demoralised the trade union movement, which influenced a notable decline in its membership base.

Thatcher's essentially individualist ideology put her at odds with the trade unionist outlook. She also had particular problems with the extreme socialist and communist elements of some of the prominent trade union leaders, most notably the NUM's militant leadership, whom she famously locked horns with in the 1984–1985 miners' strike. In 1984, picketing was banned at the government's intelligence headquarters, claiming it was an infringement of workers' human rights. According to the 'Thatcher Report', the main obstacle to British enterprise had been the privileged position and power of British trade unions.²⁹

On an ideological level, Thatcher also appeared to be committed to embracing a Conservative position on law and order, and was committed to restoring the rule of law and anarchy and violence that had regularly occurred at industrial picket lines and trade union unrest. This could be linked to her moralistic and 'neo-conservative' ideology, which was critical of the permissive legislation of the late 1960s, and which she and her political allies felt could be linked to rising crime levels. She was also aware of Labour's 'institutional' links with trade unions and how some of these laws would create difficulties for Labour's organisation. Many Labour MPs and trade unionists must have wished they had accepted the more lenient terms of Barbara Castle's 'In Place of Strife' White Paper ten years previously. Thatcher's trade union proposals ultimately made strike action much more difficult to initiate.

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²⁹ Alan Sked & Chris Cook, *Post War Britain: A Political History* (4th ed., 1993), Ch. 13, p. 30.

The trade unions were weakened and the number of days lost to strike action with **only one million working days** lost to strike action in 1990, compared during the 1970s. However, trade unions were not killed off completely and a prominent pressure group within British society in future years, albeit with reduced powers. *Margaret Thatcher therefore ultimately managed to curb trade union power where previous governments had failed.*

Questions and Talking Points

1. What historical events suggested the Conservatives and the trade unions were bound to clash?
2. Was the ideology of 'Thatcherism' incompatible with trade unionism?
3. In what ways were Margaret Thatcher's trade union policies a success?

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Thatcher and privatisation

One of Margaret Thatcher's most controversial domestic policies was **privatisation** during her more assertive second term in office from 1983 onwards. Privatisation chimed with the Thatcherism of 'individualism', and it involved releasing large swathes of industry from the control of the state, which was viewed as an inefficient and inappropriate role for the Thatcher administration. Many Conservatives believed lots of the nationalised industries had been failing and badly run for many years and that something radical needed to be done with them as a result. Thatcher and her supporters subsequently talked about 'rolling back the frontiers' of the British welfare state and revising the post-war settlement in relation to key British industries.

Thatcher's privatisation policies were the most visible example of her government changing the post-war political settlement that had been based on Keynesian principles. By 1987, 14 major British companies including British Gas, British Aerospace, among others, had been sold to the private sector at great profit. As individual shareholders purchased shares in these companies, with the number of shareholders more than trebling during the decade, from approximately 3 million to 11 million, 'shareholder capitalism' brought in considerable revenue for the Thatcher Government, around £10 billion a year between 1987 and 1989.

Such revenue gave the Thatcher administration the capacity to implement privatisation, which was also a key part of its political strategy. Such a flagship policy was one of the defining features of her period of office, and it clearly changed British society in a fundamental way. Thatcher promoted the capitalist streak that the policy developed within individuals, which provided the potential for people to make money and become **socially mobile**. This was an important element of Thatcherism – allowing people from lower social classes to move up the social ladder and improve their social position, and, while some people did benefit, it was not something that more traditional and paternalistic Conservatives were as supportive of. Thatcher supposedly dissolving and reducing class differences (although this didn't always happen in practice and class/social divisions remained apparent throughout the 1980s).

Such policies generated wealth and led to the deregulation of such industries, the privatisation of the state, as well as the creation of a more 'individualist' society which was a key political goal. Such sentiments appeared to have been summed up in one of Thatcher's famous interviews from this period:

And, you know, there is no such thing as society. There are individual men and women, and there are families. And no government can do anything except through people, and people must take responsibility for themselves. It's our duty to look after ourselves and then, also to look after our neighbour.

The above comments caused great controversy and many critics have attacked the perceived 'selfishness' of Thatcherism, as well as highlighting the social divisions that appeared to be creating. Supporters of Thatcher say such criticism has been exaggerated. The 'such thing as society' comments are seen as a reflection of the political culture of the Thatcher generation were prominent, young people who made large amounts of money in the new markets and new businesses and who seemed a world away from the poverty of the declining traditional industries found in coal and steel towns. This new 'youth culture' symbolised the social separation between the 'haves' and 'have-nots' in 1980s Britain, and the deeply divisive nature of Thatcherism.

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³⁰ Margaret Thatcher, Interview with Woman's Own Magazine, 31st October 1987:
<http://www.margarethatcher.org/document/106689>

There were many critics of privatisation, most obviously the Labour opposition. Objections to such large-scale private ownership. It was also pointed out that the switch from being uncompetitive public monopolies to uncompetitive private companies. The chief executives of such privatised industries grew to excessively high salaries. This was not a fair reward for their efforts. Many such private industries eventually failed. Conservative ministers (after retirement) which also raised some concerns about the privatisation process.



Many new shareholders also didn't hold on to their shares and didn't make a profit in the short-term, which raised questions about the idea of 'popular capitalism' really was. There was also opposition from the 'Old Right' Tories, the most prominent being former prime minister Margaret Thatcher (left). He compared the policy of privatising the nation's assets to the policy of 'selling off the family silver', arguing that Britain was selling off its national assets for good.

Critics of privatisation also argued that the industries were national assets and should be owned by wealthy individuals or capitalist speculators. It was also claimed that such privatisation would lead to a decline in the provision of decent public services. Labour opposition was initially fierce, but as the policy became clearly popular, such hostility weakened in the face of its electoral success. The ultimate victory from this policy was to see Labour abandon its historic policy of nationalisation. Tony Blair authorised the abolition of 'Clause 4' of the Labour Party's constitution. Many supporters say that privatisation played a key role in the defeat of socialism.

Task

The film *Wall Street* (1987), while based in the USA, is said to be a useful reflection of the 'yuppie' culture in the 1980s. The slogan '*greed is good*' is used by one of the characters to reflect contemporary transatlantic attitudes within some parts of the business community.

While a useful reflection of the 1980s, always be aware of bias in such films.

Questions and Talking Points

1. Why were Margaret Thatcher's comments about 'society' viewed as controversial?
2. To what extent was Thatcher correct that society does not exist?
3. Outline the key arguments for and against privatisation.

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Wider privatisation



Thatcher's '*privatisation*' principles were extended to other areas of society. Thatcher's focus was always based on her roots as a grocer in Lincolnshire – **seeking value for money, reducing waste and limiting**

Some of Thatcher's most frustrating political struggles came within the sphere of local government when a number of left-wing Labour councils came into conflict with central government over levels of spending. Thatcher imposed strict limits on several London boroughs and the city of Liverpool, which was briefly run by the left-wing **Militant Tendency**. Spending cutbacks that were dictated by central government during the mid-1980s.

Such clashes led to the severe cutback or '*capping*' of local government power in order for central government to keep a tight rein on overall national spending and its strategy. It also led to the introduction of controversial policies such as **Contractual Tendering (CCT)** which brought private companies into the provision of local services. The extension of the privatisation phenomena, which also generated further opposition.

In 1985 Thatcher's Government abolished the **Greater London Council** (GLC) and metropolitan councils, claiming that they were an expensive and unnecessary layer of government. The fact that all of these authorities were now run by the Labour opposition (or Labour programmes) was cited by both critics and supporters as a further reason for the decision.



Opponents of Thatcherism argue that she was fundamentally opposed to the traditional British welfare state with its focus on collectivism and state intervention – the political concepts. Some have argued that she '*was seeking to roll back the social gains and therefore reverse some of the more compassionate achievements of the post-1945 consensus*'.

Thatcher's focus on the broader welfare state centred on the key areas of education and the NHS. On an economic level, she believed that the welfare system was a drain on expenditure and its high percentage of public spending. However, on a social level, she believed that the welfare state was a restraining factor on people becoming '*socially mobile*'. In 1980, as a symbolic sign of her overall approach, Thatcher abolished the link between **pensions and average earnings**, instead linking the pension in with a much smaller percentage of earnings. This decision both saved the government money and encouraged people to become more self-reliant for their pension. Thatcher also sought to bring the principles of **privatisation** wherever possible, and this was a highly controversial strategy which generated significant opposition.

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³¹ Stephen J Lee, *Aspects of British Political History 1914–1995* (1996), Ch. 15, p. 231.

Many Conservatives on the 'New Right' resented the socialist origins of the NHS and viewed it as bureaucratic and expensive, and this viewpoint had economic difficulties of the 1970s in particular. Thatcherites, therefore, sought to make it efficient, streamline it and ultimately make it better value for money. In the retrenchment and reductions in public spending saw aspects of the NHS to the time of the second Thatcher Government from 1983 onwards, genuine concern over a run-down service, with cuts in hospital beds and lengthy waiting lists developed.

The principle of privatisation appeared to be at the heart of Conservative NHS policy. The encouragement of greater private involvement in the health service and the 'internal market', where there would be greater competition in providing health services between providers. The idea was that hospitals and external providers of healthcare would compete with each other to provide the most efficient service and provide services to GPs on behalf of their patients.

Many opponents baulked at the introduction of such capitalist principles into the NHS. Thatcherites claimed it generated more efficiency and greater value for money. However, running a 'two-tier' NHS with different standards across the service, with a private sector in place, but with variable levels of service provision existing in some parts of the country, private investment and competition (that was not equally distributed to all) was seen as a failure.

Although the NHS remained a public service, its internal structure was rebuilt to operate as a non-market operation.³²

However, despite such 'marketisation', the NHS was one of the few public services to see an increase in real terms during the Thatcher years, as well as law and order. However, the long-term credibility of the NHS was questioned by opposition MPs who argued that the **tax cuts** had impacted on public services and investment in the NHS had, therefore, been insufficient to meet the increased level of demand brought about by an ageing population.

Education – 'Thatcherite' choice

In line with the key 'Thatcherite' principles of freedom and less state intervention, the Government sought to promote greater **choice** for parents and their children in school provision. Thatcher had been Education Minister in Heath's Government and one of her key decisions was to prevent the final phase of grammar schools becoming a small number of grammars (*approximately 160 in England and Wales – 3% of all schools*). Grammar schools continued to exist with a **selective system** of education using the 11+ examination.

The Thatcher Government then sought to bring in more 'individualism' and competition into the education system by a series of acts and reforms, culminating in the 1988 Education Act. It created 'Grant Maintained Schools' which were able to 'opt-out' of local authority control. Opposing wing Labour politicians. Such schools were given greater independence in management and spending their own budgets, another example of Thatcherite philosophy. Schools were encouraged to compete with other schools for the best pupils, a further extension of the 'market' being extended into state provision.

³² Hugo Young, *One of Us* (1989), Ch. 22, p. 529.

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Critics have claimed that Thatcher's education policies were blighted by similar criticisms that her policies had created a divided 'two-tier' system, where some selected the best pupils, while many others went into decline due to financial pressures and a high concentration of weak academic pupils. This also created some significant changes in the teaching profession, a key group of public sector workers who became increasingly associated with the Conservative Party.

Housing policy

One of Margaret Thatcher's most popular social policies was the extension of council houses for existing tenants. **The Housing Act of 1980**, introduced by then Housing Minister **Michael Heseltine**, saw the provisions for the state to sell council houses to tenants at a discount. This policy was consistent with the 'New Right' view of individualism and a reduced role for the state, with the houses sold becoming the property of private owners rather than bureaucratic local councils. This policy of discounted sales made home ownership a realistic option for many ordinary families who had previously believed that it was out of the question. It led to levels of housing owner-occupation rising from 55% to almost 65% by 1985. Over 2.1 million properties were transferred from public to private ownership in the first five years of the decade, continuing.

Sales figures peaked at over 200,000 in 1982–1983, and there were electoral gains for the Conservatives, with many former Labour voting council tenants switching to the Conservatives in gratitude for this opportunity of owning their own properties. Many of the new owners were the skilled working-classes, often known as the C2s, who shifted to vote Conservative in significant numbers. This growth in home ownership was, therefore, reflected in the success of the Conservatives throughout the 1980s, as they were rewarded with a majority of the million and a quarter that took this option over the course of the decade, costing the government £18 billion in the process.

However, political critics accused the Conservatives of pursuing a short-sighted policy of individual greed rather than the longer term social good. The government's decision to replace the council houses that were sold (in order to curb public sector borrowing) had the consequences resulted in a shortage of affordable social housing that had been a feature of the twenty-first century (see table below), as well as the emergence of a generation of homeless in the mid-1980s who had nowhere to live, as 'for the first time in a quarter of a century homelessness became a fixture on city streets.'³³ This suggested a clear failure of Thatcherite policy and that within an era of stubbornly high unemployment in some parts of the country, the underclass became a more common feature of British society by the late 1980s.

Trends in housing tenure: 1981 to 1991			
All households – England			
Year	Owners	Social renters	
1981	9.86	5.46	
1984	10.99	5.03	
1988	12.248	4.706	
1991	13.05	4.436	

* All figures in millions

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³³ Andy McSmith, *No Such Thing as Society: A History of Britain in the 1980s* (2011), Ch. 1.

Despite accusations from the Labour opposition that the Thatcher Government had dismantled the welfare state of funds, neither the NHS nor the education system was dismantled. Indeed, it has been noted that *'Thatcher was never given the opportunity to dismantle the welfare state. Popular and party resistance to any such suggestion was just too strong'*.³⁴ The fact that the welfare state was required to cushion the impact of monetarism and high unemployment during the early years of her premiership. Such high levels of unemployment in the welfare state, and this meant it was difficult to make financial savings in the welfare state.

*The impact of monetarist economic policies meant that the welfare state was not dismantled, with the growth of unemployment and poverty.*³⁵

Questions and Talking Points

1. Why and how did monetarism impact on Thatcher's social policies?
2. What did Margaret Thatcher seek to do differently from past governments regarding the broader welfare state?
3. What factors prevented Thatcher introducing even more radical cuts to the welfare state?

Summary of key Thatcherite principles in social policy:

1. *Housing*: sale of council houses/privatisation of council house stock.
2. *Education*: grant-maintained schools provided greater control and independence to schools, head teachers and governors.
3. *NHS*: introduction of the *'internal market'* into hospitals and the health service.
4. *Local government*: Compulsory Competitive Tendering (CCT) in provision of services.
5. *GP fundholders*: GPs controlled and managed own budgets in dealing with patients.

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³⁴ Stephen J Lee, *Aspects of British Political History 1914–1995* (1996), Ch. 15, p. 237.

³⁵ Stephen J Lee, *Aspects of British Political History 1914–1995* (1996), Ch. 15, p. 237.

Thatcher and law and order

The Conservatives always prided themselves as the ‘party of law and order’ and believed that industrial protest had threatened the rule of law in the late 1970s that this issue needed to be addressed. Thatcher had announced during the election campaign that Britain’s priorities were ‘less tax and more law and order’.

One of the first actions of Thatcher’s Government was to push through pay for armed forces, a contrast to her attempts to reduce expenditure on the wider



spending on law and order did significantly increase due to the police force’s appreciation, and an extra 10,000 officers between 1979 and 1982. They would later play a key role with miners and with other protestors such as the CND campaign (many were women and feminist activists) hostile to American involvement in the Falkland Islands. Such a financial focus on law and order and (compared to cutbacks in the welfare state) was seen ‘as a statement of the Government’s law and order priorities’.³⁶

Northern Ireland policy

Margaret Thatcher was a traditional unionist who supported most of the protestants and their desire to remain within the UK. There was, however, a significant republican viewpoint to end this ‘union’, and political violence had been a feature of the province since the late 1960s. Thatcher had herself experienced this first hand when Ireland spokesman, Airey Neave MP, was assassinated by Irish republican in a car park in Parliament in 1979. This event hardened her unionist beliefs and she determined not to give in to violence.

The Brighton Bombing (1984)

In the early hours of 12th October 1984, the IRA bombed the Grand Hotel in Brighton where prominent Conservative politicians were staying for their annual party conference. It was ultimately an assassination attempt on the Prime Minister, but she emerged unscathed. The IRA became the IRA’s prime target following her refusal to grant ‘political prisoners’ who were **strikers** imprisoned within the H-blocks of the Maze prison in Belfast. The IRA were terrorists, not political prisoners, and thus 10 hunger strikers (led by **Bobby Sands**) died in intervals throughout 1981.

Nothing like it had ever happened before in Britain. The scenes at the hotel, still fresh in my mind, gripped the nation.

Hugo Young, One of Us (1989), Ch. 16, p. 372

The attack at Brighton was, therefore, a long-term IRA response to how Thatcher dealt with the hunger strikers, and it killed five Conservative delegates, including Sir Anthony Mason and 34 others. Senior cabinet member Norman Tebbit was among those who heaved the rubble, and his wife was permanently disabled as a result of the attack.

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³⁶ Eric J Evans, *Thatcher and Thatcherism* (2nd ed., 2004), Ch. 6, p. 75.

Many people felt that the party conference could not continue in such circumstances. The IRA was typically adamant that democracy should not be disrupted by terrorism. In its true combative form, Margaret Thatcher looked undeterred as she made her famous statement: *government will not weaken, this nation will meet the challenge, democracy will not be defeated*.

Today we were unlucky, but remember we have only to be lucky once; you will never be lucky again.

This was the Irish Republican Army's (IRA's) chilling statement after they committed an outrageous crime in their history – an act that amounted to the attempted murder of the cabinet on 12th October 1984. Not since Guy Fawkes and the Gunpowder Plot had such a brazen and audacious crime been attempted in the name of politics. IRA activist Patrick Magee was involved with the bombing and given eight life sentences and ordered to serve a minimum of 30 years. He was controversially released after serving only 14 years in 1999 as part of the 'Pledge for Peace'.

Some have highlighted the Brighton bomb as a watershed in the Northern Ireland conflict. It appeared to make politicians of all sides realise the need for an urgent and ongoing problem. As the 'Brighton Bomber' Magee has himself said:

After Brighton, anything was possible and the British for the first time began to take the IRA seriously.

Questions and Talking Points

1. How can the Brighton bomb of 1984 be seen as a key stage in the road to the Good Friday Agreement in Northern Ireland?
2. What did such ongoing violence suggest about the situation in Northern Ireland?

Task

A controversial and recent film about the 1981 IRA hunger strikes, *Hunger*, is available on YouTube. It is worth watching to understand more about this event. *Always be aware of political bias in such films, however.*

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The Anglo-Irish Agreement (1985)

A further major turning point in Northern Ireland's turbulent history saw Taoiseach Garret Fitzgerald sign the **Anglo-Irish Agreement (AIA)** at Hillsborough in **November 1985**. It represented the most significant development in Anglo-Irish relations since the **Anglo-Irish Agreement of 1920**. The agreement was a treaty lodged at the United Nations and supported by the British Parliament and Dáil Éireann (*Irish Parliament*).



The agreement came after years of negotiations between British and Irish governments to attempt to put a lid on the escalating violence. To deal with the alienation of the north, a formal role was offered to Dublin. 'Joint Authority' was a key concept, ensuring citizens of the province felt represented. Thatcher was an unlikely figure to have having hardened her pro-unionist views following the assassination of Airene Carron and the Brighton bombing of 1984. However, even she saw the need to tackle the violence. The agreement had two key aims:

1. To increase the province's security
2. To halt the IRA's rise

The agreement also established the **consent principle** – that there would be no change in constitutional position without the approval of the majority of those living there.

The agreement was welcomed by the moderate nationalist SDLP, but rejected and denounced in Ireland by opposition leader **Charles Haughey** who claimed it did not accept 'the British presence in Ireland as valid and legitimate'. The unionist DUP opposed to the agreement, resenting the involvement of the Irish Republic.

This settlement represented a major review of British **sovereignty** within Northern Ireland, a **compromise** between the British and Irish governments. In return for Dublin's recognition of the legitimacy of Northern Ireland (*for the first time*), London agreed to confer powers on matters relating to Northern Ireland's nationalist minority. The agreement was not the joint authority it desired but it set up an *Intergovernmental Conference* headed by the British Prime Minister and the Irish Foreign Minister, with a permanent secretariat on each side of the border. It monitored political, security and legal issues relating to Northern Ireland.

All 15 Unionist MPs forced by-elections on the issue in January 1986 and a further three in March 1986, leading to loyalist violence and trouble with the RUC. British governments differed on the agreement's significance. Garret Fitzgerald considered the agreement 'the best Authority as one can get'. Thatcher maintained that Ireland's role was merely advisory and Ireland's constitutional position unaltered. Nationalists were told it represented a united Ireland, while unionists were told it secured the union.

As a compromise solution to a complex problem, the agreement attempted to balance the interests of all sides and it would survive to form the basis of later developments in this complex issue.

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Questions and Talking Points

1. How significant was the 1985 Anglo-Irish Agreement to the Irish peace process?
2. What was the irony of Mrs Thatcher signing the 1985 Anglo-Irish Agreement?
3. Why did the Anglo-Irish Agreement offer something to both nationalists and unionists?

1987 General election and beyond

Despite a modest Labour recovery, Margaret Thatcher won a third successive election in 1987 with a stunning 'landslide' majority of over 100 seats. She now appeared to have consolidated her political power, 'in an almost unassailable position, with the economy doing well, unemployment down to 40 per cent by 1988, increased public spending and a revenue surplus'.³⁷

Party	MPs
	1987
Con	376
Lab	229
Lib	22
Others	23

If she had resigned soon after this third election victory, she would have been able to capitalise on her successes and retained a largely positive legacy. However, many commentators felt that Thatcher clung to office for too long, and a catalogue of problems began to emerge. This began with a stock market crash in October 1987, a development which ended the 'economic boom' that had been cultivated for the election earlier in the year, and the economic growth created by her government was not sustainable in the long term.

Thatcher and her chancellor from 1983, **Nigel Lawson**, were accused by critics of manipulating and artificially 'massaging' the economy with tax cuts prior to the election in order to maximise their party's popularity. Lawson had cut 2p off the basic rate of income tax in successive budgets in 1987 and 1988, reducing the rate from 33p to 31p in the pound which proved to be hugely popular with voters (equating to a tax cut of £4 billion a year).

The basic rate of taxation had been 33p in the pound when the Conservative government came to power in 1979. A higher rate of tax was cut again from 60% to 40%. Such tax cuts helped to generate a period of consumer spending and increased prosperity (for some at least), and this was seen as a sign that more jobs were being created by the flourishing free-market, as 'unemployment fell to 10% in 1986... and the Conservatives believed they were entitled to some recognition for this success'.

³⁷ C Collette & K Laybourn, *Modern Britain Since 1979* (2003), Ch. 1, p. 10.

³⁸ Andy McSmith, *No Such Thing as Society: A History of Britain in the 1980s* (2011), Ch. 14.

A key Thatcher philosophy was to liberate people from high taxes and to cut public spending power. Cuts in taxation were a clear vehicle for people to achieve this approach and attitude appeared to come to a head in 1987. Critics have argued that cuts in taxation had a negative impact in the long term on the provision of public services such as the NHS and education which suffered funding cutbacks as a result, and which affected the poorer and most vulnerable members of society in an adverse way.

However, in the short term at least, the Conservatives pumped £7.5 billion into public social services in 1987 on the back of profits from privatisation. This government encouraged broader consumer spending and appeared to be a complete break with monetarism, appearing to be part of a strategy to appeal to voters at election time. Nevertheless, Thatcher's monetarist and tax-cutting emphasis over the course of a decade had reshaped the British economy, although whether for better or worse was the basis of much debate.

(Thatcher implemented) the greatest tax cuts by any administration in the twentieth century.

The 1987 election result also highlighted that Thatcherism was not winning over the entire nation. While the Conservatives continued to perform well in the South and the Southeast and parts of the Midlands, the northern cities, Scotland and Wales actually witnessed a sharp drop in Tory support at this election, to the extent that most major cities in the north now had no Conservative MPs. The 'Celtic' regions of the UK certainly didn't appear to be enthusiastic about Thatcherism either. Many commentators referred to a 'North-South' divide in political terms, with the industrial urban areas less enthused by tax cuts and more concerned about spending cuts in some public services.

The Poll Tax and opposition to it

As the flagship policy of her third term in office, Thatcher clung resolutely to the **Poll Tax**, despite internal party objections and increasing public and electoral opposition. This was fully evident in a series of shattering by-election defeats in *Mid Staffordshire* and *Eastbourne* (to the Liberal Democrats in October 1990) on massive swings of over 50%. Large swathes of the population would be financially worse off as a result of its introduction, but it was a fairer system than the existing rates (which she had been determined to replace).

It was scheduled for introduction in England in April 1990, but was rolled back to 1991 as a fact for which many Scots never forgave the Prime Minister. Riots against the tax in Scotland, London and other cities throughout 1989 and into 1990, and it was said that it 'produced the biggest protest movement since CND',⁴⁰ with thousands of non-payers. Only one Labour MP. However, despite such hostile opposition to this policy, Thatcher maintained her 'iron lady' image and she refused to countenance a U-turn.

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³⁹ Stephen J Lee, *Aspects of British Political History 1914–1995* (1996), Ch. 15, p. 234.

⁴⁰ Andy McSmith, *No Such Thing as Society: A History of Britain in the 1980s* (2011), Ch. 14.

Such unrest and evidence of ‘extra-parliamentary opposition’ and direct action developed throughout the decade following the riots of 1981 and the industrial miners’ strike in the mid-1980s. Such ‘extra-parliamentary opposition’ was a growing phenomenon during the 1980s, with urban riots across Britain in 1981 and 1984–1985 (miners’ strike) and now further large-scale protests in 2011. This has been due to the controversial nature of many of Thatcher’s policies, or also to the assertiveness of the British public after years of broadly accepting the status quo during the ‘years of consensus’.

Consequently, as a result of this inflexibility to respond to such large-scale protest, the *poll tax*⁴¹ played a key part in Margaret Thatcher’s downfall, particularly the London riot in March 1990. Further protest and unrest became evident in the form of notably various anti-Poll Tax pressure groups, the media, satirists, arts and culture and even religious bodies and certain churches. The slogan ‘*can’t pay, won’t pay*’ was associated with anti-Poll Tax campaigns, and non-payment was encouraged as a means of defeating the policy. In the early 1990s, one Labour MP, Terry Fields, was imprisoned for 60 days for non-payment. The ‘morality’ and ‘fairness’ of the policy was widely questioned and wide-ranging objections to it.

The policy’s electoral unpopularity was ultimately a key factor in why sufficient Conservative seats, voted to remove her from office. However, while the Poll Tax caused significant electoral damage, it was a series of destabilising events since the 1986 Westland Affair that led to her longer-term demise, with a notable surge in inflation during the late 1980s and further recession also weakening her political position. Her increasingly volatile political position could be summarised as follows:

*Thatcher was elbowed out of power by sections of the Conservative Party which were stuck in her ways that she would lead them to electoral disaster.*⁴²

The Fall of Thatcher and her legacy

Margaret Thatcher’s increasing political vulnerability stemming from her reliance on the Poll Tax was highlighted by a ‘*stalking horse*’ challenge to her leadership. **Meyer** was a somewhat obscure backbench MP from the moderate, pro-European wing of the Conservative Party who realised he had no realistic chance of ousting the Prime Minister. However, it was significant that this was the first time that she had been forced to consider becoming leader in 1975, evidence of growing opposition to her from within the party. 33 of her MPs voted for Meyer, and 60 did not support her with abstentions. This should have served as a warning of internal party unrest towards some of her policies.



Growing economic problems also saw interest rates rise, which had a severe and negative impact on the mortgage market and the numbers of homeowners. Within the same period of economic difficulty, she was further weakened by the resignation of her Chancellor, Geoffrey Howe. It was clear he was unhappy with her increasingly dominant style of government, her use of external political advisers and her hostility towards the European Community. European attempts to tackle inflation. Such a loss of support indicated that Thatcher’s grip on power was weakening:

⁴¹ Geoffrey Wheatcroft, *The Strange Death of Tory England* (2005), Ch. 9, p. 171.

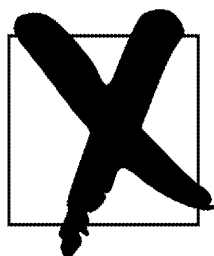
⁴² Stephen J Lee, *Aspects of British Political History 1914–1995* (1996), Ch. 15, p. 229.

Further troubles followed the demotion in July 1989 of Sir Geoffrey Howe from Leadership of the House of Commons, as well as Nigel Lawson's sensational resignation in October 1989, and the reluctant resignation in July 1990 of Nicholas Ridley (on his German and anti-EC views in a Spectator interview). The final straw was Sir Geoffrey's resignation on 1st November 1990 to leave the government.⁴³

By November 1990, former Chancellor and Foreign Secretary **Sir Geoffrey Howe** was treated by the Prime Minister and in particular of her anti-European stance as damaging Britain's international position. His dramatic resignation speech, read to a stunned House of Commons, made it quite clear that he felt it was time to stand down and for a more significant figure to challenge her. It was considered by some allies as 'treachery', but it has been seen by many as the short-term catalyst to her eventual downfall, as outlined below:

Geoffrey Howe's venomous Commons speech in November 1990 triggered the end of Margaret Thatcher's rule.⁴⁴

Already damaged by the Poll Tax and the weakening economy in particular, Thatcher's attitude had pushed key ministers such as Howe over the edge in terms of support for her. By the time of Howe's resignation in November 1990, the momentum to challenge her appeared to be unstoppable, and former cabinet minister **Michael Heseltine** emerged as a rival contender to the Prime Minister after spending four years following his resignation over the *Westland Affair* in 1986.



When the leadership ballot of MPs actually occurred on 22nd November 1990, she won on the first round but the margin of victory was not large enough to avoid a second round of voting. Such a level of support, with almost half of her MPs failing to support her, meant that her position was wounded in political terms. After speaking to her cabinet on 22nd November 1990, despite initially vowing to fight on, she said: *'between ten and twelve members of the cabinet... did not think I should continue to share the total number. Her political demise was all the more difficult for me because, in election triumphs, she had been the victim of the most ruthless acts of political intrigue in Britain',⁴⁶* although this is a viewpoint of those who sympathised with her.

For her opponents (both inside and outside of her party), her demise was a proof that all political figures, however dominant, were ultimately held accountable for their actions and policies. In the second leadership ballot held a week later, **John Major** entered the fray in a bid to stop Heseltine taking the Conservative crown, but he ultimately decided after Hurd dropped out and urged all his supporters to back Major.

Major had emerged largely unnoticed and had enjoyed a smooth rise toward becoming a cabinet minister only since 1987, yet had already held two prominent positions as Chancellor of the Exchequer (if only quite briefly). His working-class background gave him a political appeal, and he appeared to have fewer enemies within the Conservative Party than Heseltine. Major ultimately succeeded Thatcher and became her successor as prime minister on 28th November 1990, when he topped the ballot of Conservative MPs and opponents conceded defeat. It was the end of the Thatcher era and the start of the Major era.

⁴³ D Butler & D Kavanagh, *The British General Election of 1992* (1992), Ch. 2, p. 23.

⁴⁴ Source: Peter Osborne, *Daily Mail*, 13th September 2008.

⁴⁵ Margaret Thatcher, *The Downing Street Years* (1993), Ch. 28, p. 854.

⁴⁶ Alan Sked & Chris Cook, *Post War Britain: A Political History* (4th ed., 1993), Ch. 15, p. 55.

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Overview of Thatcher's legacy

Margaret Thatcher became something of an institution within British politics in the 1980s. This was due primarily to her length of tenure at No. 10 Downing Street, the longest serving prime minister of the twentieth century. Indeed, her eleven years in office were only surpassed in modern history by Lord Liverpool, who governed in the late eighteenth century. Her increasingly powerful personality and controversial policies added weight to her reputation and *'her ideas were forcefully delivered and backed by a personal dominance'*.⁴⁷

Supporters of Margaret Thatcher and the *'Thatcher Revolution'* claim that she left the country in a healthier economic state than in 1979 when it was viewed as *'the sick man of Europe'* due to industrial unrest, inflation and economic decline. By the time she departed in 1990, the standard of living had risen significantly for most people as share ownership and home ownership became more apparent. In many people's eyes her time in office transformed the British economy and British society into *'a land profoundly different'*,⁴⁸ although there was significant political disagreement between left and right whether this was for better or worse.

In many respects, Britain had become the *'property-owning democracy'* she had promised. Her popular policies meant that she broadened the Conservatives' appeal among the working class. The employed workforce grew from 22.5 million in 1979 and peaked at 26.5 million in 1990, meaning a higher standard of living for much of the population, with a significant increase in the production of various domestic goods and products. More people were generally becoming employed, with significant employment growths among women and within the service industries.

Consequently, more British families were able to purchase hi-tech consumer goods such as the latest TVs, video players and kitchen appliances, while also enjoying the benefits of a higher standard of living. Popular policies such as privatisation and council house sales also forced the Conservatives away from its traditional *'socialist'* policies. The advent of Tony Blair in 1997 marked a rejection of its previous *'left-wing'* policies, and Blair maintained key Thatcherite policies such as cuts, privatisation and the free market economy once in power after 1997. Many of the reforms were maintained and Tony Blair even modelled his leadership style on Thatcher, adopting a centralising approach that often sidelined cabinet government.

It has indeed been claimed that New Labour's policies were generally closer to the ideology of Margaret Thatcher than to the ideology of Old Labour.

Thatcher's impact on British politics cast a large shadow over her next two decades. Tony Blair's impact on British politics after 1990 was undoubtedly significant. In particular, he found her legacy and, what he would consider, her interfering in the country's political progress. Major's supporters would later criticise her and say that her policies were a factor in the Conservatives' landslide defeat in 1997. The policies were adopted by Labour under Blair, making it a far more electable party. When asked what her greatest achievement was, Thatcher once declared that it was *'the change of government from Labour to the Conservatives'*, making a clear reference to how the bulk of her policy agenda had been implemented through a change of government.

By 1990 the UK appeared to be a far more confident and prosperous nation on the international stage, evident in the Falklands victory and in the close relationship with the United States.

⁴⁷ Stephen J Lee, *Aspects of British Political History 1914–1995* (1996), Ch. 15, p. 231.

⁴⁸ Andy McSmith, *No Such Thing as Society: A History of Britain in the 1980s* (2011), Epilogue.

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its President Ronald Reagan, where the *'special relationship'* was significantly had become a figure of international standing on the world stage and played the ending of the **Cold War** in the late 1980s. Thatcher's policies in relation and the welfare state were almost *'revolutionary'* in comparison to the previous

Critics argue that such cosmetic improvements masked a sharp division between the wealth Thatcherism had generated, there was equal amounts of poverty created during the 11 years of her rule. Indeed, the period witnessed the largest favour of the wealthy in modern economic history, leading to the resurrection of twentieth-century economist J K Galbraith, that she had created *'private affluence'*



Six Key Priorities of Thatcherism

- Reduce the state's role in the life of the individual
- Develop a 'Market Economy' to arrest Britain's economic decline
- To promote popular capitalism through privatisation
- To destroy inflation
- To cut the power of trade unions and end industrial conflict
- To improve Britain's international status

Stephen J Lee, *Aspects of British Political History 1914–1995* (1996), Ch. 15, p. 229.

Thatcher was viewed as a controversial prime minister particularly because her policies were very different from those of the previous 30 years. One commentator described her *'secret of her dislike of political consensus between the parties'*.⁴⁹ She ultimately believed in *'self-help'* and *'Victorian values'* as opposed to the belief in the need for state intervention to solve the social and economic problems that had existed for much of the post-war period. In adopting this approach, the relationship between the state and the individual was altered in a less 'statist' and a more individualistic direction during her time in office. Over a number of conflicts, both international and domestic, and in this sense, her era was one of divisive and conflicting politics that featured an increase in *'extra-parliamentary'*

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⁴⁹ Stephen J Lee, *Aspects of British Political History 1914–1995* (1996), Ch. 15, p. 229.

Her 'individualist' ideology was clearly evident in her raft of significant trade policies, such as privatisation, also played a major role in her long-term success. This made her a radical politician for her time, in many ways an unusual triumph. She ultimately succeeded in moving the British political agenda towards a right-wing position, a long period of it being located on the centre-left. It is for this determined and political attitudes and beliefs that she is remembered as a landmark prime minister. She was removed from office in a somewhat 'ruthless' manner, when her party decided to call a general election, a vote-winner but rather an electoral liability. A combination of her dominated political and significant policy differences appear to have been key factors in her demise. Her consolation that she had never been rejected by the electorate.

A good recent film focusing on events of the Thatcher years is the 'Iron Lady'.

The following BBC website is an excellent overview of the Thatcher years and 1990: 'The Thatcher Years in Statistics'

 http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/in_depth/629/629/4447082.stm



Historical Interpretations

The 'Thatcherite' or 'New Right' view of the 1980s is that the economic policies of reduced public spending and tax cuts were the radical shock that the British economy needed to end stagnation and industrial unrest of the 1970s. Friedman and Hayek were key influences on governance that rejected the principles of the post-war consensus that had dominated the Thatcherite view of this period claims that conditions were put in place for long-term growth as a result, many people were better off as the decade progressed. Trade union power was dealt with in an efficient way that past governments of all parties had failed to do.

Left-of-centre and social democratic critics of this era took a contrasting view of the economic policies imposed were too harsh and that the associated social consequences were too significant, with public services also adversely affected by such reductions in spending. This perspective also claimed that the legislation introduced to deal with trade union power sought to destroy these bodies in a politically-motivated approach. The 'Keynesian' historians such as Eric Hobsbawm claimed that Thatcher's policies destroyed the post-war boom and produced an economic 'Golden Age'.

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Exercise 1: What were the key problems facing Britain in

Which were the most significant issues affecting Britain in the 1980s? Rank from the list below and briefly explain why:

- Wealth creation
- Unemployment
- Inflation
- Entrepreneurial culture
- Taxation
- Privatisation
- Social conflict

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.

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Revision Exercise 2: Conservative Government 1979–1990

Outline the key successes and failures of the Conservative government (1979–1990).

Policy/Issue	Successes	
<i>Political</i>		
<i>Economic</i>		
<i>Social</i>		
<i>Cultural</i>		

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Exercise 3: Key Revision Questions 1979–1990

Revision Quiz

1. The control of which economic indicator did Margaret Thatcher use to bring Britain's economy to recover?
.....
.....
2. Describe two conflicts which Margaret Thatcher found herself in during the 1980s (e.g. *military, social, industrial, political*).
.....
.....
3. What happened to the Labour Party in 1981 that helped the Conservatives win the 1983 electoral fortunes?
.....
.....
4. Which flagship policy played a key role in Margaret Thatcher's economic recovery?
.....
.....
5. Which two prominent cabinet ministers resigned from Thatcher's government in the final year of her premiership?
.....
.....

To

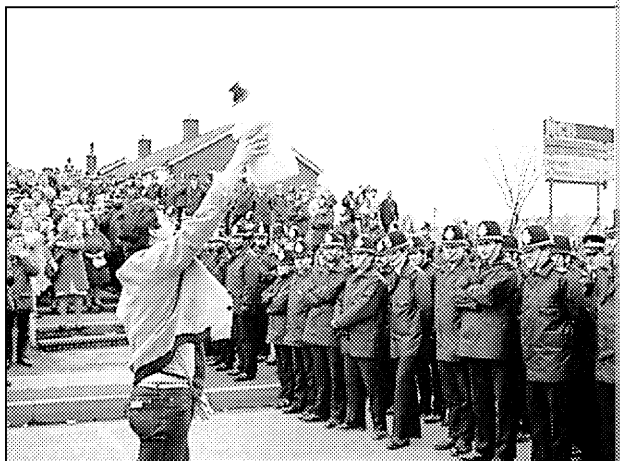
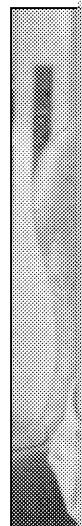
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Discussion Points

1. What were the key reasons for the Conservative Party's 1979 general election victory?
2. To what extent did the problems of the Labour Party from the late 1970s assist the Conservatives?
3. What was the impact of privatisation on Britain's economy and wider society during the 1980s?
4. What were the positives and negatives that arose as a consequence of the 1984–1985 miners' strike?
5. What evidence is there that there was significant 'extra-parliamentary' opposition to the Thatcher Government from 1979 onwards?
6. To what extent did the Thatcher Government transform the British economy and was this for better or worse?
7. How significant was Margaret Thatcher's role as the Cold War came to an end?
8. What were the key reasons for Margaret Thatcher's fall from power in 1990?



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Major as leader (1990–1997)

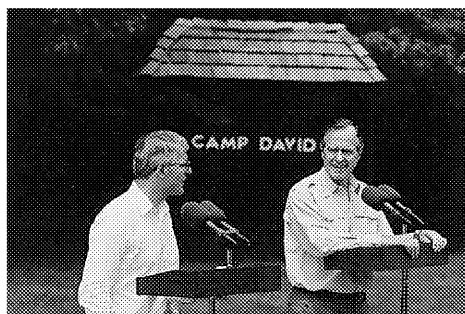
On taking office and succeeding the dominant figure of Margaret Thatcher, Major announced that he wanted to preside over: **'A nation at ease with its**

Such a message appeared to be an implicit criticism of his predecessor, a suggestion that the country was somehow disunited following eleven and a half years of Thatcherism and that Major now sought another ideological direction, namely post-Thatcher 'consensus' that acknowledged that some of her policies were extreme, divisive and inflexible. This indicated some tension at the top echelons of the Conservative Party following the turbulent end to Thatcher's time in office. Major subsequently had to live with unflattering comparisons and criticism in relation to his predecessor for the seven and a half years that he was prime minister.

Major was, nevertheless, initially seen as the Conservative Party's 'continuator' of many of Mrs Thatcher's views, but this perception would gradually change. Thatcher would later proclaim that she would continue to be a 'backseat driver' under Major, suggesting that she would retain a degree of control over the party and the government. Major, however, initially sought to unify the cabinet by bringing together a new team, symbolically appointing Thatcher's challenger, Michael Heseltine, to a prominent position. This was part of a more 'consensual' overall approach to government, with Major adopting a more emollient leadership style than his predecessor.

In reality, however, the Conservative Party was split, with Europe a defining issue for so many years to come. Such a situation would seriously hamper Major's government onwards, with many Thatcherites, extremely bitter at the nature of her ouster, creating divisions in the process. Such underlying factors played a key part in the challenges that would lead the Conservative Party to its defeat in 1997:

It was thus a divided and uncertain party which Major inherited November 1990. The country was still all over the Thatcherite poll tax, with a deteriorating economy, and split over



Having symbolically ditched the multi-party system, Major found himself facing something of a crisis in the first months of office. As Britain's first post-war prime minister, Major faced a less certain international environment. He moved into the coalition of support for the US against Iraq (January 1991). The 'special relationship' with the USA would remain a priority for his government (President George Bush Senior, left).

This was particularly so because the USA had now emerged as the world's sole superpower, creating a 'unipolar' international power structure (with one power dominant). In contrast to the previous era, the UK and the UK government became involved in seeking a diplomatic settlement to the Persian Gulf war (1992–1995), and the humanitarian crisis that then developed in Bosnia. This proved to be the bloodiest European conflict since World War II, despite the efforts of various statesmen. Major also had to negotiate the controversial European Single Convention (December 1991), and then steer its passage through Parliament from 1992.

⁵⁰ Anthony Seldon & Peter Snowdon, *The Barren Years: 1997–2005*, cited in Stuart Ball & Peter Snowdon, *Power: The Conservatives in Opposition Since 1867* (Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, 2003), p. 10.

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1992 General election

Major clung to power until the very end of the maximum five-year term or seen as a sign of desperation in the governing party. However, against all in defiance of hostile opinion polls, Major was returned to power in April with a healthy 7.6% lead in the popular vote, although the parliamentary majority was historically slim and would create difficulties as the years progressed. This was seen as *'the electorate showing a preference for security and the known rather than for experimentation and change'*,⁵¹ with signs of economic growth despite the recession. In the aftermath of the fourth successive election victory for the Conservatives, Thatcher in November 1990 appeared to have been totally vindicated:

Party	MPs
	1992
Conservative	336
Labour	271
Lib Dem	20
Others	24

*The 1992 election provided a remarkable victory for the Conservatives. To win by such a margin of 7.6%...was totally unexpected. It was also the longest depression since the 1930s and a campaign that had been much derided.*⁵²

At last Major could shake off the image of having merely inherited power and pursue his desire for a 'classless society', to soften the often harsh tone of Thatcher's policies and the negative social implications of his predecessor's policies. With many reassuring tones to Labour's uncertain message, Major subsequently received more votes for a winning party at any post-war election – **over 14 million**. He could now be able to govern in his own right, sentiments that he quickly made public and confirmed:

I'm delighted I can now accept that the country has elected me in my own right
(John Major, 9th April 1992)

Economic policy

John Major, who as Mrs Thatcher's Chancellor had strongly supported the decision to join the **Exchange Rate Mechanism (ERM)** in 1990, continued with this approach as a key plank of the government's strategy to keep inflation under control. Major described the ERM as *'the medicine to cure the ailment (of inflation)'*⁵³ but his enthusiasm for this European-based policy would create a huge rift within the Conservative Party and its growing scepticism towards Europe, as Heath's pro-European legacy was back to haunt the increasingly fractured Tories.

8

Exchange Rate Mechanism (ERM)

Established in 1979 as a key preparation for the single currency (Euro), the ERM was part of the European Monetary System in which participating governments agreed to maintain the values of their individual currencies in line with the ECU (the provisional single currency).

⁵¹ Stephen J Lee, *Aspects of British Political History 1914–1995* (1996), Ch. 15, p. 243.

⁵² D Butler & D Kavanagh, *The British General Election of 1992* (1992), Ch. 13, p. 269.

⁵³ John Major, *The Autobiography* (1999), Ch. 14, p. 341.

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However, this determined desire to shadow the German mark ultimately led to the shattering of the Conservatives' economic credibility. The high level of economic activity within the UK and weakened the pound as part of a strategy that cost the country about 3% of GDP. This economic strategy also resulted in events that culminated in **Black Wednesday** in September 1992.

Black Wednesday

Despite Britain being in the second significant **recession** since 1979, with unemployment, bankruptcies and house repossession spiralling, the Conservatives under Thatcher were largely re-elected in 1992 because of their perceived economic competence in the eyes of key voters. Their reputation in this sphere was shattered within months by the events of 'Black Wednesday'.

This incident was a further legacy of the troubled Thatcher relationship with the ERM. Attempts to maintain Britain's membership of the ERM in order to keep inflation low. Consequently, on 16th September 1992 Chancellor **Norman Lamont** raised interest rates from 10% to 12%, then to 15%, and authorised the spending of billions of pounds to buy up the sterling being frantically sold on the currency markets due to the pound's falling value within the ERM. Four billion pounds of sterling was spent, the equivalent of £70 per person in the UK, and the impact of this day on the wider British politics cannot really be underestimated:

Black Wednesday...the day the pound toppled out of the ERM – was a political and economic calamity. It unleashed havoc in the Conservative Party and it changed the political landscape of Britain. On that day, a fifth consecutive Conservative election victory...became remote, if not impossible.⁵⁴



ERM

- EU member states agreed to fix the value of their currencies to the German mark (the ERM currency) as a way to keep inflation under control.
- Consequently, the Bundesbank set high interest rates to maintain the ERM's anti-inflationary target.
- ERM member states were required to buy and sell their currencies by Brussels to maintain a single currency.

This currency framework was viewed by many as a precursor to a single currency. However, attitudes towards such an eventual policy were mixed. Eurosceptic critics of the ERM argued that the result of the pound entering this European economic institution at an overvalued level was a humiliation. The pound, ultimately, could not maintain its value or alignment with other currencies. The financial cost was experienced by ordinary British voters in the long term as higher taxation would ultimately meet the cost of trying to remain within the ERM. Many people experienced unpredictable mortgage rates due to the volatile interest rates.

Many commentators agreed with John Major's brutally honest assessment of the day the Conservatives lost the next election, whenever it was likely to be. It was a humiliation for a pivotal economic policy of Major's Government, 'and the economic policy was destroyed'.⁵⁵ The BBC's Peter Jay added that the event marked a 'turn in government economic policy in 25 years', affecting both its economic relationship with Europe. It has ultimately been described as:

The most humiliating moment for British politics since the IMF crisis of 1976, by what had happened.⁵⁶

⁵⁴ John Major, *The Autobiography* (1999), Ch. 14, p. 312.

⁵⁵ Dennis Kavanagh & Anthony Seldon, *The Powers Behind the Prime Minister: The Hidden Influence* (2007), p. 100.

⁵⁶ Andrew Marr, *A History of Modern Britain* (2007), p. 492.

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'Black Wednesday' was a watershed for many in the Conservative Party re Europe and the European Union. There was a hardening of attitudes and c among many Conservatives due to a widespread belief that Germany's 'se rates was the root cause of Britain's economic suffering. The pound had e Lamont failed to follow Callaghan's precedent in 1967 and resign, yet he h laughing stock and target for the press and six months later Major sacked b

Many felt Major should also have been clearing his desk, such was the neg inflicted on Conservative Party morale and wider public support. While th competence had been the key factor in its somewhat unexpected 1992 gene the events of 'Black Wednesday', the party's economic fortunes were irrev to a long-term weakening in their political support over subsequent years, overwhelming rejection from office in 1997.

Task and Talking Point

Write a few brief paragraphs explaining the significance of 'Black Wednesday' for the Conservative Party's economic reputation, its long-term electoral prospects and its impact on public support.

Other key economic policies

In a bid to further kick-start a post-Thatcher economic recovery, in the early Government abolished the National Economic Development Council ('NEDC') which was established in the early 1960s and increasingly viewed as a corporatist body. He also removing the long-standing 'Wages Councils' for the low paid, he was a layer of employment protection.

In following on from Margaret Thatcher's industrial policy of the 1980s, Major continued further coal-mine closures which provoked significant outrage in autumn 1994. *'middle classes march with the miners'*.⁵⁷ He also broke election promises not to raise fuel on fuel at 8% in 1993, and he then suffered an embarrassing parliamentary vote to increase it further in 1994. This was because of his small majority in Parliament. MPs voted with the opposition parties to prevent a further VAT rise on housing.

This gave the impression of a lack of both compassion and economic competence, with ongoing Labour criticism that during the sustained Conservative years, public services, such as the NHS and the education system, were not satisfactorily maintained. Major's administration was also criticised for the privatisation of British Rail. It did not appear to improve rail services, raised questions about economic value for money and was branded by critics as a '*privatisation too far*'.

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⁵⁷ Michael Heseltine, *Life in the Jungle* (2000), Ch. 18, p. 439.

European divisions

As the first post-Cold War British prime minister, John Major did not face the high-stakes diplomacy that Margaret Thatcher experienced with the Soviet Union and the USA in the 1980s. However, in the wake of the destructive developments over the issue of Europe during the latter years of the Thatcher period in office, John Major's premiership was haunted and fatally undermined by European matters (from 'Black Wednesday' onwards). This 'fault-line' at the heart of the Conservative Party had clearly played a key role in the downfall of her increasing hostility to the European Community. It continued to cause

For most of the 1990s the party was polarised between 'Eurofanatics' and 'Europhobes'.

The Maastricht Treaty



Maastricht Treaty (1992)

This treaty was alternatively known as the 'Treaty on European Union' and the European Union (EU), further developing the establishment of the 'single market' and plans for a single currency towards the end of the 1990s. Britain secured several key provisions such as the Social Chapter, which regulated working conditions. Such options were debated in parliamentary debates before it was formally approved in the UK.

Major was initially viewed as sharing Margaret Thatcher's growing scepticism about the EU, but during the 1990s it gradually appeared that he was more positive about the EU. As his period in office progressed, some of Major's Europe-related problems were linked to the provocative public comments on the subject by his predecessor, and Major's criticism of Thatcher's interventions as 'unforgivable' behaviour.

The reality was that ever since Heath had signed Britain up to EEC membership, the Conservatives had been divided towards this developing European entity. It was an internal party storm on the European issue when he negotiated and signed the **Maastricht Treaty** in 1991/1992, having proclaimed early on in his premiership that he was the 'heart of Europe'.

This Treaty was aimed at making Europe more integrated, primarily by developing common policies (notably preparing for a single currency), as well as changing the structure of the European Union. Major claimed to have achieved some key opt-outs and secured the signing up to the Treaty that was finally agreed in 1992.

It was signed by Major despite many Conservative MPs demanding a referendum. Even several backbench MPs, it was something they came to fiercely oppose. The fact that the Maastricht Treaty renamed the European community as the European Union, and the Conservative **Eurosceptics** had sinister 'federalist' implications involving a move to a central European level.

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⁵⁸ Mark Garnett, 'Centre', in Kevin Hickson (ed.), *The Political Thought of the Conservative Party* (Oxford, 1994), p. 100.

'Black Wednesday' had ultimately reopened Conservative wounds on the European issue and the prolonged Maastricht negotiations and parliamentary votes between 1992 and 1993 displayed Conservative splits on the issue in the full glare of the public.

Subsequently, during this prolonged legislative process, the Conservative civil war over Europe was on full display.

There were consequently several key parliamentary rebellions on this issue that undermined the government's small majority, eroding its image and authority in the process. Conservative opponents of Maastricht, who felt it was a European treaty too far, were sufficient in numbers to remove Major's majority if they rebelled. Margaret (Lady)

Thatcher was manipulating many of them from the House of Lords, proclaiming 'I have signed that Treaty' and that it was 'a recipe for national suicide'. The end

A constantly shifting group of around 40–60 Tory MPs regularly worked with key parts of their government's main piece of legislation, and Major's day-to-day

Although Major managed to just about keep the party's European divisions to withdraw the party whip from eight '**Maastricht Rebels**' in late 1994, on return to the fold some months later with few concessions apparently made, it was an *irreparable weakness*⁶⁰ to his growing number of critics. Despite some very a few embarrassing defeats relating to this treaty, Major did just about manage on the premiership, but the internal party pressure on him was building up pressures from a resurgent Labour Party under Tony Blair who was 'moderate' in terms of its policies and image, and successfully attacking the Conservative and particularly Major's perceived weak leadership.

In 1996/1997, further destabilising tensions with Europe emerged over the banned exports of British beef due to alleged British farming methods and disease BSE (found in British cows) and the deadly CJD, a brain disease that killed a number of people across Britain and Europe. Major's inconclusive '**wait and see**' sought to steer a middle ground in terms of ongoing European integration, but deep divisions on European policy within his party. Many within the Conservative remained hostile to this issue and Europe played a key role in party divisions leading to heavy general election defeats of 1997 and 2001. John Major's plight in relation to Europe has been effectively summarised as follows:

*John Major's majority slowly ebbed away, while the Eurosceptic forces remorselessly eroded his public credibility.*⁶¹



Someone who links with generally held by a population

This is a power is authority political regional

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⁵⁹ Andrew Marr, *A History of Modern Britain* (2007), p. 493.

⁶⁰ Peter Hennessy, *The Prime Minister: The Office and its Holders Since 1945* (2000), Ch. 17.

⁶¹ Michael Heseltine, *Life in the Jungle* (2000), Ch. 18, p. 417.

Social policy initiatives

To divert increasing hostility from the formerly loyal sections of the Conservative Party, Major sought to develop a distinctive policy agenda and he tried to place greater emphasis on health and education, in seeking to respond to critics who felt that the Thatcher government had marginalised such policy areas.


During the first part of the 1990s, both economic and social policy-making were disjointed and lacking in terms of a coherent connected vision, as Major recognised, such as Europe and internal party divisions. He also faced some major problems, such as the alarming statistic produced in 1993 that the gap between the highest and lowest income earners had reached the widest levels since records began, and that levels of poverty had increased since 1979 (despite average living standards rising). Prosperity was certainly not the reality of mid-1990s Britain.

Consequently, there were determined attempts to get people back into work and to reduce welfare, with policies such as the 'Jobseekers Allowance' (1996) put in place to encourage work, and making some benefits 'conditional'. Yet despite economic improvement, fundamental social problems and levels of poverty (arguably caused by policies that were somewhat overlooked by Major's continued faith in free-market policies) remained. The Poverty Action Group claimed that 1996 marked a post-war peak in poverty, with one in four British children living in poverty, compared to just one in ten in 1979. A minimum wage was opposed by the Conservatives who said it would cost jobs, as people had jobs but were poorly paid.


There was, therefore, notable debate both at the time and since as to whether Major's approach was a more 'moderate' and 'compassionate' version than that of his predecessor. Major argued that he continued with much of the neo-liberal economic agenda of Thatcher, but Thatcherites certainly viewed him as having backtracked from her legacy. Major's approach to Europe, taxation and public spending (which had started to creep up again during the Thatcher years – see table below). This arguably indicated some of the problems in key public services (NHS, education, etc.) at a time of recession and as a result of economic recovery and maintaining a key role for the state.

Public spending as a percentage of GDP (Gross Domestic Product), 1990–1997

1990–91	39.4
1991–92	41.9
1992–93	43.7
1993–94	43.0
1994–95	42.5
1995–96	41.8
1996–97	39.9

Source:  <http://www.ukpublicspending.co.uk/>

As alternative social programmes, Major launched initiatives such as the 'Carter Commission' (1993) and the ill-fated campaign of 'Back to Basics' (1993). The former policy sought to improve public services, but, as a charter of improving quality, it became vague and was subsequently begun to ridicule aspects of it, in particularly the 'traffic cones' initiative.

 http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/uk_politics/7772818.stm

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Critics ultimately claimed that such policies were somewhat vague and unclear, and that the Conservatives appeared to have run out of genuine policy ideas. The success was the launch of the 'National Lottery' in 1994, which in subsequent years raised hundreds of millions of pounds for good causes and various sporting and community projects.



Citizen's Charter

A 1991 policy initiative by John Major's Government that was launched to improve public services. Major described it as 'the central theme for public life' in the 1990s, and sought to redefine post-Thatcher conservatism. Critics attacked it as being too vague and unclear.

Back to Basics

An attempted policy relaunch by John Major's Government in 1993, this approach sought to bring a traditional tone into political life and policy-making. It backfired as it generated significant controversy and led to a series of high-profile government scandals that cost several ministers their jobs.

Political sleaze

'Back to Basics' was launched at the 1993 Conservative Party Conference and sought to promote traditional values such as law and order and educational standards across the country, as well as 'innermost personal beliefs'.⁶² However, the 'back to basics' message appeared hypocritical in the light of sexual and financial scandals taking place in the private lives of several Conservative MPs. They were subsequently accused of hypocrisy by some elements of the press for preaching values that they appeared to be preaching.

An example of one notable scandal from this period was the 'cash for questions' scandal, which appeared in the mid-1990s, which saw several Conservative MPs accused of accepting cash in return for asking questions in Parliament (notably Tim Smith and Neil Hamilton), and not putting the money to other uses. Such a practice was somewhat unethical to put it mildly, and it led to a tightening of the regulations in subsequent years.

As the 1997 general election loomed on the horizon, Smith would stand down and Hamilton refused to do so and was subsequently challenged by 'anti-sleaze' campaigner Neil Hamilton. Journalist Martin Bell (who won Hamilton's formerly safe seat from him) exposed the scandal. The 'Arms to Iraq' scandal of the mid-1990s, when it appeared that the government had broken an international arms embargo by selling weapons to Iraq.

The moralistic tone of Major's crusade for better standards, therefore, appeared hypocritical. His administration became tarred with the allegation of 'sleaze' (both sexual and financial) in the high-profile episodes above. This certainly damaged the party as a result of the 1997 general election defeat. However, Major always denied that this was a political strategy.

'Back to basics'... became a tool in the hands of newspaper critics... (It was) a statement about personal morality.⁶³

⁶² John Major, *The Autobiography* (1999), Ch. 16, p. 387.

⁶³ John Major, *The Autobiography* (1999), Ch. 16, p. 387.

Major himself started to be remorselessly mocked and satirised, with *The G* cartoons ridiculing him by constantly depicting him with his shirt tucked in (worn over his trousers!), see example below:

🔗 http://www.belltoons.co.uk/bellworks/index.php/leaders/1994/0528-25-11-94_PAN

In a similar satirical vein, the *Spitting Image* TV show depicted Major as a 'g personality or charisma. Close associates of Major claimed that his own m affected by such ongoing media criticisms.

Major and Northern Ireland

Following on from the Thatcher years and the steady levels of violence that erupted in Northern Ireland, terrorism and bloodshed continued into the 1990s. This was despite the 1985 Anglo-Irish Agreement that was supposed to deliver greater political stability, yet which failed to tackle the IRA and drain it of its ability to function, as had been its intention. This was evident in IRA terrorist activity such as the 1993 Bishopsgate bombing in London's financial district, the 1993 Warrington bombing which killed two young boys, and the 1996 Manchester bombing which destroyed a huge part of the city centre.

A large amount of the attacks were against commercial interests and designed to cause damage, but Warrington proved that innocent bystanders were also often killed. Ongoing religious-fuelled killings between Protestant and Catholic terrorists in Northern Ireland, with total casualties related to 'The Troubles' for this period.

Deaths relating to 'The Troubles' (1990–1997)

1990	81
1991	97
1992	88
1993	88
1994	64
1995	9
1996	18
1997	22

However, despite the British government's repeated mantra that '*we do not want to develop from the early 1990s, and which were kept confidential from the government machine. During such talks, direct contact was made between reliable IRA sources who informed the Prime Minister that the 'war is over' and that such talks were a risk worth taking if it meant an eventual peaceful outcome was a possibility.*

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Despite much furore from Conservative and Unionist figures when the talks began, Major could justify them by the fact that such negotiations helped to initiate the Good Friday Agreement in 1994; the first of its kind in 25 years. This had followed on from the Downing Street Declaration with the Irish government, which had publicly announced a framework for ending violence. Major remarked on this development as follows:

*The Declaration was a powerful symbol. After twenty-four years of conflict and partition, it showed that there was a set of principles which the British and Irish could accept... Unionists were assured that a united Ireland would not be imposed on them, and they were assured that their traditions and aspirations would be respected.... The Declaration was a blueprint for a settlement, but it paved the way.'*⁶⁴

However, Major's policy on Northern Ireland didn't produce a sustained and effective negotiating hand was weakened by the fact that he had a small parliamentary majority reliant on Ulster Unionist MPs. Unionist anger at his talks, therefore, limited his effectiveness while Republican paramilitary forces in the IRA seemed to be willing to negotiate an end to violence as a back-up option. Yet it is still viewed by many political observers as a bold and breaking diplomacy, Major arguably laid the foundations for the landmark Good Friday Agreement in 1998, and for this he deserves notable credit.

Major's leadership challenge (1993-1995)

In the wake of fierce European divisions, growing political unpopularity, and a loss of confidence in Major's perceived weak leadership, many die-hard Thatcherite Conservatives felt that John Major was a pale imitation of his predecessor, whom they held in great reverence. As a result of this, an increasing number of government backbenchers began to question the increasingly beleaguered Prime Minister and many felt that he was facing an inevitable defeat at the next general election. As a consequence of this dark period, a leadership challenge was launched within the parliamentary party:

*Never in the last century had the leader been treated with so little respect by the Conservative press at large.*⁶⁵

By the middle of 1995, the various pressures on Major appeared to reach boiling point. With repeated media stories of possible challenges to his leadership from within the party, in June 1995 he subsequently took a drastic and somewhat unorthodox political gamble by resigning as party leader and triggering a re-election process which he would again stand for his part, but it was ultimately an attempt to get his internal political opponents to support his actions triggered a Conservative leadership election which only sitting Prime Minister John Major could win. This gamble appeared to pay off in the short term at least, and Major was able to fend off heavyweights and more threatening contenders such as **Michael Portillo** and remained loyal and did not challenge him.

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⁶⁴ John Major, *The Autobiography* (1999), Ch. 19, p. 455.

⁶⁵ Anthony Seldon & Peter Snowdon, 'The Barren Years: 1997-2005', cited in Stuart Ballantine, *Recovering Power: The Conservatives in Opposition Since 1867* (Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, 2005), p. 10.

Major won the subsequent leadership contest against his former cabinet colleague and minister **John Redwood**, who was his only challenger for the position. The 1995 saw him gain 218 MPs' votes in comparison to Redwood's 89, alongside 10 abstentions. Yet it was far from an overwhelming victory, and over 100 Conservative MPs (approximately one third of the parliamentary party), failed to support him. Major saw a serving prime minister seek re-election as leader of his own party. Major's margin of victory had only just been within the acceptable target that he had set. He realised that it indicated further political difficulties lay ahead within the Conservative Party.

I felt deflated. There was no elation. The leadership had been settled for the previous year. John's (Redwood's) vote meant there were many storms ahead.⁶⁶

Major's downfall

In short, following this somewhat turbulent re-election as party leader, Major was to be taken up with ensuring the short-term political survival of his administration. By the end of his parliamentary majority of just 21 (1992–1997), and by 'December 1996 the government was in a Parliament altogether',⁶⁷ following a series of defections, deaths and by-election losses, the government stumbled on for a few months, clinging to power. It was a more positive turn of events to save it from what seemed to be an inevitable electoral defeat. Its fortunes appeared to reflect a bitterly split post-Thatcher Conservative Party. By 1997 its term of office had expired and it was defeated on an unprecedented scale by the 'New Labour' juggernaut under Tony Blair, that had modernised itself and

Overview: The Major years

John Major headed a divided party that had arguably been in power for too long and had run out of steam. Major himself later commented that perhaps his unexpected election victory in 1992 had '*stretched the elastic of democracy too far*', implying that four consecutive terms for one party was perhaps not an ideal democratic development. Major faced a wide range of difficult problems, many of which were European and economic related, although he undoubtedly made his own contribution to the difficulties for himself due to his perceived failure to make decisive decisions and to prefer a 'consensual' approach to political leadership. His somewhat reserved and 'boring' image was attacked and ridiculed by elements of the press, particularly in contrast he provided following the colourful and controversial figure of Margaret Thatcher.

Major complained that he never had the luxury of the large parliamentary majority enjoyed by Margaret Thatcher, and this certainly made life at Downing Street more difficult. The Conservative Party was in visible decline due to deaths, by-election losses and defections. With little constructive progress with the Northern Ireland peace process, most of Major's tenure of office up to 1997 appeared to be crisis-ridden. Whether such problems were due to a lack of parliamentary majority or weak leadership (or a combination of both), has been the subject of subsequent debate.

⁶⁶ John Major, *The Autobiography* (1999), Ch. 25, p. 645.

⁶⁷ Anthony Seldon & Peter Snowdon, 'The Barren Years: 1997–2005', cited in Stuart Ballantine, *Recovering Power: The Conservatives in Opposition Since 1867* (Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, 2005), p. 10.

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Many voters ultimately suffered due to Conservative economic policies during this particular (e.g. a recession and 'Black Wednesday') and were unwilling to cast their vote in 1997. However, as a positive footnote to an otherwise negative period, John Major would later claim that it was his government that had dragged the economy out of the recession, despite an overall mixed economic record, had ultimately made the tough choices that presented Tony Blair's incoming Labour Government with a 'golden economy'. He could therefore proclaim:

During my premiership interest rates fell from 14 per cent to six per cent; unemployment fell from 10.5 per cent when I took office, and at 1.6 million and falling upon my departure... The economy grew by 0.5 per cent in 1990, shrinking by 1.5 per cent in 1991 before recovering to grow by 2.5 per cent in 1992.

John Major could ultimately claim to take some positive experiences from his time as prime minister, despite the period (1990–1997) being generally viewed as a difficult one for him and his political party.

Questions and Talking Points

1. Why did the nature of Margaret Thatcher's departure from office create a legacy that shaped John Major's premiership?
2. Explain how Europe was the source of many of John Major's problems.
3. What were the key factors that forced John Major to call a leadership election?
4. Explain the view that 'Black Wednesday' (1992) sealed the Conservative's fate.

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⁶⁸ John Major, *The Autobiography* (1999), Ch. 27, p. 689

Revision Exercise 4: John Major's Government 1990–1997

Outline the key successes and failures of the Conservative government of 1990–1997.

Policy/Issue	Successes	
Political		
Economic		
Social		
Cultural		

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Exercise 5: Key Revision Questions 1990–1997

Revision Quiz

1. What key factors helped John Major win the 1992 general election?
.....
.....
2. What key factors weakened John Major throughout his five years in office?
.....
.....
3. What name is given to the day John Major's Government was forced to leave the Exchange Rate Mechanism (ERM) in 1992?
.....
4. What impact did the issue of Europe have on the Major premiership?
.....
.....
5. Outline three key policy areas that damaged John Major's Government and led to its defeat in 1997.
.....
.....
.....

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The Era of New Labour (1997

By the mid-1990s the Conservative Party had been in power for over 15 years, confirmed its image as the *'natural party of government'*, a position it had retained throughout the twentieth century. It had won four successive general elections, the most in the odds and with a record number of votes, but events following this election began to undermine the prospects of a fifth election victory in a row.

The five years between 1992 and 1997 were marked by contrasting fortunes and the combatants of British politics. The governing Conservative Party was consumed by internal division and a seemingly irreconcilable split over the issue of Britain's relationship with the European Union. The major economic setback of **'Black Wednesday'** in September 1992 seemed to doom the party in the next election, whenever it was called. All of these factors seriously undermined John Major that had remained in power with a very small parliamentary majority.

From Kinnock to Blair (1983–1994)

The Labour Party had been undergoing a process of gradual 'modernisation' since its annihilation in the 1983 general election, with leaders Neil Kinnock (from 1983) and John Smith (from 1992), bringing its policies back towards the crucial 'centre ground' of the political spectrum, the location where general elections were said to be won. Kinnock's success in expelling various left-wing groups such as the Militant Tendency from the party in the late 1980s, and his leadership had gradually reduced the Conservative party's dominance in the late 1987 and 1992 general elections. In this context, it is perhaps unfair to credit the party's recovery and change of image to Tony Blair. It was, therefore, the case that the necessary tendencies were already underway when Blair became leader in 1994, although he accelerated their pace.

Some progress under Kinnock was evident, but there was both disappointment and frustration as the party failed to win power in 1992, despite many of the opinion polls suggesting a Labour victory. The outcome in the run-up to polling day. Having himself lost two general elections in a row, Kinnock knew his time had gone.

The Labour Party, therefore, suffered yet another trauma when it endured the death of John Smith in 1992, and this sense of shock was further compounded when its relatively young leader died suddenly of a heart attack in May 1994. Yet from such a personal tragedy came a new opportunity for the party, and in deciding to skip a generation and select a new leader, Gordon Brown succeeded Smith as party leader, the Labour Party was seeking to embrace its modernisation.

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Neil Kinnock

Labour Party leader (1983–1992). A Welsh MP originally from the party's radical wing, Kinnock led the party leadership following the 1983 general election landslide defeat, the party's worst result. He then began the process of moving the party's policies away from left-wing radicalism to develop a more moderate appeal to floating voters. Lost two successive elections in 1987 and 1992, which reduced the Conservative parliamentary majority and moved Labour closer to a

John Smith

Labour Party leader (1992–1994), previously serving as Shadow Chancellor of the Exchequer. A Scottish MP from the more moderate wing of the party, Smith had served in the Shadow Cabinet in the 1970s and was seen as a 'safe pair of hands' in succeeding Kinnock in 1992. He initiated 'modernisation' and initiated one last push for power after four general elections. Suffered suddenly of a heart attack in May 1994 (aged only 55), an unforeseen development. Led the party to 'skip a generation' and elect a much younger leader in the form of Tony Blair (aged 41) to accelerate the party's modernisation process.

Blair as leader: Character and ideology

In July 1994, therefore, Labour selected 41-year old **Tony Blair** (*right*) as its new leader, a non-ideological moderate who was not associated with the party's left-wing baggage that had damaged it at recent elections. Blair became leader of the party, inheriting the more established leadership claims of his long-time colleague and superior, Gordon Brown, and an agreement was reached between both men that Brown agreed not to run against Blair in return for key powers within a future Labour government. This failure of Brown to become leader at this specific time would cause considerable difficulties in the Blair–Brown relationship in the years ahead. The selection of Blair as leader appeared to pose a significant threat to the Conservative electoral hegemony of recent years.

Blair was quite clear in his overall analysis that Labour had not been progressive in the recent elections. On this basis, he sought to 'radically modernise' and alter the party's image:

... the party had lost (in 1992) because we had failed to modernise sufficiently. We had painted in shades but by bursts of vivid colour.⁶⁹

Blair subsequently began a drastic review of existing Labour Party policy, rejecting 'socialist' proposals that had appeared to cost it votes in middle-class 'Middle England' elections. The most notable example of this was the decision to abandon the party's commitment to the party constitution in 1995 which had affirmed the party's commitment to a collective leadership. Blair displayed strong and determined leadership in distancing his regime from the party's radical heritage, and in doing so began to deliberately use the term '**New Labour**' to describe the party, apparently in a deliberate attempt to rebrand its overall image.

Blair was helped by skilled media operators and 'spin-doctors' such as Alan Campbell, a tabloid journalist who mastered the art of effectively communicating with the media, helping New Labour win the support of key voters. He was also helped in the process. *The Sun* was the biggest selling national newspaper whose support in 1992 had been seen as a crucial factor in their election victory, and its owner, Rupert Murdoch, was viewed as someone who needed to be won over by the New Labour leaders.

⁶⁹ Tony Blair, *A Journey* (2010), Ch. 2, p. 52.

The 1997 general election

By the time of the (May) 1997 general election, the 'New Labour' project had succeeded in altering the wider public's perception of the Labour Party:

By the time of the general election in 1997, Labour's image had been transformed. Voters now saw it as much more united, trustworthy, economically competent as a whole than the Conservative Party.⁷⁰

The 1997 election was therefore a '**watershed**' political event that saw the 'party of government' that had generally experienced '*periods of opposition to the norm*'⁷¹ found itself in a state of utter political disarray, '*being reduced to a rump*' and experiencing its heaviest electoral defeat '*since the birth of mass democratic politics in 1918*'.⁷² There was a massive 10% direct 'swing' in public opinion from Conservative to Labour, and the 165 Conservative MPs elected was the lowest figure for the party since 1906.



An historically significant 'turning point'

Party	MPs
	1997
Labour	418
Conservative	165
Liberal Democrat	46
Others	30

By contrast, Labour had achieved the triumph of the twentieth century: a **parliamentary majority of 179** elected. At the age of 43, Blair became prime minister for almost 200 years of the Liverpool who was 42 when he was elected in 1812.

Blair had no previous ministerial experience, and neither did much of his cabinet. A few who had served as junior ministers in the last Labour government of 1990-1995 had their experience explicitly acknowledged by Blair:

On 2 May 1997, I walked into Downing Street as prime minister for the first time. I was even as the most junior of junior ministers. It was my first and only job in government.

Whether such a lack of experience was a good or a bad thing would be the subject of much debate in the ensuing years of New Labour rule. What was not in doubt was that, with a majority so huge, Blair and his government were in a very powerful position to implement political, economic, social and cultural changes to the UK.

A long-term spell in opposition for the Conservative Party appeared somewhat ironic in light of this defeat, and such an electoral annihilation at the hands of a revitalised 'New Labour' juggernaut represented the nadir of Conservative twentieth-century fortunes: a loss of both parliamentary seats and wider public support.

⁷⁰ Dennis Kavanagh & Anthony Seldon, *The Powers Behind the Prime Minister: The hidden influence of the Conservative Party* (2005), Ch. 11, p. 243.

⁷¹ Anthony Seldon & Peter Snowdon, 'The Barren Years: 1997-2005', cited in Stuart Ball & Peter Snowdon, *Power: The Conservatives in Opposition Since 1867* (2005), Ch. 11, p. 243.

⁷² Anthony Seldon & Peter Snowdon, 'The Barren Years: 1997-2005', cited in Stuart Ball & Peter Snowdon, *Power: The Conservatives in Opposition Since 1867* (2005), Ch. 11, p. 247.

⁷³ Tony Blair, *A Journey* (2010), Ch. 1, p. 1.

The 1997 general election result was described as a 'Triumph' (*The Guardian*), 'Landslide' (*Daily Telegraph*) and a 'Massacre' (*Daily Mail*), with the general consensus that 'it was all of these'.⁷⁴ Fundamental reasons for such plummet of popular appeal were rooted in the party's ideology, unpopular policies and wider public perception (with the party's image and identity seeming to be damaged and diminished in terms of policy direction) of a lack of long-term vision, and being out of touch with the contemporary public mood.

Summary – key reasons why Labour won and the Conservatives lost

- The Conservative Party appeared to be tired and exhausted after 18 successive years in power.
- By contrast, Labour had been re-energised and more focused on regaining power. Tony Blair launched his 'New Labour' agenda in 1994.
- Confidence in Conservative economic competence had been badly damaged by the 'Black Wednesday' (1992) and the recession of the early 1990s.
- The Conservatives and their policies appeared to be increasingly out of touch with a rapidly changing British society in terms of attitude to gender, race, modern lifestyles etc.
- John Major had been damaged as prime minister by party divisions and a lack of clear leadership (1990 onwards).
- Significant sections of the tabloid press switched their support to the Labour Party in 1997.
- The Conservative Party had been damaged by a succession of stories about sleaze.
- Labour's former reputation of left-wing extremism had been replaced by a more centrist image that appealed to 'Middle England'.

Changing British society

Ultimately, the 1997 Conservative Party appeared to be out of touch with a rapidly changing and gradually more diverse British society. In many ways, the same could be made with how Labour had been similarly out of touch in 1983, and in its current national political office the Conservatives would also have to 'modernise' and 'update' their policies.

A greater degree of social tolerance towards minority groups such as gays and lesbians, and a variety of ethnic groups had generally developed among the wider population during the Conservative duration in office. Yet the general Conservative attitude towards such groups remained largely hostile and indifferent. Such changes in key 'social attitudes' had meant that British society had become a more diverse, tolerant and multicultural society, yet this dynamic was not unerringly evolved while the Conservatives were preoccupied with the political and economic issues with a primary focus on the fundamental economic restructuring of the country.

After nearly two decades of Conservative rule, the needs, anxieties, priorities and expectations of British society had become harder for the party to decipher and comprehend. Many simply felt that British society had changed in the 1990s.⁷⁵

⁷⁴ David Butler & Dennis Kavanagh, *The British General Election of 1997* (1997), Ch. 13, p. 248.

⁷⁵ Anthony Seldon & Peter Snowdon, 'The Barren Years: 1997–2005', cited in Stuart Ball, *Recovering Power: The Conservatives in Opposition Since 1867* (2005), Ch. 11, p. 248.

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Therefore, despite the constant hum of such unerring background social data, the Conservative Party of the mid-90s appeared to be detached from such trends and social change, and this issue would go to the heart of the party's definitive identity problem, as outlined in the quote below from a Conservative MP:

*My children... are all bright... and in their mid or late twenties, and probably Tories. But none of them would ever vote Tory. They think the party is totally out of touch... We have not selected a woman or an ethnic minority candidate for a winnable seat. That's the sort of party we have become.*⁷⁶

Tony Blair ultimately exploited such trends in Labour's favour by advocating enhanced social liberalism and would develop policies that improved rights for various minority groups. This included homosexuals (see social policy later) and ethnic minorities.

Race relations and multiculturalism

In terms of race relations, there were clearly ongoing tensions in some parts of Britain, within some unofficially segregated towns and inner cities, where the ethnic minorities lived together and lived apart from the white population. The UK's Black Minorities population was estimated to have doubled in size from 3 to 7 million between 1991–2001. This was approximately 8% of the UK overall population, although much higher in some areas.

In 2001, there were race riots in Oldham in Lancashire, with cultural differences highlighted over between white and Asian youths. Further smaller riots followed in other parts of the country, including Burnley, Bradford and Leeds, where there were also significant Asian communities. These highlighted the ongoing practical difficulties of racial integration and multiculturalism in twenty-first-century Britain.

The most extreme tensions emanating from poor race relations were addressed by the government's decision to establish the MacPherson Inquiry in 1997 following the death of teenager Stephen Lawrence in 1993. The Conservatives would not hold such incidents as a stain on Britain's position as a multicultural society. This official judicial inquiry reported back in 1999, and the subsequent MacPherson Report highlighted that there was 'institutional racism' within the Metropolitan Police, and several reforms were made to address this situation going forward.

Further immigration from 1997 onwards, notably from the European Union, and the 2004 EU enlargement, would mean that Britain would become an even more diverse and multicultural society by the twenty-first-century commenced. Politicians of all parties would, therefore, have to address these terms and attitudes accordingly, and this remained an ongoing difficulty at the time for all political parties such as UKIP.

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⁷⁶ David Curry, Conservative MP, Interview with Hugo Young, 3 September 2000, cited in *Journalist's Notes from the Heart of Politics*, Ion Trewin (ed.) (2009), p. 667.

Social liberalism and gender equality

So-called 'third wave feminism' also spread its influence across Blair's 'New feminism and promote a further generation of women's equality (despite progress made). An example of such a new form of feminism could be seen in the Rhianna band from the USA, which encouraged women to express their identities more than done in the past. This indicated an ongoing impatience from feminists that what had not been achieved, despite progress since the 1970s, in particular, as well as a female prime minister.

New Labour's egalitarian approach to such race and gender issues also ended discrimination'. This was further reflected in its ongoing advocacy of all-women's percentage of female MPs up from just 60 in 1992 to 128 (98 of whom from 2005) by the 2010 Equality Act in its final year in power. In addition to this, in 2006 Blair's first ever female Foreign Secretary, and only the second after Margaret Thatcher, held the great offices of state.

Blair's Government also sought to embrace more modern attitudes to the role of women, to modernise for the twenty-first-century, particularly after the death of Diana, which Blair referred to as '*The People's Princess*'). There was also more general tolerance of non-conventional family units, with divorce being something the royal family itself had experienced.

The new prime minister also associated himself with various younger pop culture figures, embracing the youth culture for political popularity, and inviting 'Britpop' bands to high-profile Downing Street receptions as part of his so-called '*Cool Britain*'. Blair was photographed playing a guitar and spoke publicly about his interests in acting, and being pictured with various sporting stars. This focus on an enhanced cultural experience was further reflected when Blair's Government made admission to the 2002 World Cup for everyone in 2001. By such policies, attitudes and events, even though critics might say they were gimmicks, Blair seemed to be in tune with public opinion and 'progressive'. Overall, by embracing such examples of social liberalism, and in the process breaking with traditional British traditions, his Government could be viewed as being anti-establishment.

Questions and Talking Points

1. Why was Tony Blair's image seen as being appealing in the mid-1990s?
2. Was it the influence of Tony Blair or the weaknesses of the Conservative Party that led to Labour winning power in 1997?
3. In what ways had British society and social attitudes changed by the mid-1990s, and what were the political repercussions of this?

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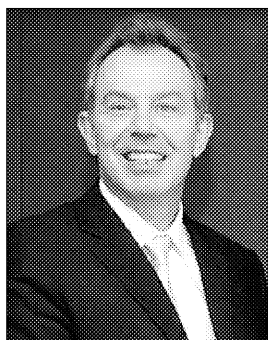


Labour in power: First term (1997–2001)

Tony Blair sought to govern differently from previous Labour governments explicitly rejected the old ideological divisions between 'left' and 'right' as his 'New Labour' project. On being elected he pledged to govern as 'New Labour' and subsequently devised an approach known as 'The Third Way', often involving the fusion of private and public funding in delivering public services, a far more 'socialist' approach of Labour governments of the past.

At the heart of Blair's system of government was the delicate relationship between him and his Chancellor of the Exchequer **Gordon Brown** (right), a potential rival party leader who had been given a huge amount of power and influence over economic making in a bid to appease his own ambitions to become prime minister:

New Labour looked destined to govern Britain for many years, and its two main pillars of authority permanently to change the country... Their agreement to divide the responsibilities was reconfirmed. Through the Treasury, Brown would control the domestic agenda.



The nature of the intense relations between these two men was one of the administration's major strength and weakness. On the one hand, working constructively together in harmony, Blair and Brown formed an effective political team which the Conservative Party had feared. They planned to significantly invest in and 'modernise' the country, bringing the country's creaking infrastructure into the 21st century, while also seeking greater levels of social justice and economic competence. Blair, in particular, wanted to instil greater efficiency in the key public services such as health and education. However, from a negative perspective, the tensions between the two men held towards each other and the rival teams of advisors and supporters contributed to a sense of instability and lack of focus during this longest ever period of Labour in power.

Brown's unfulfilled desire to be prime minister seemed to erode their relationship. As long as he stayed in office, the more impatient to succeed him Brown seemed to become. The relationship was linked to Blair assuming the leadership of the Labour Party in 1997 and this legacy was the source of Brown's significant power as Chancellor. The tensions at the centre of government:

Brown had demanded guarantees that he would have suzerainty over not just the economy but the overlordship of social policy as well. From a mixture of obligation, guilt, dependence and admiration... Blair had ceded much to Brown, though it would never be quite enough.

In the early years of New Labour in power, Blair was the figurehead and public face of the government with appropriate charisma for this role, while Brown was interested in taxation issues and reforms of social policy. While the economy was booming, the partnership appeared to work fairly well, although tensions underpinned by social and economic issues, this first term witnessed, in particular, serious constitutional terms for almost a century, with devolution introduced to Scotland, Wales, Ireland and Greater London and the majority of hereditary peers losing the right to sit in the House of Lords.

⁷⁷ Tom Bower, *Gordon Brown* (2004), Ch. 6, p. 200.

⁷⁸ Andrew Rawnsley, *Servants of the People: The Inside Story of New Labour* (2000), Ch. 2, p. 10.

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Brown and economic policy (1997–2007)

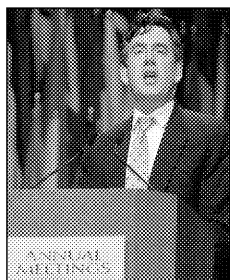
Regardless of such titanic personalities at the centre of government, New Labour focused on restoring the party's economic record while in power following the failings of Margaret Thatcher and John Major. Tony Blair, in close partnership with Brown throughout, wanted to run the government's economic policy in a 'friendly' approach broadly along the 'free-market' principles established by the Conservative governments of the 1980s, but with a greater focus on tackling the often harsh social consequences of this. As previously mentioned, this was the 'Third Way', an ideology that critics described as 'vague' due to its apparent endorsement of both left-wing and right-wing values, emphasising economic liberalism with a degree of state intervention.

The Third Way is not laissez-faire, nor is it state control: it implies an active role for the state in improving the employability of the workforce.

Tony Blair (1998)

The level of interest rates and their impact on mortgage payments and inflation were a key aspect of government economic policy-making from the 1980s onwards. This issue heavily influenced the economic outlook of Tony Blair's Labour Government that took office in 1997. Having spent years in political opposition, and which wanted to enhance Labour's economic credibility after the failings in this crucial policy area of previous Labour governments, the government in particular was focused on ensuring that this Labour government achieved the economic competence that previous Labour administrations had lacked.

One of the first acts of the incoming Labour government was to give control of interest rates to the **Monetary Policy Committee (MPC)** of the Bank of England, a distinctive move that surprised the Conservative opposition by surprise. This effective privatisation of the control of interest rates away from the elected government and passed it over to unelected economists, although the government set targets for the Bank's Monetary Policy Committee.



Prime Minister Tony Blair and his Chancellor **Gordon Brown** used the MPC as a means of providing greater economic stability and restoring the government's power to manipulate the economy for electoral purposes. This was a 'boom and bust' style economics. Given that past Labour governments had suffered from rising inflation and high taxation, this mechanism was seen as a device in improving Labour's economic reputation in the eyes of the establishment of the MPC:

...the MPC turned out to be particularly helpful to Labour ministers since it removed at least one of the issues on which they would favour high employment over low inflation.⁷⁹

⁷⁹ Andrew Marr, *A History of Modern Britain* (2007), p. 532.

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For the majority of their years in office from 1997, New Labour presided over an economic boom, and they were rewarded for this with further election victories in 2001 and 2005. Economically trustworthy and Brown viewed as the 'Granite-and-iron Chancellor', Labour politicians claimed that Tony Blair and Gordon Brown had inherited a 'golden age' from the Conservatives, buoyed by a booming housing market that created an environment of enhanced prosperity. While who should be credited for the economic boom is debateable, there is little doubt that New Labour maintained the general economic approach and priorities of the previous Conservative years, accepting 'the neo-liberal economic settlement'. This 'liberal' economic settlement focused on low inflation, low taxation, along with the acceptance of economic deregulation and privatisation. This 'Thatcherite' style of economics was actually aligned with '**classical liberal economics**', focusing on limited government intervention in the economy.

New Labour presided over low levels of unemployment also, and only after 2007 did economic difficulties began to appear in earnest from 2007 onwards. Cautious and progressively high levels of unsustainable public spending during the 'boom' years of short-term economic planning, damaged the UK economy in the long term, and increased public (government) and private (consumer) debt.

Task 1

To what extent did New Labour (1997–2007) pursue the same economic policies as the Conservative Party from 1979–1997?

Evidence of economic policies similar to Conservatives	Evidence of distinct economic policies

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⁸⁰ Andrew Marr, *A History of Modern Britain* (2007), p. 532.

Taxation and public spending

On taking office in 1997, New Labour had pledged not to increase direct tax or income tax. This was a concerted attempt to eradicate Labour's previous image as a 'tax and spend' party that had been used against it effectively at previous elections. Labour maintained Conservative spending plans for its first two years in office.

proved central in overturning views that Labour was still a 'tax and spend' party.

On winning office they, therefore, maintained this high-profile taxation pledge to the public spending levels of the previous Conservative government (for a new economic agenda that disheartened many left-wing 'Old Labour' supporters). Previous governments had spent heavily in their early phases and run into economic problems. Chancellor Gordon Brown was determined not to repeat this:

doing the opposite of what earlier Labour chancellors had done. They had arrived in office promising to do the opposite of what the Conservatives had done, and then had to..... raise taxes later on.⁸²

Such emphasis on maintaining levels of direct taxation helped to reassure voters (and of middle-class voters), and enabled the party to secure re-election in 2001 on an apparently responsible and 'prudent' economic record. While Chancellor Brown (1997–2007), Gordon Brown reduced the basic rate of taxation from 23% to 20% in 1999, and further 2% to 20% in 2007.

Public spending: The political debate

Following the Thatcherite agenda of the 1980s when tax cuts appeared to be necessary to increase public spending, the narrative of this debate was increasingly revised from 1997 onwards. The Conservative administration (1979–1997) had brought government spending of the 1970s under control, and public spending as a percentage of GDP to the early 3% range by the late 1980s. However, in pursuing such an economic policy, they were accused of neglecting vital services in the process.

For four years after 1997 there was initial caution and 'prudence' (in the words of Brown). Labour adhered to Brown's 'Golden Rules' of only borrowing money to supplement investment within a model of economic efficiency and social justice. However, after election for a second term in 2001, the curve of public spending steadily increased. By 2009, approximately 36% of GDP in 1999–2000, the lowest figures since 1960, public spending continued to rise, reaching 44% of GDP by 2009.⁸³

However, not all spending and investment came directly from the state, and many key policies inherited from the previous Conservative government, e.g. Private Finance Initiative (PFI) that controversially involved private companies investing in key public buildings and hospitals. While they could deliver key improvements to the infrastructure in the short term, critics claimed such projects were bad value for money as they involved long-term debt that the government had to pay (in inflated profits) to the private sector.

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⁸¹ Dennis Kavanagh & Anthony Seldon, *The Powers Behind the Prime Minister: the hidden influence* (2005), p. 10.

⁸² Andrew Marr, *A History of Modern Britain* (2007), p. 534.

⁸³ **Source:** http://www.ukpublicspending.co.uk/uk_20th_century_chart.html and Andrew Marr, *A History of Modern Britain* (2007), p. 534.

Public Spending in UK as a Percentage of GDP


Year	% of GDP
1975-76	49.7
1989-90	39.2
1997-98	38.2
2000-1	34.5
2007-8	41

Source:  <http://www.ukpublicspending.co.uk/>

Gordon Brown clearly became bolder in his explicit increase of taxation after a key moment appeared to be the decision to increase National Insurance contributions. According to one commentator:

He began as Scrooge and quietly fattened up for Santa. There was an abrupt and dramatic shift and public spending soared.⁸⁴

Such increased direct taxation has been attacked by political opponents as punitive (punishing) for high earners and a disincentive to earn money, although the Conservatives had refused to commit to cutting such taxes. Brown used much of this money to invest in public service such as the NHS, education, or alternatively to fund his complex 'tax credits' system that was again aimed at targeting additional resources at those on low incomes and make work worthwhile as opposed to claiming benefits.

For much of their period in political opposition after 1997, the Conservatives had pledged public investment and generally pledged to match Labour's tax and spending in time, supporting his investment in key areas of social policy in the process of reversing traditional Conservative instincts for tax cuts and criticism that New Labour's 'socialist scenario' from the previous Conservative government. New Labour's overall economic making approach was, however, criticised by various left-wing commentators for presiding over a growing inequality between the rich and poor since covered in a survey by the **National Equality Panel** indicated that the gap between the rich and poor was at its greatest level for 49 years in the wake of over a decade of Labour in government.  <http://www.equalities.gov.uk/pdf/NEP%20Report%20bookmarked.pdf>

Traditional Labour Party (and social democrat) economic policy had always been based on a system to **redistribute** wealth and reduce inequality of income, principally by taxing the better-off members of society. While there was clear economic growth throughout the 1990s, it did not appear to have been shared evenly across all parts of society, and key social services such as education could arguably have been more generously funded as a result. Although most people improved their income between 1997-2007, but the wealthier groups did so



Redistribution

Transferring income, wealth or property from some groups or individuals to others.

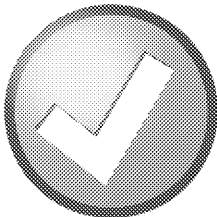

⁸⁴ Andrew Marr, *A History of Modern Britain* (2007), p. 534.

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Summary – positives and negatives of New Labour economic

Positives	Negatives
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inflation kept historically low for most of the period. • Direct taxation remained relatively low. • Bank of England independence created economic stability and interest rate influenced by long-term economic decisions, not short-term political ones. • Growth in property prices and home-ownership linked to interest rate stability. • Progressive increase in public spending on key public services and economic intervention during recession. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Indirect taxation increased, including 'stealth taxes'. • Large scale PFI programme used to raise money for the private sector. • Excessive and unproductive public spending on key areas, including the country's national infrastructure, leading to high levels during New Labour. • The gap between rich and poor continued to grow after 1997. • Unemployment grew during New Labour. 

Social policy

Conservative and Liberal Democrat critics claimed that Labour had redirected **stealth taxes**, on local council taxes, consumer goods, fuel and items associated with purchases. This allegation appeared to be reflected in increased levels of debt. No longer Labour was in power, investing in public services and creating a significant number of public sector jobs in the process. Labour acknowledged that there had been a significant increase in spending over the course of its time in office from 1997 onwards (despite a period of recession) and investing in the national infrastructure to create jobs and provide greater employment opportunities for the long-term unemployed, improving social conditions and quality of life.

Labour also introduced a **windfall tax** on the excessive profits of privatised companies following its election victory in 1997 to fund its costly socio-economic policies such as the minimum wage to tackle long-term unemployment (and addressing youth job prospects). The introduction of the minimum wage and unemployment benefits to help those at the bottom end of the social scale was a key part of Labour's policy. The minimum wage in 1999, although its initial rate of £3.60 for adults was a significant increase, was criticised by politicians and trade unions (who were also critical of its lower rate for unskilled workers).

In the crucial education and health policy areas, Labour had been elected to significantly in many services, and NHS spending approximately doubled in office, with numerous new and modern hospitals invested in and more developed in the education sector, there was further infrastructure investment in new schools. Some were critical in how PFI was used for this purpose. The construction of new universities was prohibited in 1998, while more autonomous academies were opened to replace schools. Labour was in power. Somewhat controversially, annual tuition fees of approximately £1,000 were introduced for university students in 1998 and then trebled in 2004, despite public opposition.

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Despite promising to reform and review the cost and bureaucracy of the civil service, Blair's administration ultimately failed to tackle and address the ongoing cuts. There were cutbacks in some welfare benefits, but other new policies, such as 'tax credits', generated extra cost and expense, targeting those most in need but being expensive to administer. The country's ageing population put further strains on the civil service. Key issues such as pensions, unemployment benefits and disability benefits were not solved by the time Blair left office.

Labour also sought to reflect the more liberal and tolerant values of twenty-first century Britain. A wide range of equality legislation and some significant legislation that protected homosexuals, notably the lowering of the age of consent to 16 (2000). This included legalising gay sexual orientations, and in a similar vein there followed the introduction of civil partnerships for those of the same sex who wished to formalise their relationship in the eyes of the law. The government also granted adoption rights for same-sex couples.

Blair and trade unions

During the Blair years, trade unions were treated with *'fairness not favours'* by the Prime Minister. This referred to the fact that as a key pressure group they would be listened to and their viewpoint considered (unlike for much of the Conservative governments of the 1970s). However, they would be given no special or favourable treatment (unlike the Thatcher governments of the 1970s, and the so-called cosy 'beer and sandwiches' relationship). This was argued made 'New Labour' different from previous governments of both sides of the aisle. Blair subsequently sought to distance its links with the trade unions and sought to create a 'business' image.

Trade unions did, however, receive improved recognition and employment rights in the workplace, and alongside the minimum wage and improved investment in infrastructure, mainstream trade unions were broadly positive towards the Blair administration compared to the previous Conservative regime. Trade unions, of course, continued to sign up to the Labour Party during this period, as they had always historically done. However, unlike the relationship with trade unions during the 1970s, Blair sought to reduce the party's financial dependence on them, indicating that he found them something of an embarrassment to his rebranding of the party.

Blair instead sought greater donations from other more diverse sources (notably from the tobacco industry) which would create subsequent allegations of 'cash for favours'. This came to a head in the Ecclestone affair of 2000, which saw Labour accused of changing health (tobacco advertisement) regulations to appease a prominent donor, Formula One owner Bernie Ecclestone, see more at http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/uk_politics/937232.stm

Ecclestone was said to be concerned about the financial impact of the tobacco industry on the motor sport industry, so the government agreed to exempt Formula One from tobacco tax. Blair claimed this was not an example of favours for donors, the public perception appeared to be. The Labour Party subsequently returned a £1 million donation to Ecclestone, which angered some trade unions who had consistently claimed that their financial support for the party represented 'the cleanest money in politics'.

It was a particularly embarrassing 'sleaze' story for the image-conscious Blair, who had described himself as a 'pretty straight sort of guy' in an earlier media interview, and who had, of course,

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Conservatives for their sleazy reputation prior to 1997. Reputational damage was primarily because while Blair *'had not proved himself worse than any other occupant of the office, it was that he claimed to be so much better.'*⁸⁵

Various left-wing trade union figures also criticised Labour under Blair for in that it was unwilling to forcefully challenge the Thatcherite political narrative during the 1980s. For example, Blair did very little to overturn many of the laws imposed during the 1980s, which restricted their right to strike and take out strikes. However, Blair believed this specific debate had been settled and it was time to move on.

Constitutional policy

One of New Labour's most radical and enduring legacies was the significant constitutional reform it initiated, particularly during its first term between 1997 and 2001. During this period Tony Blair's Government introduced key policies such as the devolution of powers to Scotland, Wales and London (using systems of proportional representation), the abolition of a majority of hereditary peers from the House of Lords, a body which many felt was being outdated and undemocratic. Such achievements meant that in this sense, Blair's Government *'delivered where all previous progressive governments failed.'*⁸⁶ These were long-standing policies of the British left-of-centre political tradition and were praised by many as representing *'The transformation of the British Constitution'*. (A Kaletsky, *The*

Other key constitutional policies introduced during this period included the reform of the House of Lords and various modernisations to the House of Commons in terms of working procedures. These reforms would go on to have a major impact on how the UK's political system operated. However, some Conservative critics felt that such reforms set in motion dangerous forces that would destabilise the United Kingdom in the long term, and more radical voices were heard. The Lords reform was never completed.

Northern Ireland and the Good Friday Agreement

Context and background

Tony Blair's Government inherited a burgeoning peace process from the previous Conservative administration, and the new Prime Minister maintained much of John Major's behind-the-scenes diplomacy with the various groups as part of a bipartisan approach to the troubled province. Yet Blair was in a much stronger political position than Major due to his majority in Parliament, and he eventually initiated more advanced talks and took an active part in the negotiations, spending a huge amount of his premiership on an issue that had occupied and frustrated British politicians for most of the twentieth century.



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⁸⁵ Andrew Rawnsley, *Servants of the People: The Inside Story of New Labour* (2000), Ch. 6, p. 10.

⁸⁶ Andrew Rawnsley, *The End of the Party: The Rise and Fall of New Labour* (2010), Ch. 1, p. 1.

Key events and consequences

Blair energetically cultivated previous links with the Irish government and (terrorist) bodies, and such diplomatic progress came to a head with the late 1990s **'Agreement'** of 1998, an event that heralded a long-term ceasefire and an approach to a violent solution to the Northern Ireland problem by all key players, including the most Unionist paramilitary groups. Many mainstream 'constitutional' Northern Irish and both communities were apprehensive about involving those with links to terrorism, but Blair and the Irish government felt that this inclusive approach was the best (depending on terrorists on both sides eventually disarming).

Blair was supported in his process by charismatic Northern Ireland Secretary David Trimble, a popular public figure. The Agreement, which established a formalised peace process, has been viewed as one of Tony Blair's greatest political achievements and its impact can be seen as follows:

(The Agreement) brought gains in investment and jobs, and great strides towards peace in Northern Ireland. Put at its very simplest, its most human, there are fathers, mothers, sisters, sons and daughters alive today because of the agreement.⁸⁷

The final Agreement was widely distributed across Northern Ireland and put to a referendum on 22nd May 1998 and it was also held in the Irish Republic. The result was in favour of the Agreement:

71.2% of people in Northern Ireland and 94.39% in the Republic voted 'Yes' to the Agreement.

A devolved assembly was elected in September 1998, and overall the Ulster Unionists (DUP) won 24, while, of the Catholic/Nationalist parties, the SDLP won 17 – meaning that any future devolved government would have to involve **power-sharing**. This deal brought together some previous bitter enemies such as Adams and Martin McGuinness (with links to republican terrorists in the IRA) as well as prominent pro-British Unionists such as the DUP's Reverend Ian Paisley as leader (and incoming First Minister) David Trimble.

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⁸⁷ Andrew Rawnsley, *Servants of the People: The Inside Story of New Labour* (2000).

Summary of Northern Ireland and British Prime Ministers

Margaret Thatcher (1979–1990)

- A premiership of two contrasting halves in her Northern Ireland policy.
- Traumatized into hardline position by assassination of her Northern Ireland Secretary (1979) and the Brighton bombing (killed five, injured 30 in 1984). Would not negotiate with IRA strikers in 1981. Appeared as champion of the Ulster Unionist cause.
- However, escalating violence forced her to reassess and adopt a more conciliatory approach (1985 Anglo-Irish Agreement).
- Protestant loyalists viewed this action as a great betrayal that undermined the peace process.
- Retained her basic Unionist convictions, although secret talks were initiated.

John Major (1990–1997)

- A more conciliatory personality – sought consensus and compromise and sought to soften Thatcher's abrasive and often hostile approach.
- Initiated further secret talks and made direct contact with the IRA who informed him of the IRA's intentions.
- Helped initiate the first major IRA ceasefire in 1994 as part of the Downing Street Declaration with the Irish government.
- Weakened by his small government majority and his reliance on the Ulster Unionists in the Commons.
- A rather unsung role in the peace process who did lots of the groundwork for the Good Friday Agreement.

Tony Blair (1997–2007)

- Maintained much of Major's behind-the-scenes diplomacy in a bipartisan approach.
- Initiated more advanced talks and took an active part in the negotiations and the signing of the Good Friday Agreement (1998).
- Was weakened slightly by Secretaries of State with a 'green' pro-Catholic bias which earned him the distrust of many Unionists who saw Labour as a more radical approach.
- Maintained the devolved Northern Ireland Parliament despite a number of threats of terrorist violence.

Key difficulties in implementing the 1998 Good Friday Agreement

- Nearly a third of all Northern Ireland voters rejected the Good Friday Agreement in the 1998 Referendum.
- The Agreement was vague and unclear in some areas, e.g. how quickly disarmament (removal of weapons) should take place. This allowed each side to blame the other for not doing enough.
- Continued threat and use of violence and non-constitutional tactics by the IRA.
- The controversial Patten Report and the proposals for the reform of the 'RUC' (police force).
- Each side had quite fragile support for the peace process which could be easily undermined.
- Continued sectarian hatred and mistrust evident between the Catholic and Protestant communities.

Mistrust between the two rival communities did continue, and this was worsened by the Omagh bombing of August 1998, when a splinter group of hardline republicans killed 29 people. However, with American diplomatic support, the Northern Ireland peace process somehow prevailed and some degree of trust between the key figures was established. After much negotiation, devolution came into effect in Northern Ireland in 2000, but it was suspended several times after this (most notably between 2002–2007).

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The 2001 general election

Given the huge size of the swing to Labour at the 1997 general election (10 parliamentary majority (179), it would have been extremely difficult for the power when the next general election was called at Tony Blair's choice within a parliamentary cycle.

In this context, the Conservative Party leader, William Hague, faced a huge task to take power, requiring a swing of unprecedented proportions to remove Labour's supremacy. What he could best hope for was to reduce the size of Labour's majority. The mood still appeared somewhat hostile to the Conservatives, and still seemed to favour Labour. Conservatives for their perceived failures in national office up to 1997. The trend of anti-Conservative tactical voting among Labour and Liberal Democrat voters was evident in all three general elections from 1997–2005). Hague himself regularly had more favourable polling ratings than Blair, and he appeared to be seeking to appeal to the vote rather than the centre-ground of British politics.

Party	2001
	MPs
Labour	412
Conservative	166
Liberal Democrat	52
Others	29

As incumbent prime minister, Blair's second election was at the choice of his own. Leaders in a strong position tend to get a second term in office is up. Blair's second term began in June 2001, despite a slight 'Crisis of Confidence' mouth crisis' that severely affected his popularity in the countryside.

Once victory was secured in such a comfortable manner, with a record second term (the second election result extremely similar to 1997), speculation grew as to whether Blair's second term would be more radical and progressive than the first, in a similar way to the second term was in the 1980s. Blair had achieved many significant policy objectives in his first term of office and many supporters hoped that the second term would be even more so. The single European currency a rumoured key objective. However, in many ways, Blair's second term has been viewed as the most constructive of his Government's three terms in power. The most significant policy relating to foreign policy would occur during this second term that would be the Iraq War. This project and alter the public perception of Tony Blair irrevocably.

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Background: Anglo-American cooperation in the 1990s

During Blair's first term in office in particular (1997–2001), Britain enjoyed relations with the USA. Building on the historic '**special relationship**' that the two countries, Blair enjoyed a particularly close political and personal relationship with **Clinton** (*right*), a fellow moderate who, like Blair, had sought to adopt a more moderate image for his political party (the Democrats).

Apart from the similar moderate outlook regarding domestic policies that Blair pursued on pursuing a '*radical centre*' as opposed to traditional left and right political arguments, Blair and Clinton worked closely together in foreign policy also. Much of this cooperation in foreign affairs was linked to the growing demand for 'nationalism' from many states and aspiring nations following the ending of the Cold War. As head of the only remaining superpower in the 1990s, Clinton provided a valuable external impetus in the successful Northern Ireland peace process which culminated in the **1998 Good Friday Agreement**, a historic settlement that Blair was also heavily involved in. However, both leaders faced a more difficult scenario in dealing with the emerging nationalism in various parts of Europe, in particular the aftermath of the Yugoslav Civil War in the Balkans region from 1992 to 1995.

The Balkans campaign: 1995–1999

Although the destructive conflict in the Balkans region (former Yugoslavia) from 1992 to 1995, world leaders were faced with a huge challenge of imposing long-term peace. It had been the spark that ignited World War I in 1914. While this problem was local and was primarily a problem for EU nations, the USA also took an active role in conjunction with the United Nations.

By the mid-1990s the worst of the fighting of this bitter ethnic dispute appeared to be over, with various parts of former Yugoslavia dissolving into a number of smaller nation states. Towards the end of 1995 the two major combatants, Serbia and Croatia, had agreed an uneasy peace, and this was followed by a diplomatic resolution of the conflict in the ethnically balanced state of Bosnia in December 1995, with the new nation effectively carved up into three separate parts as a result of the 1995 US-led '*Dayton Accords*'. UN peace-keeping forces were required to provide stability on the ground in the short term at least.

However, further trouble erupted from early 1998 onwards when the province of Kosovo sought to break away from the larger state of Serbia. Civil war broke out in 1998 between separatist Kosovan forces with loyalties to neighbouring Albania and the Serbian regime. The West eventually chose to intervene by military means to end the conflict, with Tony Blair and Bill Clinton working in partnership through the **(North Atlantic Treaty Organisation)**, a body set up during the Cold War and of limited relevance to the modern world, but which now sought to tackle any direct consequence of the Cold War ending.

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From March to June 1999, and despite some reluctance from a number of European countries, NATO planes controversially bombed parts of Serbia and Kosovo in a bid to defeat the efforts of Serb leader Slobodan Milosevic (later indicted as a war criminal) to suppress legitimate Kosovan independence by brutal means. This Serbian policy was often referred to as 'ethnic cleansing', involving the indiscriminate killing of Kosovan Albanians who wished to maintain control over.

Such actions by NATO ultimately secured the withdrawal of Serbian forces from Kosovo and its independence (2008), but only after fairly intensive bombing raids over several weeks, causing significant damage and casualties. It also resulted in the creation of a Kosovo crisis that took some years to resolve as well as the emergence of tensions between the US and the alliance of Blair and Clinton. Blair was most keen to intervene in this conflict, while Clinton, the Americans and much of the EU, and in doing so took 'a bold and risky position to prevent Muslim Kosovars from ethnic cleansing'.⁸⁸

Blair's greater enthusiasm for military intervention in this episode led to no direct involvement of Kosovans but it often irritated Clinton and the Americans who at times felt that Blair was in charge of the situation within NATO from a more powerful ally. Blair's motivation for the Kosovo campaign has been summarised by a close observer of such events:

as far as he (Blair) was concerned, this (Kosovo) was a moral challenge and a test of his leadership.

Blair's 'moralistic' actions appeared to push Britain into a central role of the world stage, in line with the USA but alienating some European partners in the process. This was not to come in the context of the Iraq conflict some years later, but Blair was cementing a prominent role for Britain in world affairs, although possibly at the cost of some of the members of the EU such as Germany and France. Blair's willingness to push for a military response on behalf of the Kosovans was praised in some quarters, but others criticised his 'liberal interventionist' approach to foreign policy.

New Labour's second term (2001–2005)

On being re-elected with a second successive landslide election victory in 2001, Labour succeeded in achieving their much-desired aim of a full second term in office. This was the first Labour government had achieved:

No previous Labour Prime Minister had secured a second full term in a centre-right government. This was won with a second landslide, a rare result in British politics.⁹⁰

Many on the centre-left of British politics had great optimism about the future of the country. The once-dominant Conservative Party appeared to be in political decline, having made hardly any progress at the 2001 general election. In addition to this, Tony Blair's political style and his moderate policies combining both investment in public services and the continuation of many Conservative economic policies of the 1980s, ensured that he remained popular with the opinions and demands of many key groups of voters.

⁸⁸ Andrew Rawnsley, *The End of the Party: The Rise and Fall of New Labour* (2010), Ch. 1, p. 10.

⁸⁹ Alastair Campbell, *The Blair Years: Extracts from the Alastair Campbell Diaries* (2007), Di. 1, p. 1.

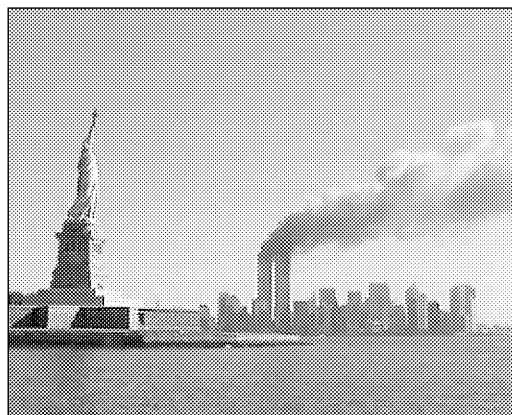
⁹⁰ Andrew Rawnsley, *The End of the Party: The Rise and Fall of New Labour* (2010), Ch. 1, p. 10.

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However, it would ultimately be foreign affairs and developments abroad that would erode Blair's seemingly impregnable position. In November 2000 the wing Republican **George W Bush** (right), was elected to the American presidency, a development that signalled the end of three and a half years of close relations between a Democrat president with a similar political outlook, Bill Clinton, who had completed his maximum eight-year term at the White House. It would be events stemming from the USA just months after Blair's second landslide election victory that would cause both him and the governing Labour Party some of the biggest problems of his time in office.

9/11 and the 'War on Terror'



On 11th September 2001 (later known as 9/11), 3,000 innocent people died in a series of coordinated attacks on the USA. The attacks were coordinated by a terrorist network and resulted in four aircraft being hijacked and used as weapons against targets and public buildings, the most famous being the twin towers (left), which completely collapsed.

The implications of this attack were far-reaching and shocked the USA and most other western nations. In particular, were also reeling from the September 11 attacks had major repercussions on the domestic policies of most countries.

The USA was forced to respond at home with a wave of draconian anti-terror laws, while from an international perspective for the inevitable American military response to the attacks. The Government was aware from an early stage that President Bush's regime pursued a hard military line against those nations and organisations that it felt were responsible for the attack:

*We were at war. We could not ignore it. But how should we deal with it? And who was the enemy? A person? A group? A movement? A state?*⁹¹

As the US military moved into gear and planned its reprisals, Blair made it clear that Britain would stand 'shoulder to shoulder' with the Americans as part of the long-standing alliance between the two nations, but there were many who were fearful that Blair was willing to support Bush in any circumstances, and this fear would grow in the months and years that followed.

Afghanistan was swiftly identified as the source of much of the active training for Al-Qaeda operatives and military attacks on the country's perceived weak borders. Within months of 9/11, however, Saddam Hussein's (right) regime in Iraq was also identified by American 'hawks' as another source of terrorist activity, although this allegation was far from clear cut. The Americans had some unfinished business with Saddam's regime in Iraq following the 1991 Gulf War, and Blair appeared to have quickly picked up the vibes after 9/11 that the Iraqi regime would be the next American target after Afghanistan:

The issue of Saddam and his ten-year obstruction of weapons inspection was brought into line or removed was, on any deeper analysis, a

⁹¹ Tony Blair, *A Journey* (2010), Ch. 12, p. 343.

⁹² Tony Blair, *A Journey* (2010), Ch. 12, p. 357.

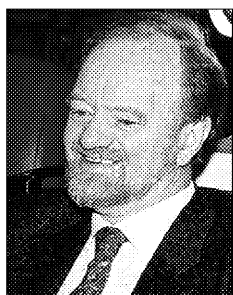
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As the American bombardment of Afghanistan raged in late 2001 in a bid to clear up the hotspots, preparations for a military campaign against Iraq were also under way. Blair was keen to use the aftermath of the terrorist attacks on the USA to remove Saddam Hussein, seeking a convincing reason to do so, but his major problem was that there was no direct link between the Iraqi dictator and the events of 9/11.

In meetings between Blair and Bush from early 2002 onwards, it became evident that they were discussing the possibility of attacking Iraq, and both at the time and in the years following Blair's willingness to support the American President with few apparent conditions. The issue of WMDs was the cause of some considerable divisions within the governing Labour Party. As the tensions between Iraq and the West grew, and the prospect of war increased, Blair's government was keen to cooperate with United Nations' (UN) weapons inspectors who were investigating whether the country was developing Weapons of Mass Destruction (WMDs).

By early 2003 US troop movements in the Gulf region indicated war was likely. Blair was keen to secure the support of other countries in this controversial policy, not least the UK, such as Britain. There was opposition to the use of military force against Iraq from within the Labour Party, as France and Germany, as well as from the wider British population, with large anti-war demonstrations marching through London in February 2003 as part of a 'Stop the War Coalition' (as part of the global protests around the world). Despite this, on the eve of proposed military action, Blair sought parliamentary approval for British military activity against Iraq. His speech was described as '*the most important speech I had ever made*'.⁹³



However, in doing so he sowed the seeds of his eventual downfall. Many MPs voted against the motion proposing to use military force against Iraq, the far the biggest parliamentary rebellion of the Blair era, leading to his resignation from office, the most prominent being **Robin Cook**, then Secretary and the Leader of the Commons. Significant criticism was also over the questionable lack of United Nations authority to pursue military action. Despite last-minute efforts for a UN diplomatic solution, Blair was willing to support the American use of armed forces despite the lack of international support.

Although, with Conservative support, Blair won the vote comfortably by a large margin, the biggest ever rebellion within his own party meant that he had been severely weakened. The damage would get worse in the months following the eruption of war. The prolonged conflict and lack of post-war planning were primarily blamed on Blair. The Iraq conflict would go on to dominate the rest of Blair's second term in office. His domestic reforms of public services were sidelined as a consequence.

While Blair placed much emphasis on the need to loyally support long-term allies, his much heralded '*War on Terror*' following 9/11, the consequences of this were seen as being unable to pursue a foreign policy independent of the USA and was criticised for appearing to be subservient and weak in the face of American demands. Blair's authority was weakened in political terms on a domestic level, particularly following the resignation of government weapons inspector Dr David Kelly in the summer of 2003.

Although his Government's actions in relation to the build-up to the war were later exonerated by the Hutton Report (2003) and the Butler Report (2004), it was claimed that it left Britain vulnerable to terrorist attacks of its own, and this was the case following the 7th July attacks of 2005, when four Al-Qaeda suicide bombers attacked the London underground and killed 52 innocent people in the process.

⁹³ Tony Blair, *A Journey* (2010), Ch. 14, p. 436.

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Britain's position within the European Union (1997–2007)

The Labour government's approach

Like the Conservatives, the Labour Party has traditionally struggled with the concept of European policy-making. However, due to the fact that Labour spent years in the post-war period, its European troubles have often been less well known. In the European debate after World War II, many within the Labour Party were sceptical of integration, viewing it as a capitalist, big business, international organisation that was detrimental to ordinary working people and in conflict with socialist principles. There was a strong pacifist tendency within the party that supported greater international co-operation, and it was desired to prevent the outbreak of further military conflict in Europe and to enhance European cooperation in terms of peaceful stability, trade and employment.

As the 1980s progressed, the Labour Party had sought to modernise itself as part of its political recovery and preparing itself for national office once again, and this was reflected in its European policy and embracing the increasingly globalised economy. One of the key changes where 'Old Labour' was replaced by 'New Labour' was evident in the party's approach to the issue of Europe, and by the early 1990s, the party had a broadly pro-European stance, despite ongoing left-wing dissent and Euroscepticism. Many within the Labour Party had reached the conclusion that some of the progressive social policies emanating from European integration, and the free-market deregulation of Margaret Thatcher's Conservative regime during the 1980s, were worth embracing.

By the time Labour was back in power in 1997 under **Tony Blair** (*right*), the party promoted itself as having a far more positive and constructive attitude towards the European Union than the desperately split Conservative Party. This was clearly evident in signing up to the Social Chapter (1997), as well as the commitment to harmonious participation in the Amsterdam Treaty (1997) and the Nice Treaty (2000), which focused on preserving Britain's interests within an enlarged EU.

Indeed, Blair's European ambitions were such that he sought to 'place Britain at the heart of the single currency'.⁹⁴ In declaring that Britain would be '*at the heart of the single currency*', Blair was expressing sentiments expressed by his predecessor John Major, but appeared in a stronger position to deliver such a pro-European position given the size of his parliamentary majority and the generally more Europhile party mood. However, during this period in office, Labour faced further European problems, particularly in relation to failing to deliver on the single currency (as promised in 1997) and also to ratify the 2007 Lisbon Treaty.

Critics have claimed that Blair's administration did not pursue these options sufficiently, and that public opinion as well as splits on the single currency issue between Tony Blair and Chancellor of the Exchequer Gordon Brown (who was apparently reluctant to commit to the single currency) meant Blair, therefore, did not ultimately succeed in his original ambition of pressing for full membership of the single European currency, despite the fact that twelve of the fifteen member states had joined from 2002 onwards.

⁹⁴ Andrew Rawnsley, *The End of the Party: The Rise and Fall of New Labour* (2010), Ch. 1, p. 10.

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Blair's determination to support the US-led invasion of Iraq in 2003 also caused concern among member states such as France and Germany, while there were concerns about public opinion caused by the increased immigration from Eastern Europe to the EU in 2004. A minority left-wing element within the Labour Party has remained, and has provided some internal dissent on further European integration, viewing the aims of the EU as a restraint on the evolution of any potential socialist-oriented United Kingdom.



Key European Union Events and Issues (1991–2009)

The Social Chapter (1992): The Social Chapter was a key part of the 1991 negotiations. It focused on common employment rights for workers across the EU, but it angered some British politicians who believed it represented excessive regulation in the workplace. The UK opted out of this policy in 1992, while Labour signed up to it in 1997.

The Amsterdam Treaty (1997): Further updated the aims of the European Union from the Maastricht Treaty (1992) and giving greater democratic powers to the member countries the opportunity to integrate at different paces ('two speed Europe'), and enlargement and setting in motion plans for common foreign and security policy. The Schengen Agreement into EU law, which opened up the borders of continental Europe (opted out of this aspect).

The Nice Treaty (2000): This treaty prepared for the enlargement of the EU in 2004 by countries joined from Eastern Europe. New allocations of voting powers under Qualified Majority Voting mechanisms were the subject of much debate.

The Lisbon Treaty (2007): The Treaty of Lisbon (initially known as the Reform Treaty) was an update of the evolving European Union, with the establishment of political institutions in accordance with the draft European Constitution. New positions such as an EU Foreign Affairs Minister were established, and the use of QMV was revised and extended. This treaty was focused on ongoing EU reform as opposed to radical further integration. It came into force in 2009 and was certainly not as radical as the Single European Act or Maastricht Treaty.

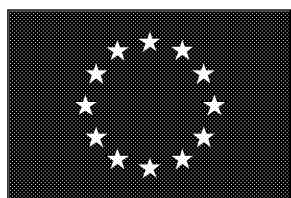
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The Conservative opposition's ap

Although the Conservative Party appeared to make electoral progress under **Cameron** (right) since he became leader in late 2005, it continued to experience difficulties in dealing with European matters. The decision as to whether a Conservative government would hold a referendum on the 2007 **Lisbon Treaty** caused much internal party debate, with some Conservatives fearing the loss of votes to more Eurosceptic political parties such as **UKIP (United Kingdom Independence Party)** over this issue. Given this difficult history on the subject of Europe, some commentators prophetically observed that *'the issue of Europe has the potential to destabilise a future Conservative government'*.⁹⁵

In relation to European issues, from the outset of his leadership Cameron affirmed the Party's commitment to **never** joining the single currency (Euro), endorsing the position of predecessors as party leader Iain Duncan Smith in 2001 and the 'toughening' of the party's position in relation to the Euro by party leader, William Hague (1997–2001). Hague had promised to do so but only in the *'lifetime of the next parliament'*, a somewhat ambiguous commitment.



Michel Howard, who succeeded Duncan Smith as leader from 2003–2005, took a definite position to Britain ever joining the Euro. This progressively more Eurosceptic position was held for years since 1997, particularly among younger Conservative politicians, representing a hardening of John Major's position in the 1990s, a reflection of the situation in the UK.

His (Cameron's) generation of Conservatives have been imbued... with Thatcherite values.

For their part, the third party in British politics during this period, the Liberal Democrats, were in favour of the European Union and appeared to be the most 'Europhile' of the major political parties.

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⁹⁵ Simon Lee, 'David Cameron's Political Challenges', cited in Simon Lee & Matt Beech (eds) *Cameron: Built to Last?* (2009), Ch. 1, p. 15.

⁹⁶ Matt Beech, 'Cameron and Conservative Ideology', cited in Simon Lee & Matt Beech (eds) *Cameron: Built to Last?* (2009), Ch. 2, p. 24.

Summary – similarities and differences between Labour and Conservative European policy in the 1990s

Having alternated in power for much of modern British history, Labour and Conservatives have had many policy disagreements on Europe at different times. They ultimately shared both differences and similarities regarding their European policies from the early 1990s onwards.

Similarities:

- Both signed significant EU treaties in office that have represented further progress: Maastricht Treaty under John Major in the early 1990s, Lisbon under Gordon Brown.
- Neither party in power took significant steps to joining the Euro (single currency) without wider public opinion.
- The leadership of both parties appeared to view Britain's 'special relationship' with the US as more significant than its relations with Europe, evident in cross-party support for the Iraq war, despite major EU objections.

Differences:

- From 1990 onwards, Labour tended to adopt a more constructive and pragmatic approach to dealings with Europe, while Conservative governments, notably in the early 1980s under Thatcher's rule, were more hostile in terms of rhetoric in particular.
- Official party policy in relation to the Euro was different, with Labour in favour and Conservatives appearing to rule the policy out indefinitely.
- Labour signed the 2007 Lisbon Treaty while in government, while the Conservatives opposed it from opposition.

UK's global status by 2007

Britain was viewed as an 'awkward partner' by much of the European Union under both Conservative and Labour administrations, although which party was more constructive links while also defending Britain's key national interests is a matter of debate. From the 1990s onwards, Tony Blair was arguably more openly pro-European in his relations with the EU, while Major's wishes for improved EU relations were often undermined by a parliamentary majority and Eurosceptic MPs. Given the subsequent problems with the EU, it could be said that both parties deserve credit for keeping Britain outside the Eurozone.

As a consequence of the various events and consequences connected to the 9/11 attacks, Blair left office in 2007 Britain found itself more vulnerable to security risks than other key nations, notably within the EU, although the 'special relationship' with the US was as strong as ever. Tony Blair ultimately paid a heavy political price for supporting the 'War on Terror' in the way that he did.

Questions and Talking Points

1. What were the key differences in attitudes towards the European Union between the Conservative and that of Tony Blair's? Were there more similarities than differences?
2. By the end of Tony Blair's period in office in 2007, was Britain more or less integrated into the European community than it had been in 1997?

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Task and Talking Point

Write a few paragraphs on how Britain's position in the European Union community altered between 1990 and 2007. Did it change for the better or worse? Support your answer with some supporting evidence.

Conservative leaders and reasons for division

Despite the fall-out from Iraq and the slow pace of public service reform, it was a disarray within the Conservative Party and the relatively healthy state of the economy that were the decisive factors in Blair achieving his third successive election victory in 2005. Blair ultimately still preferred Blair to the Conservative alternative for prime minister, Michael Howard, whose image and leadership style did not appeal to key groups of voters. Howard had followed other unpopular Conservative leaders William Hague (1997–2001) and Iain Duncan Smith (2001–2003). The Conservatives were to be distrusted by key sections of the electorate, with its popular vote only 35.5% in 1997 and 2005, despite New Labour's various difficulties in office.

The Conservatives ultimately seemed to have struggled to carve out an effective political identity since the demise of Margaret Thatcher in 1990 and to overcome the political legacy. However, after three general election defeats in a row, the leadership from the end of 2005 appeared to indicate that they themselves would do in a similar way that Labour had in the 1990s if they were ever to regain power. A new generation of twenty-first-century Conservative 'modernisers' endorsed a more liberal identity and even referred to himself as the 'heir to Blair', despite coming from a different party. Cameron would go on to fulfil some of this early promise by leading the party to power and becoming prime minister in 2010.

Third term and Blair's exit (2005–2007)

Party	2005
	MPs
Labour	355
Conservative	198
Liberal Democrat	62
Others	31

Severely damaged by the Iraq war and with growing internal party divisions, the Conservatives somewhat limped to victory in 2005, returning to power with a reduced majority but with a much reduced party. This represented a poor electoral performance in relation to the previous two elections, with popular support and as a result of the Iraq war.

Rarely had Britain returned a government with such a palpable lack of enthusiasm as in 2005. It tasted like defeat.⁹⁷

Blair's 1997 coalition of voters had now been badly fractured, with students in particular deserting the party at this election primarily due to opposition to the Iraq war. This resulted in the loss of a significant number of parliamentary seats (47), and a reduced majority in 1997. Indeed, Labour's winning percentage of 35.2% was the lowest recorded for a winning party since the First Reform Act of 1832!

⁹⁷ Andrew Rawnsley, *The End of the Party: The Rise and Fall of New Labour* (2010), Ch. 19, p. 10.

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However, despite the extent of his political authority being damaged in the enthusiasm for power did not appear to be diminished, and he *'began his agenda of public service reform'*.⁹⁸ Although there had been a significant increase in the previous eight years, using increased public investment and innovative measures, necessary improvements in public services had been slow and disappointing. Blair sought to improve such areas of policy-making further, but what he ultimately faced was a level of growing opposition to him within his own MPs, many of whom felt that their party seats and votes at the 2005 general election largely due to his association



Such growing levels of internal party opposition led to Blair's parliamentary defeat in late 2005 over his proposal to detain suspected terrorists for 90 days without charge, perhaps a sign of increased disloyalty among MPs as well as his own declining authority. Internal party opposition was fuelled by his increasingly frustrated Chancellor Gordon Brown, who wanted to replace the increasingly tarnished Prime Minister. Blair was politically astute enough not to appear obviously disloyal.

In the autumn of 2006, 15 MPs from the 2001 intake wrote a letter demanding Blair's departure, with the aim of him leaving office sooner rather than later. Blair managed to survive in the short term at least, but such opposition was felt by many of his inner circle that Gordon Brown and his supporters were destabilising the government in the process, as supported by the comment:

*One person at the heart of Brown's inner circle believes: 'He (Brown) would be a light to cause trouble'.*⁹⁹

Under increasing internal opposition and pressure, however, Blair subsequently announced in September 2006 that the forthcoming Labour Party Conference would be his last, although he stubbornly *'stopped short of setting a date for his departure'*.¹⁰⁰ However, as pressures grew, Blair announced that he would stand down at some point in the various elections of May 2007 but before the annual party conference in 2007. This compromise with internal party critics who wanted him to depart sooner than he intended allowed him a symbolic ten years in the premiership, although it was certainly *'forced to depart sooner than he had intended'*.¹⁰¹

As part of the 'orderly transition of power', on 17th May 2007 Gordon Brown was elected Blair's successor by Labour MPs, and was formally endorsed as the next prime minister given that Labour was in power) at a special party conference on 22 May. Later Tony Blair formally resigned as prime minister and the eventful and controversial premiership was over.

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⁹⁸ Dennis Kavanagh & Philip Cowley, *The British General Election of 2010* (2010), Ch. 3, p. 10.

⁹⁹ See Andrew Rawnsley, *The End of the Party: The Rise and Fall of New Labour* (2010), Ch. 24, p. 10.

¹⁰⁰ Dennis Kavanagh & Philip Cowley, *The British General Election of 2010* (2010), Ch. 3, p. 10.

¹⁰¹ Andrew Rawnsley, *The End of the Party: The Rise and Fall of New Labour* (2010), Ch. 24, p. 10.

Overview – Tony Blair’s legacy

The Blair years (1997–2007) represented a distinct new approach to politics. The Labour Party stormed back to power in 1997 with a landslide victory and promising to govern in a different style to both previous Labour and Conservative governments.

Blair had a very limited ideological background, and he sought to reject the ‘left and right’. Instead he spoke of the ‘Third Way’, a somewhat vague political ‘vision’ of a modernised Britain where key public services such as schools and hospitals were revitalised by a combination of public and private investment, providing for greater individual choice for citizens in the process. This approach was considered an ingredient of economic growth, and for the majority of his ten-year spell in power, over a booming economy, with historically low levels of unemployment, in fact, three of the key economic indicators).

The period, therefore, featured significant investment in key public services. For example a record number of police officers and unprecedented levels of spending on the health and education systems. Such a situation meant that more public sector jobs were created and overall spending power grew among the wider population, and, therefore, throughout ‘the New Labour years, with low inflation and steady growth, most of the country grew richer’,¹⁰² a factor that ultimately led to ongoing electoral success between 1997 and 2005. Indeed, the period 1997–2007 saw one of the longest sustained periods of economic growth since World War II. Conservative opponents, however, claimed that he had inherited a ‘golden economic legacy’ from them and that Brown’s policies had merely built on the solid foundations that they had laid.

Summary – key reasons why Labour won the 2001 and 2005 general elections

- The Conservative Party had a succession of unpopular leaders and still a significant enough section of the population, focusing on unpopular and divisive issues such as the Union and public spending cuts.
- There was ongoing anti-Conservative ‘tactical voting’ and the Conservatives failed to recover from the landslide of 1997.
- Labour continued to receive significant media support, e.g. from the Mail and the Sun.
- Tony Blair still appeared to be the most popular party leader, despite being in office for ten years.
- Labour maintained a moderate stance on most key domestic political issues.
- The economy continued to grow and living standards rose, with the incumbent government politically rewarded for this.
- Opposition to Labour was divided, and the growth in Liberal Democrat support helped Blair retain power.

The record of Blair’s administrations in delivering public service reforms was mixed. There was undoubtedly investment in the national infrastructure and significantly increased public expenditure, but there were mixed results in terms of public satisfaction and economic growth. There were also some major constitutional and political reforms, most notably devolution and the introduction of the minimum wage, two policies that had been much desired by left-of-centre governments. Blair sought to reverse the majority of the Thatcher policies of the 1980s, and he, indeed, embraced the social liberalism that she established, but he did seek to restore an increased influence for the state while still maintaining the emphasis on choice and individual economic freedom.

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¹⁰² Andrew Marr, *A History of Modern Britain* (2007), p. 572.

Blair's dominant style of leadership was viewed as strength by allies but it also generated increased internal party opposition the longer he was in power, and in his departure from office. He was viewed as a very effective communicator, but however, his political legacy was ultimately tainted by a hugely controversial public opinion and would severely undermine the initial goodwill that must have been displayed towards his political message in 1997.

When Tony Blair somewhat reluctantly stepped down from the premiership after tremendous electoral success and won three general election victories, but by 2005 the public and his own political party had ultimately tired of him due to his autocratic leadership and his perceived policy failures both at home and abroad. In the end, commentators have argued that despite two huge parliamentary majorities, Blair failed to deliver what could have been achieved on a domestic level, in particular, and his departure from office represented a wasted opportunity for further reforms and more significant achievements.

Questions and Talking Points

1. How did Tony Blair's approach to governing differ from that of previous prime ministers, particularly Labour ones?
2. Outline the key reasons why Tony Blair's position as prime minister ended in 2007.
3. Compare and contrast Blair's domestic policy achievements with his foreign policy achievements. Which could be considered to be the most successful policy-making in your answer.



Historical Interpretations

There are both right and left-wing historians and commentators who view the Blair years as little more than a continuation of the Thatcher and Major Governments. Rupert Murdoch happily switched the support of key newspapers such as *The Sun* and *The Times* to the Blair Government, and the fact that Blair's Government abandoned Labour's left-wing ideological baggage for a vast majority of the 'neo-liberal' economic agenda pursued by both the Thatcher and Major Governments between 1979 and 1997. The gap between rich and poor grew wider than ever as the Blair Government's involvement in public services as the Conservatives had done.

The more radical historical interpretation of the Blair years is that it achieved a greater change that would not have occurred under a Conservative administration. Key social policy initiatives marked it out as a radical, reforming and 'modernising' government, and sympathetic commentators and historians such as Andrew Marr. Its record level of investment in public services under the effective economic management of Gordon Brown saw some of the most significant improvements in public services, providing greater choice for ordinary citizens and making genuine use of resources to the poorer members of society. However, even such positive assessments of Blair's Labour could perhaps have delivered more of its desired reforms and been more effective in the face of its parliamentary majorities.

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Revision Exercise 5: Tony Blair’s Government 1997–2007

Outline the key success and failures of the Labour government of 1997–2007.

Policy/Issue	Successes	
<i>Political</i>		
<i>Economic</i>		
<i>Foreign</i>		
<i>Social</i>		
<i>Cultural</i>		

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Exercise 6: Key Revision Questions 1997–2007

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Revision Quiz

1. Outline two key reasons why Tony Blair and New Labour won the 1997 general election.
.....
.....
2. What key area of policy-making was Blair keen to improve in his first two governments, and why was this so?
.....
.....
3. What enhanced powers did Tony Blair give to Gordon Brown as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and why did he do this?
.....
.....
.....
4. Outline three key issues that undermined Tony Blair's position as Prime Minister.
.....
.....
.....

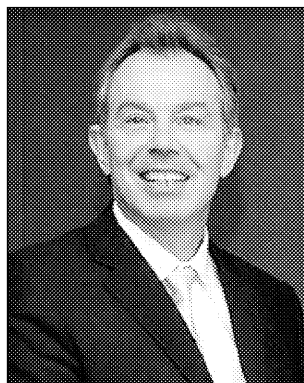
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*Discussion
Points*

1. What were the key sources of division and tension within John Major's government from 1990 onwards?
2. In what key ways did the Labour Party transform itself from the 1980s to the 1990s?
3. Why did 'New Labour' win the 1997 general election by a 'landslide'?
4. Compare the economic record of the Major Government (1990–1997) with the Blair Government (1997–2007). Which one had the strongest record?
5. Did the foreign policy of the Blair Government from 1997 affect the world for better or worse?
6. How did both the Major and Blair Governments deal with the European Union between 1990 and 2007? Were there more similarities than differences in their approaches?
7. What factors explain the further Labour general election victory in 2005?
8. What evidence was there to suggest that Britain was a more diverse society by 2007?



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Writing Frame 3: Essay Structure Plan

Question Title:

To what extent was the electoral success of Tony Blair (1997–2007) due to New Labour's strengths and weaknesses? (25 marks)

Introduction (focus on and address the question title)

- Address the focus on Tony Blair's electoral success (1997–2007) as identified in the question title.
- Acknowledge that there are arguments that it was New Labour's strengths that led to its success, as well as alternative viewpoints that it was Conservative weaknesses that led to its success.

Analysis of alternative viewpoints and interpretations

Evidence that electoral success was due to New Labour's strengths

-
-
-
-
-
-

Evidence that electoral success was due to Conservative weaknesses

-
-
-
-
-
-

Conclusion (focus on the question title and address the issues raised in the introduction, attempting to reach a measured judgment if possible).

Full analysis and explanation of all above points are required.

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Answers and Feedback

Exercise 1: What were the key problems facing Britain in the 1980s?

Broad answers/feedback

The final sequence of what issues are deemed to be most significant will ultimately depend on some suitable reasons for each point listed:

Wealth creation

Britain became a much wealthier nation during the 1980s, with economic growth leading to improving living standards. In the 1970s it had been referred to as the 'sick man of Europe'. Critics highlighted that income was unevenly distributed and great poverty remained in certain sections of society.

Unemployment

Unemployment remained historically high throughout the 1980s. It twice exceeded 10% at the end of the decade, with the country plunging into the two worst recessions since the 1930s. The government argued that such unemployment was due to a necessary economic shake-out of unproductive industries such as steel and coal.

Inflation

During the 1970s the rate of inflation (*cost of goods*) had been out of control, and it was a major problem for business and the overall economy. Thatcher's Government cut public spending and pursued monetarism in the 1980s in order to bring inflation under control. Later in the decade, European Union targets were pursued to bring inflation down. Inflation was reduced compared to the 1970s and was completely under control in the 1980s.

Entrepreneurial culture

Creating a more individualistic, entrepreneurial culture was arguably a key aim of Thatcher's Government. Thatcher believed that the power of the state was excessive and that people needed to be encouraged to take responsibility. She placed great emphasis on individuals starting their own businesses and contributing in an entrepreneurial manner, and this culture was a key element of the 1980s.

Taxation

Thatcher's Government drastically reduced the direct levels of taxation, again due to the high levels of taxation in the 1970s and the damage it had done to the British economy and made it uncompetitive in the 1970s. The high levels of taxation at the end of the 1980s were seen as key factors in maintaining the Conservatives' electoral success. However, critics argued that taxes were cut too much and this had a detrimental effect on the funding of public services.

Privatisation

This was a key part of the Conservatives' policy agenda from the second term onwards. It was popular with significant sections of society, and it seemed to represent a particular ideal of capitalism where everyone could have a stake in capitalism. Key industries formerly owned and managed by the state were transferred to individual shareholders, helping to create the property-owning democracy that Thatcher advocated.

Social conflict

The 1980s was seen as a decade of division given that there was significant social conflict. This included the inner-city race riots of 1981, the prolonged miners' strike of 1984–1985, the 1984–1985 miners' disputes and the Poll Tax riots of 1989–1990. Government critics claimed that such social conflict was a result of the damaging and divisive social policies of the Thatcher Government, which had provoked social conflict in other social groups. The Conservative government would claim that such unrest was a result of the difficult but necessary decisions that needed to be taken to tackle Britain's socio-economic problems.

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Revision Exercise: Conservative government 1979–1990

Key Successes:

- Brought excessive trade union power under control (social, economic and political)
- Got the excessive levels of inflation under control (economic)
- Large-scale privatisation programme created many shareholders and significant economic growth (economic)
- Created a more efficient free-market economic system with significant cuts in public spending (economic and political)
- Achieved a higher international profile for Britain due to the Falklands War and the end of the Cold War (political)
- The state did less and Britain became a more consumerist, free-market society (economic and political)

Key Failures:

- Presided over two recessions where unemployment reached three million, the highest since the 1930s (social, economic and political)
- Presided over a massive widening of the gap between the rich and poor (economic and social)
- Policies led to deindustrialisation and urban decay in many towns and cities (social and economic)
- Cuts in taxation led to underinvestment in key public services (economic and social)
- Increasingly alienated European partners with growing hostility to the European Community (political)
- Racial and social divisions became more apparent (cultural)

Not exhaustive

Exercise 3: Key Revision Questions 1979–1990

1. The control of which economic indicator did Margaret Thatcher prioritise in order to bring down inflation?
Inflation
2. Describe two conflicts which Margaret Thatcher found herself involved in during her premiership (one industrial, one political).
Falklands War (1982), miners' strike (1984–1985)
3. What happened to the Labour Party in 1981 that helped the Conservative Party's victory in 1985?
Breakaway of the SDP to form a new political party
4. Which flagship policy played a key role in Margaret Thatcher's fall from power?
The Poll Tax
5. Which two prominent cabinet ministers resigned from Thatcher's Government in 1990?
Nigel Lawson and Geoffrey Howe

Revision Exercise 4: John Major's Government 1990–1997

Key Successes:

- Re-elected for a fourth term in 1992 against the odds (political)
- Continued with popular policies that changed UK culture and society, e.g. privatisation (economic, cultural and political)
- John Major managed to overcome the latter unpopularity of Margaret Thatcher and his own unpopularity (political)
- Got inflation under control and the economy was growing again by the mid-1990s (economic)
- Public spending increased to key public services (economic and social)
- Sought to protect British interests in Europe and played an important role in 1995 (political)
- Achieved some success in bringing further stability to Northern Ireland (political)

Key Failures:

- Humiliated on 'Black Wednesday' (1992) when Britain left the ERM (economic and political)
- Conservative Party divided and split on the issue of Europe (political and cultural)
- Failed to maintain a parliamentary majority and became a minority government in 1995 (political)
- Taxes were raised despite promises not to do so (economic and political)
- Critics claimed that key public services such as the NHS and education were underfunded (social and economic)
- Had a weak personal image (political)
- The country became more divided in social and economic terms (social and economic)

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Exercise 5: Key Revision Questions 1990–1997

1. What key factors helped John Major win the 1992 general election?
New leadership after Thatcher, fear of Labour policies, slight economic recovery
2. What key factors weakened John Major throughout his five years in office from 1992 to 1997?
Small parliamentary majority
3. What name is given to the day John Major's Government was forced to leave the European summit in 1992?
Black Wednesday
4. What impact did the issue of Europe have on the Major premiership?
Divided Conservative Party after Maastricht Treaty
5. Outline three key policy areas that damaged John Major's Government and led to its defeat in 1997.
Select from Europe, political sleaze, economic problems (recession), increase in key public services.

Task 1

Evidence of economic policies similar to Conservatives	Evidence of economic policies different to Conservatives
Focus on keeping direct taxation low, in line with 1980s Thatcherite agenda.	Introduced more indirect taxation (VAT, etc.) Labour 'tax and spend' policy
Focused on keeping inflation under control as a key economic priority, even at the expense of rising unemployment.	Higher levels of investment in infrastructure when they were in power (Keynesian economics)
Broadly accepted the neo-liberal economic settlement with limited trade union powers, deregulation, privatisation and reduced role for government.	Gave independence to the Bank of England to set interest rates to avoid political interference and economic instability.

Revision Exercise 5: Tony Blair's Government 1997–2007**Key Successes:**

- Won three successive general elections (political)
- Presided over economic growth for the majority of the government's time in power and raised living standards (economic and social)
- Increased investment in key public services such as schools and hospitals (political and social)
- Successful diplomatic successes in Kosovo and Northern Ireland, along with a high profile in the world e.g. after 9/11 and during the Iraq War (foreign)
- Key constitutional and political reforms introduced within UK (political)
- Sought to address some major racial, sexual and cultural divisions by embracing diversity and improving rights for the gay community and ethnic minorities (social and cultural)

Key Failures:

- Increased investment in public services did not always lead to visible improvements
- Involvement in the Iraq War divided public opinion and resulted in loss of popularity
- Had difficult relations with Chancellor Gordon Brown and this weakened the government's economic credibility
- Failed to close the gap between rich and poor that this government had sought to do
- Indirect taxation (stealth taxes) steadily grew during Blair's premiership (economic)
- There were continued racial and cultural tensions and violence (social and cultural)

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Exercise 6: Key Revision Questions 1997–2007

1. Outline two key reasons why Tony Blair and New Labour won the 1997 general election.
 1. **Fresh new moderate Labour policies.**
 2. **Conservatives were discredited and divided and voters wanted change.**
2. What key area of policy-making was Blair keen to improve in relation to past Labour governments? Why was this so?

Blair was particularly keen that Labour could prove its economic competence and improve the negative image of past Labour governments and the way they had run the country.
3. What enhanced powers did Tony Blair give to Gordon Brown as Chancellor of the Exchequer? Why was this?

Brown was given unprecedented powers as Chancellor of the Exchequer, with the direction and detail of economic and social policies in particular. Many people were standing aside to let Blair become Labour leader in 1994, and such support was supportive of Blair.
4. Outline three key issues that undermined Tony Blair's position from 2003 onwards.
 1. **The Iraq War.**
 2. **Ongoing tensions with Gordon Brown.**
 3. **Declining loyalty among his own MPs in Parliament due to various political issues and his style of leadership.**

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Writing Frame 3: Essay Structure Plan

To what extent was the electoral success of Tony Blair (1997–2007) due to New Labour's strengths as opposed to its weaknesses?

Introduction (focus on and address the question title)	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Address the focus on Tony Blair's electoral success (1997–2007) as identified in the question. Acknowledge that there are arguments that it was New Labour's strengths that explained its success, as well as alternative viewpoints that it was Conservative weaknesses. 	
Analysis of alternative viewpoints and interpretations	Evidence that electoral success was due to New Labour's strengths: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Tony Blair had a fresh and 'modernising' political image that appealed to voters, who viewed him as having great charisma and being a good communicator. Blair had abandoned the Labour Party's left-wing policies (Clause 4, 1995) and embraced the Conservative economic ('free-market') reforms of the 1980s. Tony Blair and Gordon Brown formed a formidable political partnership, both in opposition and in power. New Labour was very disciplined and appeared to be better organised than the Conservatives for much of this period. Blair managed the media extremely well, utilising the role of 'spin doctors' to get the government's political message effectively across. While Blair is viewed as the key figure in New Labour's appeal, some credit John Major and Kenneth Clarke, who began the process of modernising the party during the 1990s.
	Evidence that electoral success was due to Conservative weaknesses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Conservative government of 1990–1997 had seen its record for economic growth undermined by events such as 'Black Wednesday' (1992). John Major was viewed as a weak and indecisive leader who struggled to lead the party. The Conservative Party had been damaged by a series of sexual and financial scandals in the 1990s. The Conservatives went through a succession of unpopular and ineffective prime ministers, who failed to compete with Tony Blair and Gordon Brown from the mid-1990s onwards. The Conservatives were badly split on some key political issues, most notably over Europe. The Conservatives appeared to lack a clear political identity in the post-1997 period, damaged by some aspects of their unpopular policies.
Conclusion (focus on the question title and address the issues raised in the main body of the essay to reach a measured judgment if possible). Perhaps introduce the notion that while Blair's success was due to his strengths, his popularity was exaggerated by Conservative disarray and his political actions could have been (as argued by Andrew Rawnsley).	

Full analysis and explanation of all above points are required.

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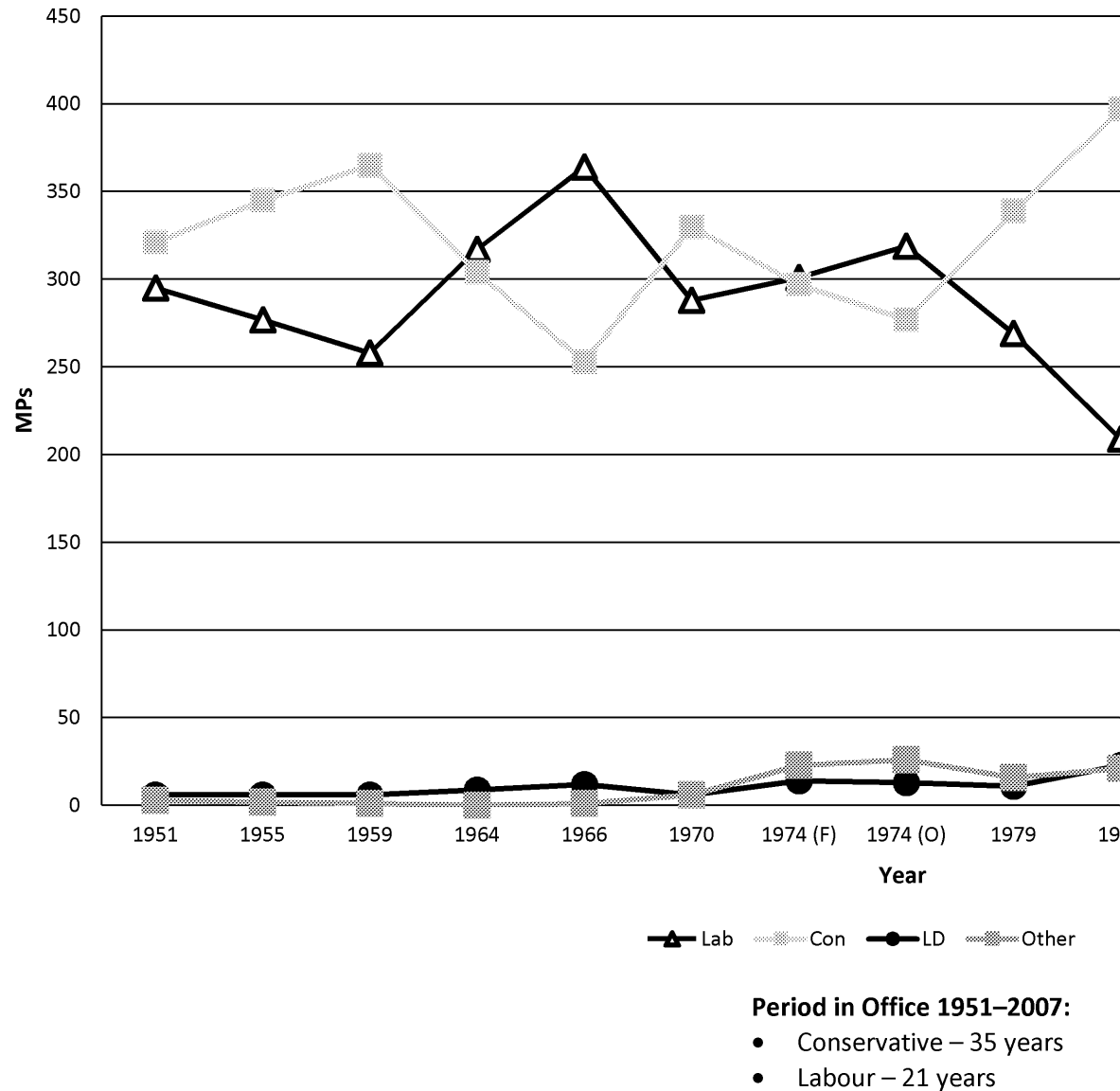
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Appendix – Charts and

General Elections 1951-2005



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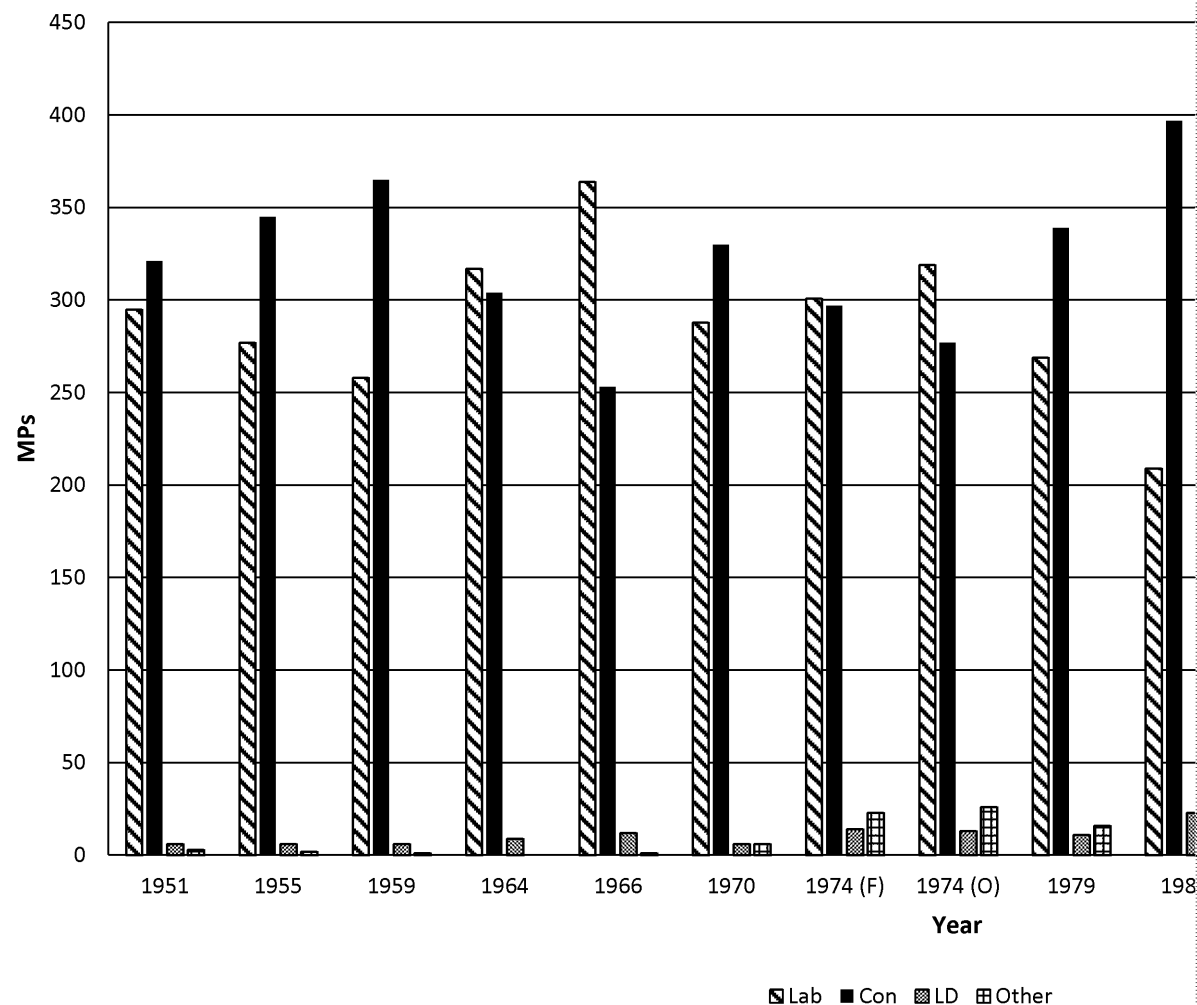


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Party Fortunes 1951–2005



Summary of UK General Election Results

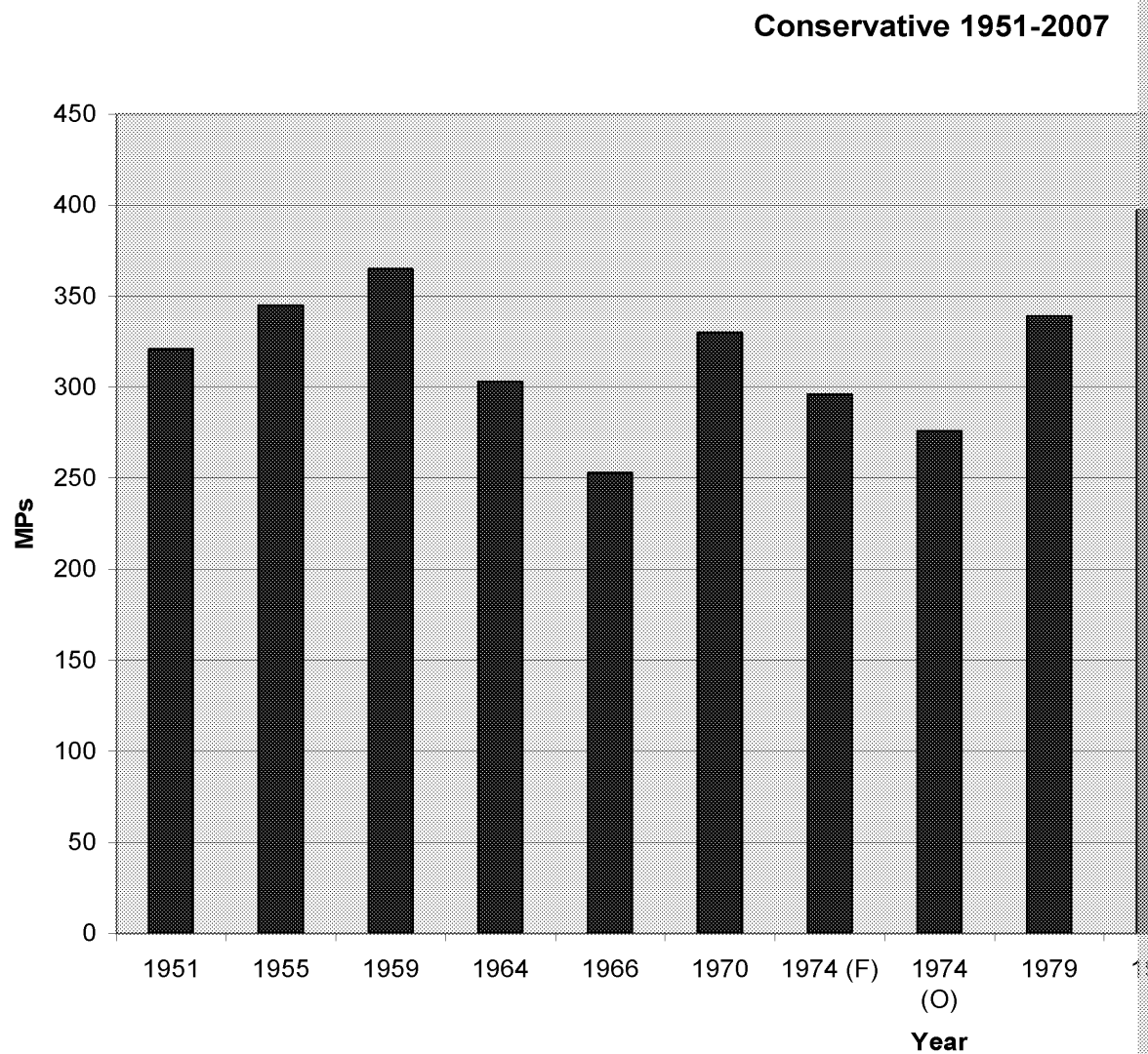
Year	Party		
	Conservative	Labour	Liberal
1951	321	295	6
1955	345	277	6
1959	365	258	6
1964	304	317	9
1966	253	363	12
1970	330	288	6
1974 (F)	297	301	14
1974 (O)	277	319	13
1979	339	269	11
1983	397	209	23
1987	376	229	22
1992	336	271	20
1997	165	418	46
2001	166	412	52
2005	198	356	62

(Source: Dennis Kavanagh & Philip Cowley, *The British General Election*)

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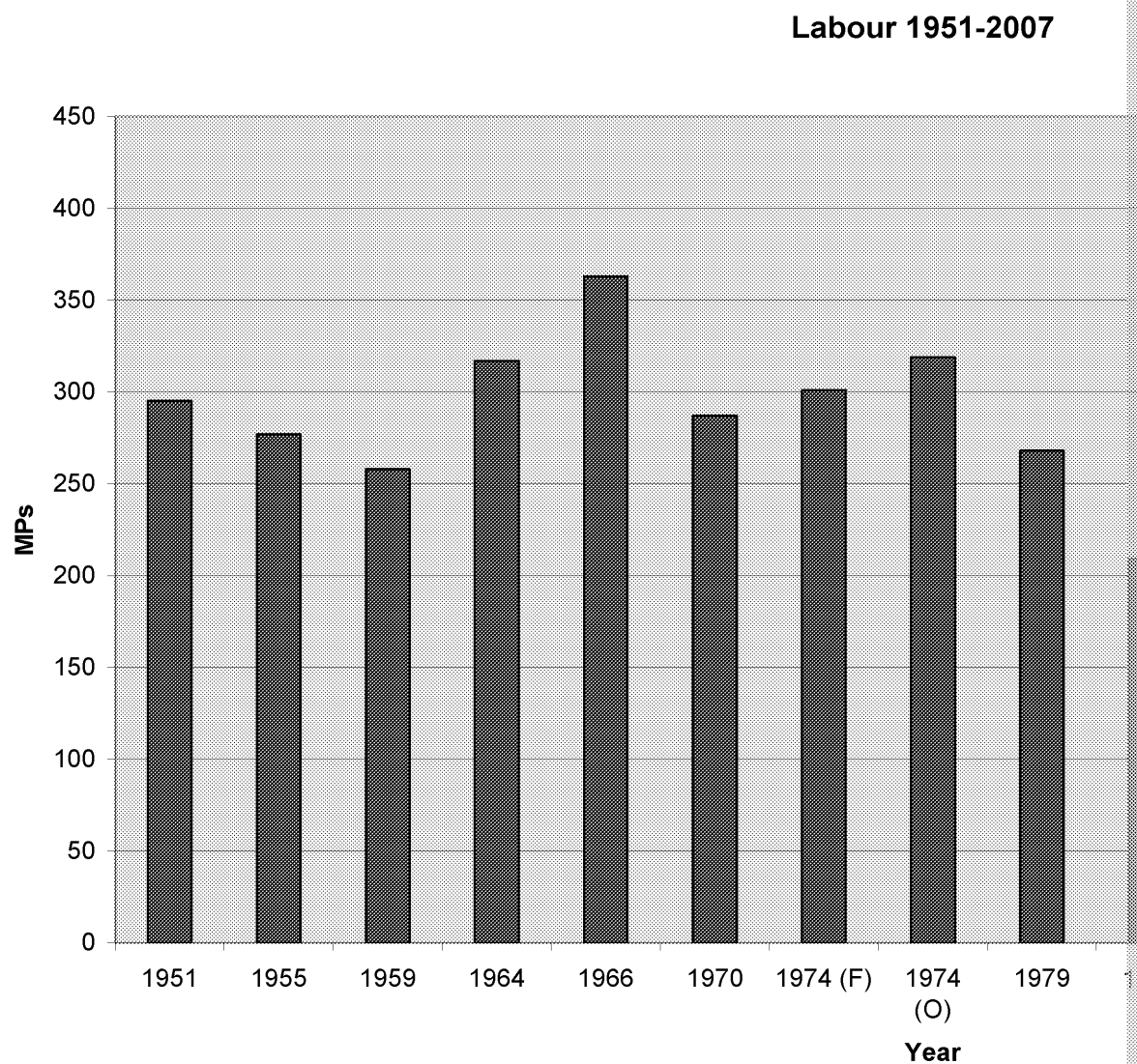
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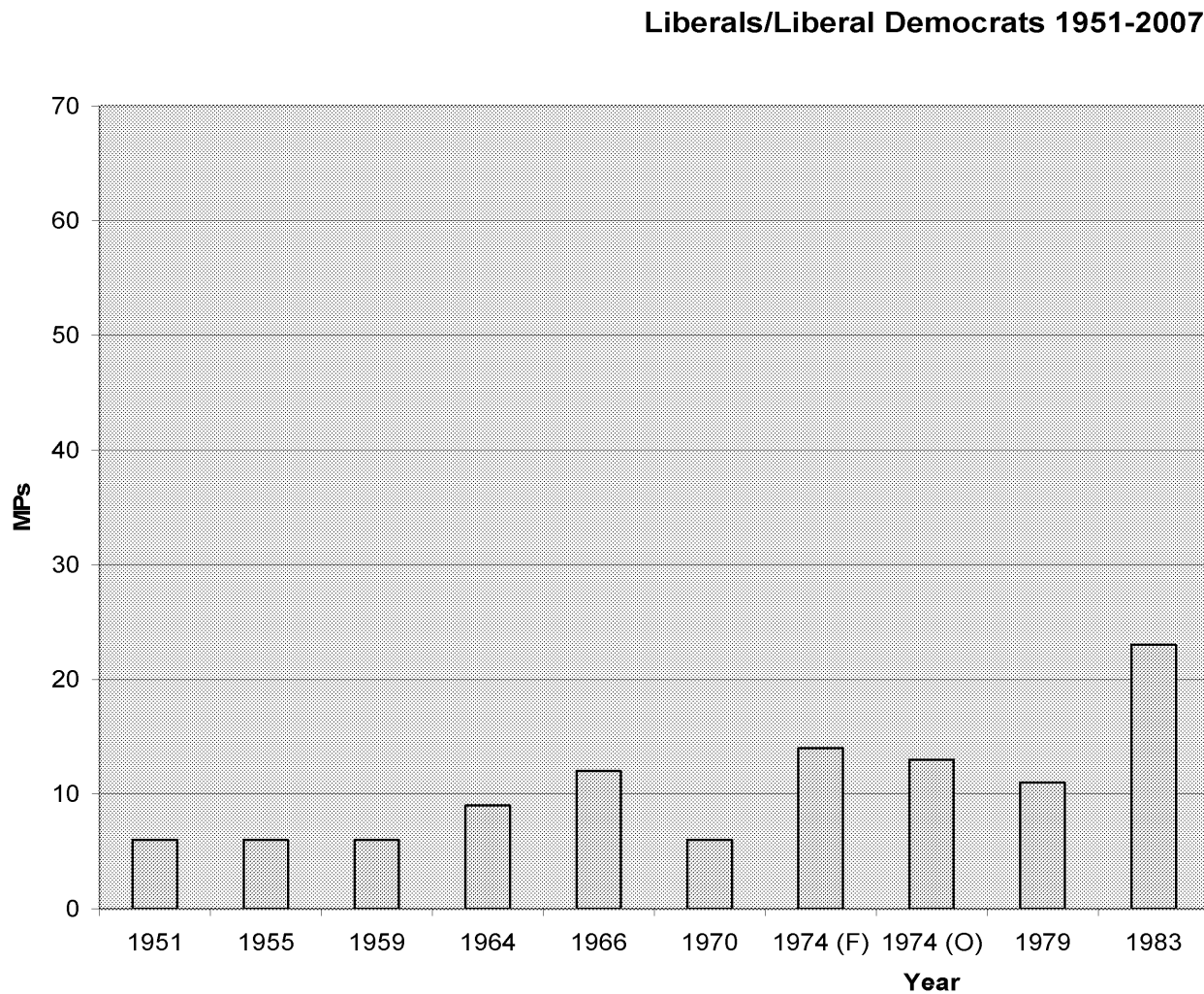
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