



2017 specification
first exams in 2019 (2018 for AS)

Course Companion for A Level Edexcel

Component 2: UK Government

The Constitution

2026 Edition

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Teacher's Introduction

This pack is designed to provide students with a comprehensive educational resource on the UK Constitution for AS and A Level Edexcel.

Understanding the constitution is essential for learning about politics in the United Kingdom. The debates surrounding the effectiveness of constitutional reform, the possibility of extended devolution and the case for codification of the constitution are significant debates arising from this topic that students will become familiar with in this course companion. This pack will give vital context to the rest of the students' learning about British politics. Students will be introduced to the concept of the constitution and how it applies in the United Kingdom today, as well as how it has developed over time.

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

The constitution module in the 2017 Edexcel specification covers four main topics: the nature and sources of the UK constitution, how the constitution has changed since 1997, the role and powers of the devolved bodies in the UK (and the impact of this devolution on the UK), and debates on further reform. The idea of this pack is to give students a basic understanding of what the constitution means in the United Kingdom. The course companion is as comprehensive as possible, and covers key political developments up to and including the June 2017 general election.

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

Each chapter contains:

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

Second edition, April 2020

The second edition of this course companion has been updated to reflect recent developments, contemporary debates and new political contexts that have emerged since its initial publication. In relation to The Constitution, this includes (but is not limited to) political developments since the 2017 general election, the evolution of policy commitments, progression in the ongoing process of devolution, and changes in the positions of prominent political figures.

Third edition, October 2022

The third edition of this course companion has been further updated to include recent developments such as the political context since the 2019 general election, the changing nature of devolution settlements and devolved election results, recent examples of success and failure with regard to constitutional reform, and the constitutional impact of leaving the European Union.

Fourth edition, January 2026

Changes to bring this edition up to date include changes to electoral systems, updated case studies of elections to devolved bodies, and the status of Northern Ireland post-Brexit. We also bookend the Conservatives' reform section and introduce a new section for the 2024 Labour government.

1.1 The Nature and Sources of the UK

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Learn the historical documents that have led to the development of
- ✓ Understand the principles of the UK constitution and how far these have been maintained
- ✓ Be able to explain the sources of the constitution and how these differ and relate to each other
- ✓ Understand the difference between unitary states and federal states and identify the main features of the UK constitution that are due to the latter, and compare this with the USA



Key Terms

Constitution	A set of rules, laws and principles that describe the way a country is run or governed.
Codified	When a constitution is written into a single document, it is said to be codified. This document can be found in this document.
Entrenched	A key feature of a codified constitution relating to the difficulty of amending them.
Unitary	Central government is sovereign and has authority over other levels of government.
Federal	Central government is distinguished from several states or provinces, each with its own federal government.
Parliamentary sovereignty	Parliament is sovereign and the highest legal authority. The courts are legislatively supreme, and its decisions cannot be overturned.
Rule of law	A legal idea that the relations between citizens and the state are governed by the law, through the governance and protection of individual rights.
Statute law	Acts of Parliament and other legislation that has been passed by Parliament.
Common law	Law passed by the decision-making and common practice of the courts.
EU treaties	Agreements made between member states of the European Union. All member states must follow these treaties.
Conventions	Norms that have been established through prior experience and are not legally binding but are followed by the government and other officials.
Authoritative works	A selection of political texts relating to the constitution that are referred back to during constitutional issues.



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What is a Constitution?

A constitution is a set of rules, laws and principles that sets out the ways in which a country is organised or governed. It outlines the way a society will be run by its authorities and how these authorities interact with citizens within a state. It is at the core of how a country is run every day. A constitution has many important functions that make this the case, such as defining where power resides in certain areas and guaranteeing rights for citizens.

Constitutions vary in terms of their importance from state to state. Democracies use their constitutions in order to function effectively. This helps for a number of reasons, such as the prevention of government wielding too much power. The USA, for example, has the judicial, executive and the legislature work separately from the president and has powers available to them to carry this out. This ensures that there is no institution that can threaten the democratic principles of the state. You might say that this is the idea of **limited government** as they tend to outline citizen protection from government overreach.

The constitution in the UK did not just simply come into existence overnight. In the same way the Founding Fathers are credited with writing the American Constitution, the UK Constitution has been built over time, borrowing principles from a number of sources, including a partly written constitution. Written or unwritten, however, the UK Constitution defines the workings of government every day.

The Development of the UK Constitution

Because the constitution is uncodified, it has developed over time in a number of documents. Most of these can be considered as contributing to themes that have shaped the development of the constitution. The main themes will be discussed throughout the course. The development of the constitution and the themes will be discussed throughout the course for them.



The Founding Fathers signing the American Constitution.

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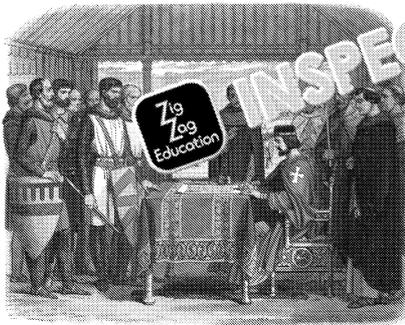


Magna Carta 1215

Constitutional development began in 1215 with the creation of the **Magna Carta**. The Magna Carta is widely considered as the first stage of its development because it was the first written document that began to check the power of the king. This charter was introduced by the Archbishop of Canterbury in an attempt to bring peace between King John of England and a

Did you know?

Three of the Magna Carta's provisions were the right of English nobles and knights to elect their own representatives to the king's council and the right to a fair trial and the protection from imprisonment.



group of rebels, and it included the right to a fair trial and the protection from imprisonment. The king, for the first time, ruled by the law of the land himself but ruled over citizens' protections from him. The Magna Carta transferred power from the monarchy to the citizens within the state, becoming a pillar for constitutions all over the world, including the USA of America.

Bill of Rights 1689

After a few centuries, there was a new-found interest in the principles of the Magna Carta. The Bill of Rights 1689 was an Act of Parliament introduced to outline basic civil liberties and to limit the power of the monarch and clarify the line of succession to the Crown. The Bill of Rights transferred power to Parliament by introducing free elections and free speech in the chamber. The Bill of Rights introduced so that this newly legitimate Parliament could check the power of the monarchy and the aristocracy, including the banning of a standing army without permission from Parliament. The Bill of Rights outlawed cruel and unusual punishment and other violations of civil rights. For these reasons, the Bill of Rights can be considered the first step in the development of the UK constitution, this time placing it in the hands of Parliament.

Act of Settlement 1701

The third Act that aided the development of the UK constitution was the Act of Settlement 1701. This, you need to know that all of the successors outlined in the Bill of Rights Act was mainly focused on ensuring the monarchy remained Protestant after the Act of Settlement. The Act banned Roman Catholics from taking the throne, but also placed further restrictions on the monarch. Without the consent of Parliament, the monarch could not wage war, declare peace, or grant titles. The Act of Settlement therefore indirectly further put power in the hands of Parliament.

Acts of Union 1707

It can be argued that without the Act of Settlement, the Acts of Union 1707 would not have been possible. Many attempts had been made before to unite the kingdoms of Scotland and England, with no success. This Act was the product of a two-year-long treaty between the two states, resulting in the formation of Great Britain. The new union would be governed from Westminster; henceforth, the Acts of Union of the Parliaments. The power of Parliament was inherited from the Magna Carta and increased as they were now guaranteed to represent people over more territories.

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The Parliament Acts 1911 and 1949

This newly reformed Parliament attempted to function effectively after the Acts of 1911 and 1949, however, followed to settle disagreements over the power of the House of Lords. The chamber was dominated by Conservatives at the time. A liberal bill put forward by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, proposing a land tax on landowners, was blocked by the Lords. Many of the peers were landowners themselves, and their personal interests were in limiting the rights of citizens. Restrictions were placed on the delaying power of the Lords, including time limits of delay on money and supply bills. These restrictions can be considered to have increased the rights of citizens in the UK by limiting the power of the Lords and increasing the power of the House of Commons.

European Communities Act 1972

World wars and political volatility meant that there was no great constitutional change in the twentieth century. The final Act that is important to think about in constitutional history is the **European Communities Act**. In 1972, the UK joined the European Economic Community. Prime Minister Edward Heath signed a treaty in Brussels following which the UK declared that Britain would join the European Community. This involved the incorporation of the Treaty of Rome in UK law, which meant that EU law had authority over statute law in the UK. This resulted in the decision that Britain would leave what is now known as the EU. Nevertheless, the European Communities Act has been significant in the development of the UK Constitution.

The Principles of the UK Constitution

The constitution in the UK has several distinctive features, which will be discussed in this chapter. There are **two** fundamental pillars that underpin the UK Constitution, inherent to it, regarding its features due to its (lack of) codification or the fact that it is unwritten. The 'twin pillars' are **parliamentary sovereignty** and **the rule of law**. As discussed, these pillars are outlined and are in a sense encouraged due to the nature of the UK but there has been increased doubt in recent times as to whether they still hold.

Sovereignty of Parliament

This is the idea that Parliament has the highest authority to make law and that no parliament can bind a subsequent parliament. It means too that Parliament has sovereignty over other parts of government, such as the monarchy (when it forced the King to abdicate in 1936), or over the judiciary when its own laws take precedence over common law. This was an idea of sovereignty particularly articulated in the nineteenth century, and especially by A V Dicey.

Parliamentary sovereignty has been argued to be important over the years. Due to statute law being supreme (in theory), important law has been made through the democratic process of the UK. The **Human Rights Act 1998** is an example of Parliament being sovereign. However, there are doubts cast today as to whether legal sovereignty in practice. This will be discussed below in more detail, but recent trends have occurred – including a more dominant executive, a more powerful judiciary, devolution and power to regional bodies, and the increasing use of referendums. Parliamentary sovereignty no longer exists in the UK.



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Rule of Law

The success of the UK Constitution is also said to rest upon respect for and successful operation of the rule of law. Some of the fundamental principles are that everyone is equal before the law and should have equal rights to redress grievances, that no one can be punished unless convicted for a breach of the law, that all powers possessed by governments must be based on agreed legal authority and should bring with it ideas of fairness and justice, and that independent judiciary should decide the general principles of the constitution, not politicians.

The rule of law, like parliamentary sovereignty, has proved an important progressive principle in the UK. When Boris Johnson prorogued Parliament (ending in September 2019), it was a ruling of the Supreme Court that overturned the order, showing that it was enhancing democracy, re-establishing the power of Parliament over the executive. However, it has been brought into debate whether it is truly a credible pillar of the constitution. It implies that judges' decisions can be overturned without major difficulty. A government cannot afford to go to court any more, suggesting that law does not dictate the actions of people and the state.

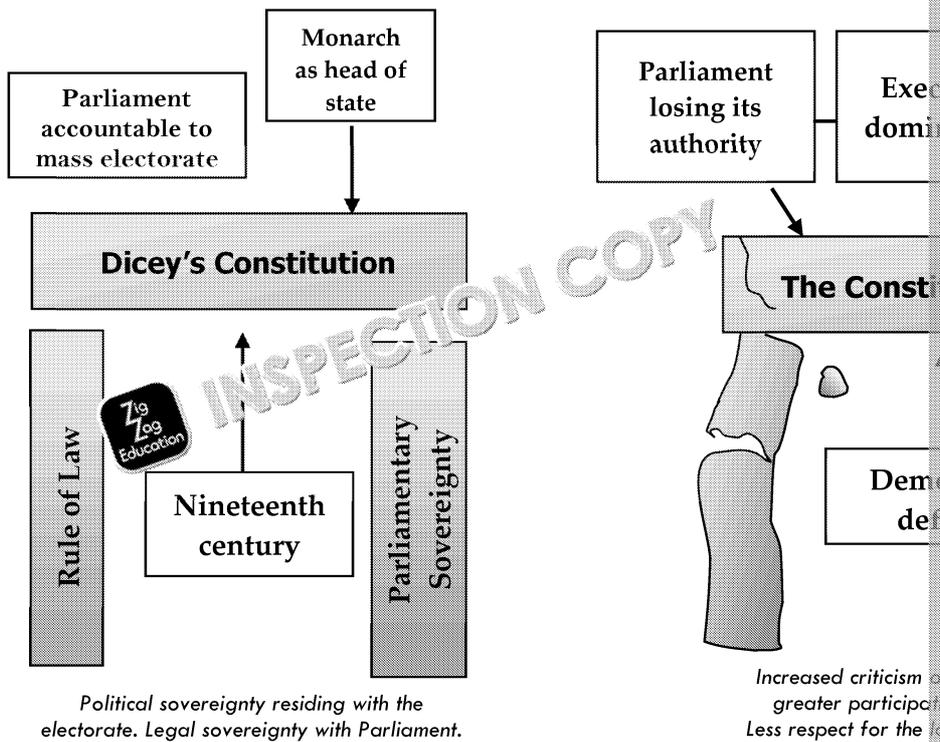
Twin Pillars

You'll see from the chart on the next page that one of the sources is the work of Walter Bagehot written on the Constitution. It was Bagehot who said in the nineteenth century that the constitution has two parts – a dignified part that is the monarchy and the House of Lords, and a power really lies: the House of Commons, the prime minister, and the Cabinet. A V Dicey wrote that the constitution had two main pillars that supported the state: the monarchy, which everybody, including the government, is bound to obey, and the sovereignty of Parliament, the highest authority to make the laws. You'll have to think about this concept of sovereignty. Dicey defined different kinds of sovereignty. He said that Parliament had legal sovereignty, but in political sovereignty, the electorate ultimately controlled it. Do you think there are two pillars where sovereignty lies? Constitutions have two sides. The work of Bagehot and Dicey were so proud of, and there is the practical side, the day has changed since they wrote, and we now have a much stronger executive, and the effects of belonging to the European Union and a more informed attitude on the part of many aspects of politics and society.

Walter Bagehot 1826–1877. Bagehot was at various times a lawyer, banker and journalist, and tried unsuccessfully to become a Member of Parliament. We remember him best for his work entitled The English Constitution (1867), in which he described the Cabinet as the 'efficient secret of Government'. Bagehot, like Dicey and a few other writers, may be regarded as an important source of the UK Constitution. Such value has always rested in the interpretation they have put upon an unwritten constitution. It would otherwise be very difficult to explain and to agree upon.

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Even if the UK Constitution doesn't run exactly as the authorities described that doesn't mean that it has no purpose. Some of it may need reforming to concentrate here on whether we should have a written constitution, and on sovereignty.

Problems with the UK Constitution

1. It has produced an imbalance of powers, allowing the executive to control the legislative branch. This, together with the large majority system, can lead to **elective dictatorships**, whereby the governing party effectively rules by the rest of Parliament.
2. The notion of the rule of law may be breaking down, e.g. many people...
3. The sovereignty of Parliament is in doubt.
4. The constitution is far too easy to amend by a government with a large...
5. The constitution still allows too many 'relics' of earlier times, such as the House of Lords and the monarchy.
6. It has become a messy mixture of written and unwritten elements.
7. Because it is so vague and uncodified, it does not carry the obvious authority of written constitutions, such as that of the USA.

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The Sources of the UK Constitution

Some Useful Points to Remember

The UK Constitution is **uncodified** – not set down in one place. It has evolved over centuries, and not been written down at one particular time. It can change through Parliament, and doesn't need a complicated process to amend it, unlike a codified constitution. It has developed into a **democratic** constitution and has a **parliamentary system**, accountable through elections to the electorate; sovereignty where power resides in one place, although some power can be devolved, such as Northern Ireland, but can be taken back by Parliament (this is different from the USA, where sovereignty lies both in central government and the states) and a **monarchy** that has little real political power. Despite all of this, Parliament and the courts are the main sources of the constitution. The important thing to remember is that these sources interact with each other differently due to the uncodified nature of the constitution.

The sources of the UK Constitution vary because it is uncodified. There are both written and unwritten parts of the constitution can be found:

➤ Statute law

Statute law is law made by Parliament. This is usually characterised in Acts of Parliament, which must go through a long process of examination and have approval from the House of Commons, the House of Lords and the monarch. **Parliamentary sovereignty** means that statute law is more powerful than any other source of the law. This means that, in theory, it can be used if there is a conflict between the law and another rule or principle from another source.

Not all Acts of Parliament can be considered constitutional, and this is why it should be careful not to assume that finding any law made by the legislature is an example that highlights a source of the constitution. Acts that affect the rights of citizens can be considered constitutional. An example of statute law in the legal system in recent times is the Scotland Act 1998, which created a Scottish Parliament in Westminster. The Human Rights Act 1998 has impacted on the rights of citizens and is therefore, an important element to think about when considering the sources of the constitution because of its authority and impact on UK politics.

Case Study – EU Referendum

The European Union Referendum Act in 2015 was passed by Parliament. As its name suggests, it promised a 'in, out' referendum on Britain's membership of the EU. It was brought forward to the House of Commons in May 2015 and passed the Commons vote by 544 to 235. It was given royal assent in December 2015 and the bill became an Act. The referendum was held on 23 June 2016, in which the public voted to leave the European Union.

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➤ Common law

Common law is the idea that our judges have some role in the making of **judicial review**, which means they examine the work of other members of Parliament, in cases where statute law doesn't solve the problem. This fills the blanks of statute law so that judges can make informed decisions in the future. However, because of parliamentary sovereignty, common law can be overruled.

Common law, and, therefore, judges, can consequently never directly challenge the authority of Parliament. Areas where common law is prominent are tort, contract and crime conviction. Common law is nevertheless significant in the creation of precedent and provides clarity in cases where statute law will not suffice.

Case Study – Marriage

In cases of partnership that have the legal implications of marriage without having registered in a civil or religious union, common-law marriage outlines other types of union. Civil union and domestic partnership are examples of situations that common law has described over time. David Cameron's (right) parliamentary victory to introduce same-sex marriage in 2013 prompted the question of whether these cases of partnership would still be necessary, as homosexuals had made up a large proportion of people who had registered in a civil union. However, civil union is still available to those who wish for this method of partnership, and the first heterosexual British couple to join in civil union did so in 2016.

➤ Conventions

Conventions are a sort of informal agreement that are not written down but nevertheless guide governments in their decision-making. They are not always long-standing and historically successful in many cases, and this gives them, for this reason, don't have the same constitutional importance of conventional law. Ignoring a convention can have just as serious consequences as written law. Numerous conventions, such as the royal assent of legislation and the inability for political parties to be dissolved by the Speaker of the House of Commons if they are seeking re-election are not written but are enforced due to historical ties. If the monarch were to refuse royal assent to legislation, which has not been done for over 300 years, it would cause a constitutional crisis. The fact remains that Parliament may still overrule or challenge conventions, but they are often seen as equal to statute law.

Case Study – Voting on War

Following the electoral backlash for Labour as a result of what many saw as an undemocratic declaration of war with Iraq by Tony Blair in 2003, a convention has been introduced since that means that Parliament will always vote on matters that may result in the state going to war. Gordon Brown (right) introduced this convention in 2007 and it has been respected since. The most notable case where it was evident was David Cameron's parliamentary defeat over war with Syria in 2013. It had been a prerogative power of the prime minister to deploy troops where necessary, but this convention prevented him from overturning this power, and troops were not sent.

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➤ Authoritative works

The 'works of authority' are generally referred to as such because they are written by constitutional experts who have written detailed texts on the constitution, but they are not constitutional. The authority that these works have can, therefore, be more persuasive than legally binding. You know already that the constitution is uncodified and unwritten, so it is not too difficult to imagine that there are several areas where authoritative works attempt to provide clarity by providing what is essential for activity on constitutional activity.

We have already referred to the work of the authors who contribute to this course companion: Wintour's *Legisprudence* with *The English Constitution* and A V Dicey's *Introduction to the Study of the Law of the Constitution*. These are some of the works that are referred to as authoritative works to justify constitutional activity. Works of authority must be an important source in the formation of the UK Constitution, as they offer a clear guide to which government officials can more clearly identify whether their acts are constitutional.

Case Study – A V Dicey and Brexit

The Brexit referendum result prompted serious debate surrounding what had been written on parliamentary sovereignty by A V Dicey in his various works. In fact, authoritative works were used to campaign on both sides following the result. Supporters of leaving the EU, including Boris Johnson, verbally claimed that leaving signified the reclaim of parliamentary sovereignty. On the other hand, political analysts, including economics and social policy specialist Warwick Lightfoot, directly referenced the works of Dicey to argue that it was constitutionally justifiable for Parliament to overrule Brexit, as it is merely exercising their right.

➤ European Union law and treaties

When the UK joined the European Economic Community in 1972, and later the European Union, sovereignty was transferred by the supremacy of EU legislation, treating European law as a source of justice. The 1958 Treaty of Rome determines this situation, stating that EU law takes precedence over national law of member states. This means that in some way violating any laws or treaties imposed on the UK by the EU.

This has had varying impacts on several areas of policy. It has been controversial in the UK over UK law on fishing policy and areas of social policy such as workers' rights. Where the undermining of the sovereignty of Parliament was controversial in the UK, the result of the 2016 referendum on membership of the EU. Since the result, European law no longer takes precedent over UK law.

Case Study – Social Policy

The European Union doesn't have great power over social policy broadly speaking, but focuses on workers' rights. Its 'social charter' outlines basic working conditions for all those working within member states, such as the right to rest breaks and paid holidays. Supporters of the EU implementing constitutional law state that it increases the rights of citizens and limits the opportunity for a loss of human liberties. The view that EU influence should not overrule statute law on these matters reflects the capitalist history of the UK, and its more free market perspective on the economy in recent decades compared to that of other countries in mainland Europe.

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Talking point



What impact might Brexit have on the sources of the UK Constitution?

Comparing the UK and US Constitutions

Unitary and Federal Government

An important aspect of the UK Constitution is that it has produced a **unitary** state in which every citizen runs the country at all times. It wouldn't prove least, and it is hard to see how effective decisions could ever be made. The opposite extreme, and have people at the centre making all the important decisions. **Unitary government** is such a government where the important political power is held by the central government, which may or may not allow subordinate units to exercise powers. In fact, say, most governments in the world lean towards this model. Before modern times, the most common form of unitary government would have been the monarch or emperor with power over all subordinate bodies. During the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, governments across the world tried to make their governments more democratic, giving power to electorates in one form or another. Essentially, however, most remained unitary. The real decision-making stayed in the hands of a central government. The modern democracy does allow a great deal of participation by its citizens, but, in essential decisions, they are made by or with the permission of the central government.

Federalism is an alternative system of government to unitary government. In a federal system, the central government still holds important powers, but other powers are held by local divisions of government. If we take the USA as an example of a federal system, the central government (known as the federal government) holds nationally important powers such as the right to impose national taxes or to declare war, while each of the 50 states holds powers over more local matters such as the right to decide on whether or not to join in that state. Federal government also exists in different forms in states such as Germany and Australia.



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Codified and Uncodified Constitutions

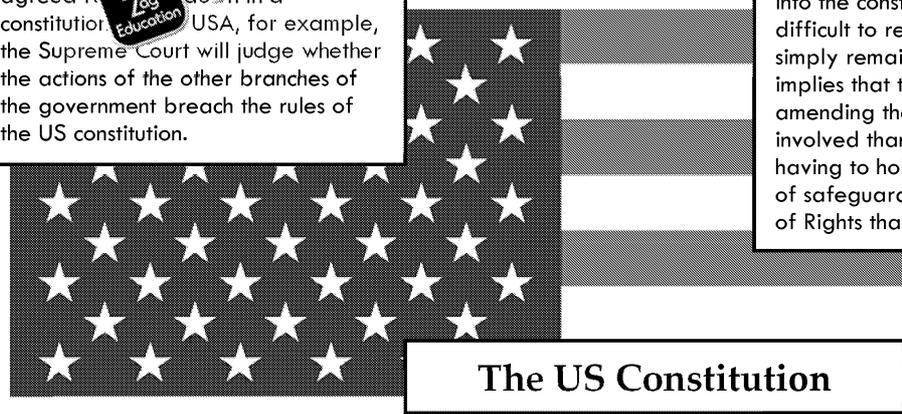
Sometimes you just have to sit down and learn a few definitions so that you understand of the subject itself, including some of the points you've just learned. **Uncodified** – where a constitution is not to be found in one document but in a number of different places over time. Uncodified constitutions tend, therefore, to be a mixture of written and unwritten elements. Written elements are now comparatively rare. The UK Constitution has developed in this way, with elements such as statute law and unwritten conventions that have no force of law. Uncodified constitutions may well be easier to amend, often requiring little more than a simple majority, which means that they are **unentrenched** – the contents of the constitution are not protected from change by law. When a constitution is unentrenched, it is more difficult to amend than regular law.

For over 200 years, the USA has functioned under the sovereignty of a codified constitution. Only amended 27 times, it has nevertheless adapted to changing times through the introduction of unwritten conventions, and through the interpretation of the document by the highest court in the USA. This is the Supreme Court, which has the power to strike down laws made by the legislature if they are seen to clash with the rules in the constitution itself. The US Constitution – a codified document – makes some very specific references to various government offices and the power conferred on them. There is no guidance in the constitution as to who should fill the role of Speaker of the House. When Nancy Pelosi became Speaker for the second time in 2019, it was because she was the leader of the largest party within the House. It is therefore through convention rather than explicitly in law. What is in the constitution, however, is the fact that the Speaker cannot be removed from office, and would take on the presidential powers if anything befell the president. Whatever voters may think of what is happening, there would be no legal way to remove the Speaker.

Did you know? Our country has a codified constitution in the USA.

Constitutionalism – this is the principle that when a state or organisation is bound by an agreed set of rules, it is bound to follow them. In a constitutional democracy, for example, the Supreme Court will judge whether the actions of the other branches of the government breach the rules of the US constitution.

Entrenched – this means that it is difficult to remove or change. Simply remaining in place implies that there is a process for amending the rules that is more involved than just a simple majority. It often involves having to hold a referendum or a special election of safeguarding the rights that are protected.



The US Constitution

Separation of powers – where the various branches of government have strictly separate powers to avoid dictatorship. The UK parliamentary system does not provide true separation of powers.

Codified – where a written constitution is brought together in one document. This is the usual practice across the world, with the exception of a very few states, including the United Kingdom.

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1.2 Constitutional Reform Since

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Learn the main constitutional reforms of the Labour Government 1997-2010
- ✓ Learn the main constitutional reforms of the Conservative-led government 2010-2015
- ✓ Understand the main areas of reform and the themes that have resurfaced in various reforms
- ✓ Understand the implications of these reforms, and assess the level of success

Key Terms

Constitutional reform	An amendment made to the UK Constitution that changes the way the country is governed or organised.
Human Rights Act	A UK law passed in 1998 which defends the rights of citizens. It offers freedoms such as the right to life, the freedom of expression and of assembly.
Devolution	The transfer of political power from central government to regional or national institutions.
Constitutional Reform Act	A UK law passed in 2005 which changed the way that judges are appointed and the power of the Lord Chancellor, paving way for a UK Supreme Court.
House of Lords Act	A UK law passed in 1999 that attempted to democratise the House of Lords by removing all but 92 hereditary peers.
Modernisation	The idea that reform was necessary to change the outdated structure of the civil service.
Democratisation	Electoral reform and referendums should be used to make the government more democratic.
Decentralisation	Decision-making powers were too highly centralised in Westminster, so they should take power from Westminster and hand it to Scotland, Northern Ireland and Wales.
Brexit	The result of the European Union referendum in June 2016 has major implications for future constitutional reform.

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Labour Government 1997–2010

When New Labour was elected in 1997, Prime Minister Tony Blair immediately putting in place a long list of constitutional reforms. Constitutional reform to the written and unwritten principles that determine the way the UK is governed had been slow and insignificant during the era of government that was in office between 1979 and 1997. What changed? In what ways did constitutional reform impact? Were these reforms truly significant? In order to try and answer these questions, an understanding of every government's role in constitutional reform since 1979 is needed.

The New Labour Government, particularly under Tony Blair between 1997 and 2010, made the most radical reforms of the constitution in the modern political history of the UK. A manifesto identified before taking power that there were four main problems with the constitution and all subsequent reforms would be an attempt to remove these issues:

1. The constitution was outdated. This was a long-standing issue with some parts of the constitution. It is also a factor in the case for rewriting the constitution. Blair would force through the removal of unnecessary laws in the current Bill of Rights. Blair planned to introduce a period of **modernisation** that would remove some of the old examples of constitutional practice. A key identified area that was planned to be the functioning of Parliament.
2. There was not enough room for citizens to access the political system by the current constitution. New Labour felt that direct democracy was being hindered by the electoral system (first-past-the-post) that did not give a voice to smaller parties. New Labour therefore introduced reforms with **democratisation** in mind.
3. The constitution did not give enough power to those political bodies that were created. A process of **decentralisation** was put in place to tackle some of the problems with the highly centralised constitutional layout. This included the fact that different political issues and policy needs because, for example, financial issues were not in place.
4. **Citizens' rights** were not well enough protected under the current constitution. A written statute or common law that guaranteed the protection of citizens' rights was needed. New Labour therefore attempted to solve this issue by increasing the protection of rights for citizens by introducing written laws.



The House of Lords.

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Reforms to Parliament

In an attempt to modernise the constitution, New Labour set about reforming Parliament. Parliament is divided into two chambers, the House of Commons and the House of Lords. In the House of Lords, there were hundreds of hereditary lords who, for centuries, held their position there simply because they inherited their titles. The Labour Government wanted to remove them. What the Labour Government actually achieved was a partial reform. The change in 1999 left 92 **hereditary peers**. While the Conservative Party thought they were going too far, others such as the Liberal Democrats were disappointed at the compromise nature of the proposals, and the obvious problems in deciding what to do next. The whole question of the second chamber of Lords reform was put on hold by the parliamentary vote in 2005 that effectively rejected all proposals.

The House of Lords Reform Act's success lay in the removal of several hundred hereditary peers. Beyond that, there was very little reform of the upper chamber until the new reforms in 2026. Nonetheless, this reform was significant as it did lead to some modernisation of democracy, such as a new balance of ideologies in the House of Lords. The chamber was dominated by Conservatives and now there is no party majority.

New Labour reforms were unsatisfactory in the House of Commons. They included the introduction of a **Backbench Business Committee** to decide what business would be debated in the Commons one day per week. Most reforms, however, were stalled due to opposition. A few other reforms that were passed in the Commons were insignificant and did not modernise the constitution in any way. Amendments to Prime Minister's Questions that did not have the impact that Tony Blair had hoped. This was one of Tony Blair's attempts to unlock the full potential of this practice. In changing the 15-minute session to a half-hour session, however, it can be argued that the practice remains the same and a poorly conducted practice.

Overall, amendments in both houses can be said to have been unconvincing. Labour did to reform Parliament that actually modernised the constitution. The removal of hereditary peers helped to modernise the House of Lords in the sense that it improved the balance of the chamber. Little was done to challenge its legitimacy, though, which is a weakness of the House. Similarly, the strengthening of the position of backbenchers can be seen as a modernisation because it prevents elective dictatorship and increases the fairness of the House of Commons. However, most of the reforms New Labour did manage to pass were considered insignificant. Therefore, the New Labour Government only went some way in modernising Parliament.



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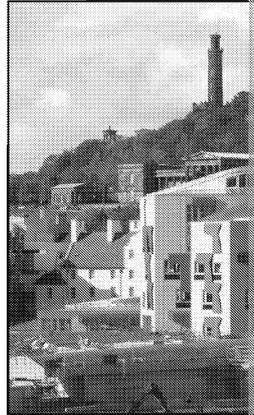


Devolution

Some context is needed here for you to understand the desire and pursuit of it had not been of high importance before this point. Scotland and Wales both and voted 'yes' to have their own devolved institutions. Subsequently, by 1999 the Welsh Assembly and a Northern Ireland Assembly had been established in a similar stage in New Labour carrying out their goal of devolution, but it was not until 2011 that devolution continued throughout their time in office.

Scottish Parliament was given further devolved powers that were directly given from Westminster. It was given primary legislative powers that included tax-varying authority. It was later given control over education and health, among other significant public sector areas. Northern Ireland followed along a similar pattern in terms of which policy areas it could influence. Crucially, however, it was not given tax-varying powers. Wales began in a weaker position than the other two devolved institutions, as it was only given secondary legislative power, so it could only change and introduce Westminster legislation, rather than create legislation itself. All of this was a gradual process that took place over the period of New Labour being in government.

Devolution was at first seen somewhat critically when government attempted to lead the Labour party in Wales to a defeat, and, similarly, when central government lost the candidacy of Ken Livingstone in the elections for London mayor, another change in the UK. It is to say that the arrangements for Wales and Scotland were criticised for the range of policies established by the Labour executive in line with overall Labour policy. These covered areas such as tuition fees, care of the elderly, and local elections. Devolution was mainly criticised, however, for putting too much power in regional MPs in relation to the power of English MPs. We call this the **West Lothian Question**, which asks why Scottish MPs should be allowed to vote on English-only matters, yet English MPs cannot vote in Scottish Parliament.



The Welsh Assembly.

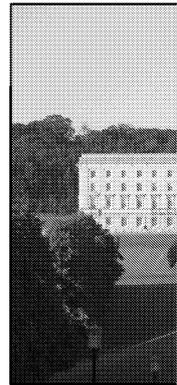
Did you know?
The West Lothian Question was first asked before the 1979 Scottish devolution referendum had been held. It was first used in 1977, by the Conservative Party in West Lothian.

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It is also useful to remember that, while attempting to tackle the problem of the constitution, New Labour made changes to local government. A directly elected mayor was introduced by the government in 2000, and was handed primary power in practice. A London Assembly was also established in 2000 that was charged with scrutinising the mayor. Labour introduced a total of 12 directly elected mayors in its time in power. The handling of local government reform. This primarily revolved around the mayor, Ken Livingstone, and his unpopular introduction in 2004 of a congestion charge coming into London. There was also, however, a case to argue that the British government's reform. A referendum on a regional assembly in East Yorkshire in 2004 resulted in a 'no' decision, New Labour continued their push for devolution and particularly local government reform.

There is some doubt over whether devolution reform by the New Labour Government was successful. It has created problems such as the West Lothian Question, which potentially damages democracy, and often local constitutional reform has proved unpopular. What is certain, though, is that devolution reform has succeeded in decentralising power away from Westminster. This means that New Labour ultimately succeeded, if only in part, in tackling the problem of the constitution creating a too highly centralised government.



The

Electoral Reform

As part of an attempt to democratise the constitution, Labour wanted electoral reform. In 1998 the Jenkins Report, which stated that the first-past-the-post (FPTP) voting system should be replaced by the alternative vote (AV) system. This system would still guaranteeing parliamentary majorities to the same extent. Importantly, it would also give representation to smaller parties, which have limited access to FPTP. Labour organised this report and wanted to implement policy but did not carry out what was recommended.

Despite the failure to democratise the Westminster electoral system, New Labour introduced electoral reform to the constitution in areas outside Parliament. Significant changes to representation systems were introduced for the first time into the UK Constitution. This table shows the different electoral systems that Labour introduced, and in which

Institution	Electoral System
Elected mayors	Supplementary vote (majority, changed briefly to FPTP)
London Assembly	Additional member system (hybrid)
Scottish Parliament	Additional member system (hybrid)
Scottish local government	Single transferrable vote (proportional)
Welsh Assembly	Additional member system (hybrid, since changed to 'system' for 2026)
Northern Ireland Assembly	Single transferrable vote (proportional)
European Parliament	Regional party list (proportional, not held since Brexit in 2020)

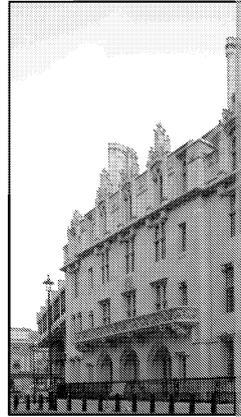
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While electoral reform in Westminster stalls, New Labour's introduction of across devolved and local institutions marks a constitutional shift. Some re Conservatives changed mayoral elections to use first-past-the-post from 20 (2026) and European Parliament elections end with Brexit. The Welsh Parlia proportional system from 2026, reflecting broader patterns of electoral dive

Judicial Reform

Another part of trying to introduce constitutional democratisation was attempting to tackle the imbalanced executive powers within Westminster. This was designed to better uphold the rule of law, holding the executive to account and preventing **elective dictatorship** – too much political power in the hands of the executive. The **Constitutional Reform Act 2005** was where constitutional reform of the judiciary began for New Labour. The Act sought to legitimise the branch by decreasing the appointment power of the Lord Chancellor, whose interests were argued to have lain in keeping the judiciary elitist. This led to the creation of a Supreme Court in 2009, which was given more powers of judicial review. Were these changes changing the structure of appointing judges and increasing judicial power of elective dictatorship increases, and this is good for democracy. However, how effective has been effective is questionable, as you will learn later in the UK Government



The Middlesex Guide

Rights

As there were no written rights in the UK before 1997, New Labour promised citizens from 1997 onwards would be better safeguarded under new statute law. A change in 1998 promised to be a new **Freedom of Information Act (2000)**. It was not until a few years later, and its real benefits remain unclear. The incorporation of the **Convention on Human Rights** into UK law through the **Human Rights Act 1998** for enhancing the political power of the judiciary, threatening to set up a court that increasingly undermine the legal sovereignty of Parliament, and making the process more difficult. We'll explain this later when we deal with the judiciary. The Act, however, is the first instance of written laws on the protection of citizens in the UK. In 2006, prime minister, Tony Blair, and the leader of the opposition, David Cameron, signed the Human Rights Act in 2006 when its provisions caused difficulties in deporting individuals. Again, a prominent criticism has been that the reforms are not part of an overall strategy for security as well as the protection of rights.

Coalition Government 2010–2015

The Coalition Government was a group of the Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats in office in 2010. It was a coalition government with significant restraints on it that the Labour Government before the coalition. It was a coalition government that significant constitutional reform would likely be carried out by both parties, and a weak mandate after no party won a majority meant that they were struggling to implement their manifesto. The coalition did manage to introduce some constitutional change, attempting to reform most of the areas listed above. The extent of this change, though, can be argued to be insignificant, as will be discussed in the table of

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Reform Proposal	Year	Explanation
Fixed-term Parliaments Act 	2011	Legislation designed to prevent the prime minister from calling a snap general election whenever they choose. Five-year terms of government are enforced by the Act. It was introduced in the hope that it would contribute to the stability of the coalition. It should be noted that general elections have taken place since, in 2015 and 2017, the Act was by-passed by a one-line bill with a simple majority in parliament. The Act was also seen to have contributed to parliamentary deadlock. Ultimately, it was seen as counterproductive and was repealed by Boris Johnson's government in 2019.
Electoral reform	2011	Although New Labour did not deliver the electoral referendum they had promised, the coalition government did in 2011. The Conservatives favoured keeping the current system, the Liberal Democrats wanted PR. 'Alternative Vote' was chosen as a compromise option, but rejected in the subsequent referendum. By providing a platform for electoral reform, however, they were seen as more progressive than the New Labour government.
E-petitions 	2011	E-petitions had been used in Parliament since 2005, however, the Coalition government revolutionised their importance by promising that 100,000 signatures would result in a parliamentary debate. It was intended to enhance democracy, but it has been criticised for having a very limited impact on parliamentary business.
The Scotland Act 	2012	The Scotland Act 2012 was the first significant piece of reforms towards devolution that had symbolised the New Labour government. This Act allowed the Scottish Parliament to further vary tax arrangements, as well as giving it some other powers. Some critics claim that extending devolution once again furthered the process of the UK breaking up, which came close to happening when the Scottish independence referendum took place in 2014.
Protection of Freedoms Act	2012	Work on legislating codified rights by the New Labour government had been partly threatened and ended after 9/11. One area perceived to threaten the rights of citizens against the state was surveillance. This Act guaranteed that security services would be protected from scrutiny when examining members of the public, while strengthening the constitutional protection of rights.
A British Bill of Rights 	2012	The Conservatives' 2010 manifesto contained a commitment to abolishing the Human Rights Act and replacing it with a British Bill of Rights. However, when they abandoned as their coalition partners, the Liberal Democrats, refused to agree to it.

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Reform Proposal	Year	Explanation
Power for local government	2010–2015	This was seen as important before the Conservative Liberal Democrats entered office in 2010. Plans passed by the previous government were not implemented. The creation of five 'combined authorities' were intended. However, nothing was implemented directly by the coalition to give power to local government.
Reduce number of MPs	2013	This was a disaster for prime minister David Cameron who proposed the idea of reducing the number of MPs in Parliament from 650 to 600. Arguments included increasing the effectiveness of the House of Commons in carrying out its functions. He was defeated in a parliamentary vote, however, and the claim that removing elected MPs would be undemocratic.
House of Lords Reform Act	2014	This area of reform began as an underwhelming proposal. The Conservatives' manifesto outlined that they would introduce a mostly elected second chamber by 2015. The Coalition Government introduced a House of Lords Reform Bill which proposed reducing the number of members, with 80% being elected, but was forced to abandon it because of a revolt by a large number of Conservative MPs. The House of Lords Reform Act, however, helped to bring the Lords to account by introducing resignation, meaning they could be removed from office.
Wales Act	2014	This was a continuation of constitutional devolution in the UK. It gave Wales small amounts of control over its own affairs, although this was to a lesser extent than had been achieved in the Scotland Act 2012. It is worth considering that the Wales Act was being passed at the same time as the Scottish referendum of independence occurred. This did not prevent the Coalition Government from introducing further constitutional reform to encourage devolution.
Recall of MPs Act	2015	This reform had fewer boundaries because both the Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats had included it in their manifestos. This meant that the Recall of MPs Act passed with little challenge in government. It meant that the House of Commons had the power to remove MPs for serious wrongdoing, for example, committing a crime. For obvious reasons, this reform has increased the democratisation of the House of Commons.

The Coalition Government overall had a mixed extent of success in carrying out significant constitutional reform. Some attempts cannot even be considered as they didn't pass through as legislation. Equalising constituency boundaries and more backbench control over the Commons were two areas not mentioned above that were included in manifesto, but which they failed to deliver.

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Conservatives in Government 2015–2024

Since the coalition years the Conservatives have governed alone, and this has seen a number of many constitutional reforms introduced over the last couple of decades – a Conservative majority attained at the 2019 general election.

One area of constitution reform Conservatives did introduce was an attempt to address the Lothian Question. Cameron's government introduced new parliamentary powers for English Votes for English Laws (EVEL) which prevented non-English MPs from voting on only English issues. However, the measure was short-lived. Some MPs criticised the the parliamentary process, and they were scrapped in 2021.

EVEL was not the only Cameron-era reform later abandoned by his party. The Fixed-term Parliaments Act 2011 was a cornerstone piece of coalition legislation which sought to prevent the prime minister from calling a snap election. However, it can be said to have failed in this regard as snap elections taking place after the law was passed – in 2017 and 2019. Many view this as a move to parliamentary gridlock in 2019, and in the end it was repealed by Boris Johnson, thus restoring the prime minister's prerogative power to call elections.

On electoral reform, the Elections Act 2022 introduced a requirement for voters to bring identification documents to polling booths – a controversial measure without precedent in UK general elections. The Act also ended the independence of the Electoral Commission and placed it under the supervision of government ministers.

Reforming or replacing the Human Rights Act has been a recurring Conservative theme in several manifestos since the Act's introduction in 1998. While previous governments have made progress, the sizeable majority secured in 2019 gave the party greater scope to act. In June 2022, the government introduced a new Bill of Rights aimed at repealing and redefining the relationship between courts, Parliament, and human rights. Removing the ability of courts to interpret laws compatibly with human rights, and introducing a 'permission stage' for claims, and limiting the influence of European Court of Human Rights. Framed as restoring parliamentary sovereignty, it would have represented a significant change of the UK's rights framework since 1998. However, amid political upheaval and a change of government, it was formally abandoned in 2023. The Human Rights Act remains in force.

Since leaving the European Union in 2020, the most significant constitutional reform by the Conservative government has focused on removing EU-derived law from the UK legal system. This marked a major constitutional rupture, but the process of reviewing and removing EU law is ongoing. In January 2022, the government introduced the Brexit Freedoms (Revocation and Reform) Bill – to streamline this process by giving the government powers to amend or remove retained EU law using statutory instruments, without parliamentary scrutiny. This raised concerns over democratic accountability and executive power. The Bill was repealed in June 2023; its constitutional significance depends on how these powers are used.

Labour Government 2024–present

Returning to government after a long and turbulent period, Labour have secured a majority enabling a variety of reforms, including changing the minimum voting age for general elections, removing hereditary peers from the House of Lords (finishing the job started by the previous government), and reverting the voting system for mayoral elections to the first past the post system. The party's manifesto also committed to eventually replacing the House of Lords with a new chamber.

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1.3 The Role and Powers of Devolved Bodies and the Impact of this Devolution

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Understand why devolution has occurred in the UK, including a popular regional settlements
- ✓ Learn the different areas of devolution in the UK
- ✓ Learn the different authorities of the Scottish Parliament, the Welsh Government and the Northern Ireland Assembly
- ✓ Understand the arguments that have emerged about the imbalance of power in the UK

Key Terms

Devolution	The transfer of political power from central government to regional or national institutions.
West Lothian Question	The question that asks why Scottish MPs should be able to vote on all matters while English MPs cannot vote in the Scottish Parliament.
English votes for English laws	Measures taken in Westminster to balance the problem of English MPs not being able to vote on English laws by giving certain advantages to English MPs over English MPs.
Tax-varying powers	The power to vary the rate of income tax imposed by the UK government.
Localism	A political belief in giving authority to an area or region.
Reserved powers	Authority retained by central government entirely and exclusively.
Excepted powers	Authority including national matters such as parliament, international relations and defence. It cannot be devolved without agreement by Westminster.
Primary legislative power	The authority that devolved bodies have to make laws.
Good Friday Agreement	A treaty in 1998 to bring peace between the UK and Northern Ireland.
Quasi-federalism	Central government exists but devolves some powers to regional government. These institutions do not make up a federal system.

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The Constitution and Devolved Assemblies

The UK Constitution has been adapted so that different parts of the UK have their own parliament or assembly. We're now going to examine levels of government: central government and see the relationship between devolved assemblies. How can they undermine one of the twin pillars of the constitution and threaten the sovereignty briefly discussed above?

First, you should be clear about the definition of **devolution**.

Devolution is when the central government grants certain powers to a regional parliament. Sovereignty remains at the centre, and the powers can be taken back if necessary. It is not the same as federalism, where both central government and regional government have sovereignty over particular matters, and these can be used for changing the constitution.

Why Bother with Devolution?

You might wonder why we should bother about setting up these different assemblies, which possibly undermine the authority of Parliament. Didn't the constitution set out where power lies at the centre? Why can't the government just tell us all what it's doing? There are three main answers to this. The first is that there is simply too much to do. Second, local government may well have a better idea of what's needed than the central government based in Westminster. Third, it's seen as an important factor in encouraging people to participate in politics more locally. On top of these reasons, there are also regional identities within the United Kingdom which seek their own representation.

The question is how could this happen without taking authority away from the central government. It's clear that it does, but how the UK's unitary constitution can function effectively with these institutions is an open question. It is up to you to judge whether these devolved powers are a good authority of Parliament, or the balance of the constitution.

After all, it is still Parliament that ultimately decides what arrangements there are. Constitutionally, local government only exists because Parliament allows it. It can do nothing that is not expressly allowed in law. This is very different from the USA, for example, which exist under a federal system of government, where the state, like the US Constitution, can do anything that the constitution does not specifically prohibit to the central government.

So we don't have a federal system, but we don't quite have a unitary system either. To find out exactly where the UK's constitution now stands, we need to look at each level of government that exists in the UK. Let's start with local government.

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Local Government

To answer these questions properly, it's helpful to have a little knowledge of how local government is organised, and its relationship with central government. You won't be asked a direct question on local government arrangements, but this small amount of knowledge will help you put devolution of the authority of Parliament into a better perspective.

First, let's look at the more general type of local government. There are two main types of local authority: county councils, with two tiers of administration, and unitary authorities, representing a single layer of administration.

In the example on the right, the thick black line represents the boundaries of a county council, and the thin black lines represent districts within the county which have their own, less-powerful councils. The shaded area is a unitary authority, usually an urban area, which has its own independent local authority (despite being located geographically within the county).

Sometimes, a county council might also be a unitary authority. For instance, Cornwall Council has just one level of administration for the entire county. These arrangements are decided by local councillors, and approved by central government.

Directly Elected Mayors

One innovation of the Labour Government in local government was to introduce directly elected mayors for local authorities. Previously, mayoral positions were a largely ceremonial role performed by a councillor, who was appointed to the role by the council. However, under this model, a local mayoral election is held, and the elected mayor has significant powers to run the council and appoint a cabinet.

New Labour had hoped to create directly elected mayors in every local authority by the time they left office, but in the end only 13 were created before the end of their tenure in 2010. The primary reason for this was a lack of public enthusiasm for the idea. The government decided to hold referendums in local authorities to gain public approval for their plans, but in the end this may have scuppered the whole approach. Of the 53 local referendums held in total, only 16 have supported the creation of local mayors. Moreover, several local authorities which initially approved the move have since scrapped their mayoral positions in further referendums.

Whether the public are actually opposed to the idea is somewhat unclear, as the turnout in mayoral referendums is very low. Nevertheless, although the take-up has been small, local mayors have become popular in some areas. A 2021 referendum to abolish the Mayor of Tower Hamlets was opposed with a decent turnout. And some local mayoral elections have seen increased turnout compared to their respective council elections.



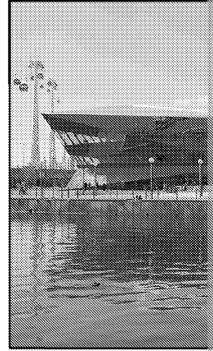
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London Assembly

The New Labour Government also introduced a special form of governance for London: a directly elected mayoral position to run London's executive affairs, and an elected assembly to scrutinise the activities of the mayor. The new structure gave London a form of governance with similar powers to that of the newly devolved administrations in the regions.



City Hall, with the River Thames in the foreground.

The London Assembly is comprised of 24 Assembly Members (AMs) who are elected using the additional member system.

This mayoral model differs from that created for local authorities, as the mayor has jurisdiction over multiple local authorities: all 32 councils within Greater London. This arrangement has largely been successful in London.

Regional Assemblies

Following the model established by the London Assembly, the New Labour Government created assemblies for each of the English regions. This model of localism was also created for London, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland across the whole of the UK to address the imbalance of local representation created by devolution.

However, the plans were scuppered before they even began. In 2004, a referendum in the North East – considered the region most favourable to the idea – was held. Only 22.07% voters backed the proposal, with 77.93% opposed. As a result of the data, the regional assembly idea was dropped altogether, leaving London with the only regional assembly in the UK.

Combined Authorities

A form of regional devolution in England was reattempted with greater success by the Coalition Government. In 2014, the first 'combined authority' was created in Greater Manchester, adding a single layer of administration above the 10 local authorities in the city-region. The approach of combined authorities has been embraced by the Conservatives, with a further nine created since 2014 in urban areas across the country.

The logic behind the combined authorities is the same as that in London: that it makes little sense having different local authorities working independently of each other in a large, continuous urban area.

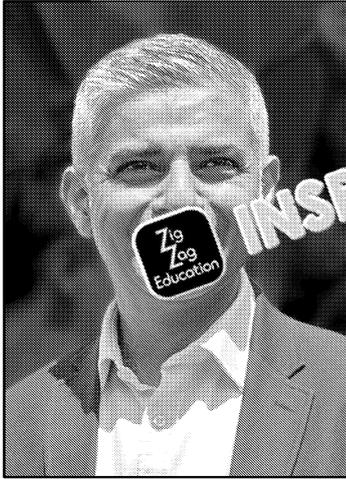
Unlike the New Labour regional assemblies, combined authorities are simply created by central government, rather than voted on in local referendums. As a result, there is no mechanism to abolish the authority. Instead of assemblies, combined authorities are run by a directly elected 'metro mayor' – similar to the position of Mayor of London.

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Metro Mayors

Metro Mayors are politicians directly elected to lead combined authorities comprised of several local authorities.



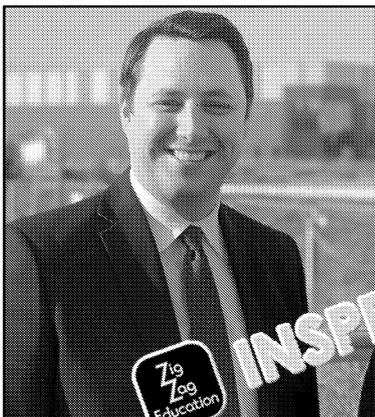
Sadiq Khan was first elected Mayor of London in 2016.

The first mayoral position of this type (spread across the country) was the Mayor of London – a powerful executive role. Ken Livingstone was the first elected Mayor in 2000, and introduced reforms of national importance such as the congestion charge. In doing so he set a precedent for what a powerful mayor could achieve – becoming a national figure – and – as the mayor of the capital city – an international one.

The position has since become a desirable post and was used by Boris Johnson, London Mayor, to propel himself to the frontline of British politics. The current Mayor, Sadiq Khan, is one of the best-known Labour politicians and is often touted as a future party leader.

But it is not just in London that mayoral positions have risen to national prominence. Since the expansion of combined authorities around the country, several former MPs have since chosen to vacate their seat in the House of Commons and run for a metro mayor position. Labour MP Steve Rotherham left Parliament in 2017 to become Mayor of the Liverpool City Region. Tracy Brabin – another former Labour MP – stood down to assume the position of Mayor of West Yorkshire.

Perhaps the most well-known former MP turned metro mayor, however, is Andy Burnham, who resigned from the role of Shadow Home Secretary to become the first elected Mayor of Greater Manchester. Burnham has regularly used his position to speak out against the dominance of London in the UK's politics, and positioned his role and his city as a counterweight to London, and one that will speak up for northern England. This was particularly notable during the coronavirus pandemic, in which Burnham criticised the government's approach to lockdown, and secured greater central government support for the region.



Tees Valley Mayor Ben Houchen has become a popular Conservative leader in a traditionally Labour-supporting region.

Another metro mayor success story is Tees Valley Mayor Ben Houchen. Narrowly elected in 2017 with just 51.1% of the vote (51.1% of 48.9%), he became a Conservative mayor in a traditionally Labour-voting part of the country. In his first year, he initiated a project to revitalise the area and build an international economy. Houchen also brought Teesside International Airport into public ownership in 2018 – a popular move. In 2024, Houchen was re-elected with a significant majority.

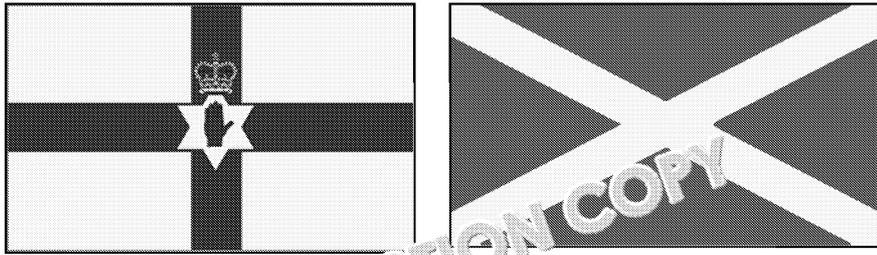
Metro mayors have extensive powers over local services, skills training and economic development. They have the responsibility to work with the leaders of local businesses to take a joined-up approach to local development.

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The Constitution, Parliament and Devolution



Flags representing the devolved nations of the UK – Northern Ireland, Scotland and Wales. Note that the flags are a contentious issue in Northern Ireland. Officially, the flag of Northern Ireland is the Union Flag, not the flag shown here.

You know what devolution is and how it differs from **federalism**. Although away sovereignty from the Westminster Parliament, that hasn't stopped the subject of heated debate, and of a great deal of confusion, partly because it is linked with talk of national independence. Some warned that devolution is a step towards independence. You should know what's actually happened, and you shouldn't make the mistake of making statements about devolution. In this section, we're not going to attempt an analysis, but concentrate on getting the main points right.

1. The Constitution, Parliament and Devolution in Scotland

A Parliament for Scotland

Scotland received the most extensive devolution settlement when the devolved parliament was established by the New Labour government. A referendum on the creation of a Scottish Parliament was held in 1979, and approved by a conclusive 74% of voters. This led to the first Scottish Parliament in 1999, but a unionist majority in the additional member electoral system meant the election, although 47 of 56 seats were short of the 65 needed for a majority, led to a coalition with the fourth-placed Liberal Democrats. This formation would last until the 2003 elections, with the coalition's second term proving more stable. The following set of elections in 2007 when the Scottish National Party – ultra-nationalist – wanted an independent Scotland, free of control from Westminster – became the largest party. The SNP formed a minority administration under the leadership of First Minister Alex Salmond.

The West Lothian Question and English Votes for English Laws (EVEL)

Following the establishment of the Scottish Parliament, many Conservative MPs cannot vote on matters decided in the Scottish Parliament, and yet Scottish MPs can vote in the House of Commons on matters which may only relate to England. This is the West Lothian Question. Many felt this was unfair or even undemocratic, and various solutions were put forward. You may like to suggest why Conservative MPs in particular were concerned about this issue and what ideas they may have put forward to solve it.

Concern over the West Lothian Question took on a renewed vigour following the 2014 Independence referendum. The result in 2014. In an effort to persuade more voters to vote for independence, the UK parties promised increased devolved powers for the Scottish Parliament. There would be more issues where the House of Commons would legislate. Immediately following the referendum result, David Cameron announced a Cabinet committee to see how best to introduce English votes for English laws. The Conservative election manifesto promised to bring in the measure. In October 2015, the Government won a vote which introduced new standing orders for the procedure.

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In future, the Speaker would judge which bills or parts of bills related to just Wales. In these cases, between the second and third readings an English committee of MPs will consider the bill. Membership of the committee will be split between each party has from English constituencies. This allows English MPs to veto a bill at law midway through the legislative process.

Many MPs were critical of this system, however it was not just the SNP that was critical. An English MP had been created – those who can take part in all the business of Parliament. Furthermore, Many Conservative MPs are not satisfied because it is possible that a bill for England only and supported by the majority of English MPs can be defeated by non-English MPs. This can be done at any stage in the process. The House of Commons is allowed to vote. During the coronavirus pandemic crisis the House of Commons was suspended to allow for a quicker passage of legislation. The House of Commons voted to abandon the procedures permanently in July 2021. As EVEL has not been used, its scrapping has simply restored the problem which previously existed.

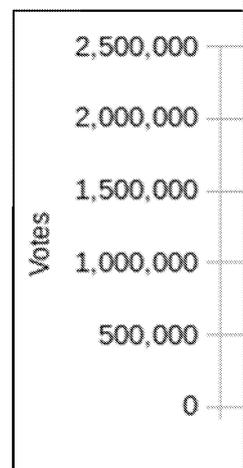
The 2014 Scottish Independence Referendum

In 2014, the Scottish National Party led a campaign for 'yes' in a referendum on Scotland's independence from the United Kingdom. This is significant because it raised questions about the nature of devolution in the UK. Does it encourage further devolution, or does it instead contribute to the disunity of Great Britain and the Republic of Ireland? The constitution remains a power reserved by Westminster. The referendum was handed to Scotland to hold this referendum after a number of Acts of Parliament. The referendum gave further powers over tax variance and legislation.

The SNP argued that these powers were best for dealing with Scotland's issues, and that these should be extended to give Scotland full social and economic authority over Scotland. All the other major parties campaigned for Scotland to remain in the UK, except for the Scottish Greens, who backed independence. The results were of significance. As you are probably aware, 55% of Scots voted 'no' and 45% 'yes'.

Although the result was clear, support for independence was much higher than expected, and the government had been concerned that it might lose the vote. Prime Minister David Cameron had written a resignation speech for such a scenario.

Despite the 'yes' vote, the fact remains that a number of people did vote for independence, particularly those in poorer areas. As we will see, ultimately the result did not stop the continued electoral success of the SNP, and the UK's decision to leave the EU remains an active debate.



Graph showing Scottish Independence Referendum Results

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The Powers of the Scottish Parliament

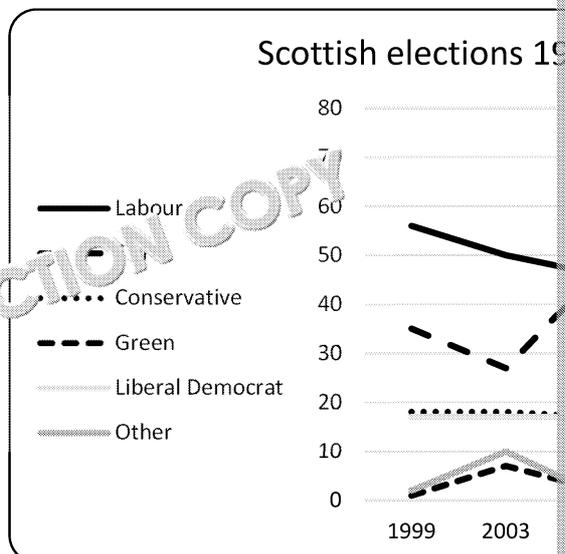
The Scottish Parliament enjoys the most significant political powers of the devolved bodies. This is mainly because it enjoys many primary legislative powers – it can make laws in certain areas and doesn't have to have authority from the UK Parliament in Westminster in certain areas and doesn't have to have authority from the UK Parliament. It is the greatest tax authority of any devolved body too. The **Scotland Act 2016** gave more powers to the Scottish Parliament. For the first time, the Scottish government has the power to raise more than half the money that it spends. It was also granted the power to set the thresholds for income tax. This is significant because financial authority is a core part of the functioning of Parliament and this is handed directly over from Westminster.

Tax and Revenue Powers of Scotland

1. Since 1999, the Scottish Parliament has been able to vary income tax by up to 3p. It has also been responsible for collecting business rates and council tax but these, however, come from the block grant sent from the Treasury in London.
2. Since 2015, Scotland has levied 10p of the 20p standard rate of income tax. It can alter this either way by 3p, meaning the Scottish Assembly can set the rate anywhere between 7p to 13p in the pound. It has also become responsible for collecting building tax (formerly stamp duty).
3. Under the Scotland Act 2016, the parliament has devolved powers to vary the basic rate tax band, together with some flexibility to adjust tax rates within each band. It also has given the right to levy its own air passenger duty and keep 50% of VAT on alcohol.

The Scottish Parliament also has a range of **legislative powers** that have been devolved to it. It has primary legislative powers over its health, education, social services, and abortion policy. It also controls its own environmental policy, including agriculture, forestry, and transport. The Scottish Parliament has authority over primary and secondary education, university education, and the justice system over its own justice system, police and elections – core powers.

There are some powers kept by Westminster and these are referred to as 'reserved powers'. The Scotland Act 1998 outlined these restrictions on the Scottish Parliament, and they have included the UK constitution, defence and security, foreign policy, immigration, and aspects of social security. What is important to remember here is that devolution has not meant that parliamentary sovereignty has been lost by Westminster. It is more accurate to say that a handful of powers have been handed to Scotland, but on UK-related matters, Westminster retains the chief decision-making power. However, Scotland is increasingly a more stable and extensive devolution. This is highlighted by the fact that Westminster can't intervene in Scottish matters without consent.

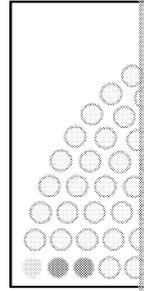


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Scottish Elections: 2011

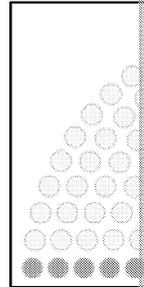
The 2011 election was the fourth held to elect the Scottish Parliament but was the first to deliver a majority government. This was seen as a major triumph for the SNP, as the additional member electoral system is supposed to make majority governments virtually impossible. Alex Salmond, the SNP leader, described the result as 'a victory for a society and a nation'. The Labour Party suffered a major blow, and some commentators described the result as their worst performance in Scotland over 80 years. They lost many of their constituency seats, but remained the second largest party only because they received 22 regional list seats. The Conservatives did badly, ending up with just five seats after winning 17 in 2007.



The SNP's overall majority of four seats meant they were in a position to put their independence commitment, and organise an independence referendum. The UK government gave its consent for the referendum on the basis of this electoral result.

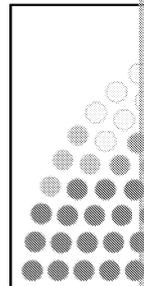
Scottish Elections: 2016

The SNP, now led by Nicola Sturgeon, remained the largest party but was down a total of six seats to 63 so lost its overall majority. Labour continued its downward slide, losing more seats and ending up with just 24 MSPs. The Conservatives made a significant advance, moving up from 15 to 31 representatives and becoming the main opposition to the SNP. Their leader, Ruth Davidson, was praised as having led an effective campaign, and a number of commentators suggested she could have had a real influence on both Scottish and Conservative politics. She resigned from the position in 2019, citing personal reasons and opposition to Brexit. Her successor, Douglas Ross, increased the Conservative MSPs from two to six.



Scottish Elections: 2021

After 15 years governing Scotland, the SNP once again overwhelmingly won the 2021 Scottish elections. They won 64 seats – just one short of a majority – and continued on as a minority administration. The Conservative Party remained the biggest party of opposition, remaining on 31 seats, while the diminished Scottish Labour continued to go backwards, winning just 22 seats.



The Scottish Greens had their best result ever, winning 8 seats in Parliament. Although the SNP had failed to achieve a majority, there was still a combined majority for the SNP and the Greens. In August 2021, the Scottish Government announced a power-sharing agreement with the Greens. Although not an official coalition, the leaders of the Scottish government, Nicola Sturgeon and Humza Yousaf, became joint senior ministers, and the Greens have pledged to support the government. The agreement included a commitment to holding a second referendum on Scottish independence. A referendum was subsequently announced by Sturgeon, who set a date of 2023. The SNP and Greens argue that Scotland voted to remain in the UK on the basis of which they no longer enjoy after Brexit. Scotland had voted to remain in the UK, but the Scottish government are opposed to a second referendum, making it unclear whether a referendum will be held.

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2. The Constitution, Parliament and Devolution in Wales

Creation of the Welsh Assembly

The Welsh Assembly, as it was originally known, was first established in 1999. The devolution settlement was decided by a 1997 referendum; however, unlike the Scottish referendum, it was a close – very close. 50.3% of voters backed the creation of the assembly, compared to 49.7% in favour of no devolution. Less than 7,000 votes separated the two sides.

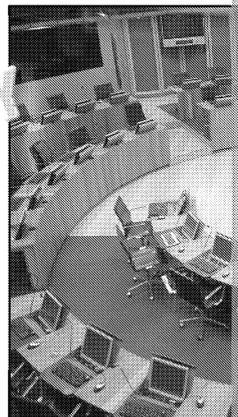
The Welsh Assembly was initially much less powerful than the Scottish Parliament, with varying powers. The first election in 1999 was won by the Labour Party, with 20 seats, but was short of the 30 needed for a majority. The Welsh nationalist party Plaid Cymru won 12 seats, and the Conservative and Liberal Democrats were placed a distant third with 7 seats. Labour formed a governing coalition with the Liberal Democrats for the next four years.

Labour gained two further seats in the 2003 Welsh election, bringing them to 22 seats, but still a minority. They chose to govern alone as a minority administration. Dropping to 18 seats in the 2007 election, Labour and Plaid Cymru formed a coalition – the only occasion in which a coalition has governed Wales.

The Richard Commission

In 2004, the Richard Commission reported after nearly two years of deliberation and made the following suggestions for the Welsh Assembly. The Labour Government promised to look into these:

1. The assembly should be increased in size to 80 members by 2011.
2. The assembly should have the right to make many of the types of laws allowed to the Scottish Parliament.
3. Members should be elected by the STV system of voting.
4. The assembly should be allowed tax-varying powers.
5. Committees should be strengthened to enable better scrutiny of the executive.



The Westminster Parliament passed the **Government of Wales Act** in July 2006, which was implemented in 2007. Basically, this Act allowed parts of the assembly to be treated as a parliament, allowing the assembly government to have a separate part of, but not a separate, National Assembly. The assembly would be able to pass primary laws, but the UK Parliament retains the right to veto any law. The legislation was not seen as a concession; it seemed to be Parliament's intention to maintain its sovereignty and control over the country. The possibility of more power being granted through a referendum was not acted upon.

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The Welsh Devolution Referendum 2011

Following the 2007 Welsh Assembly Election, Labour and Plaid Cymru formed a coalition government and set in motion the process to call a referendum which could lead to Wales being granted its own law-making powers.

In February 2010, all the parties in the assembly supported a proposal asking the UK government (at the time it was Labour's last term) to arrange the legal framework for the referendum to be organised. Once the provision was made, it was left to the Conservative / Liberal Democrat government to give the final approval.

The referendum was held on 3rd March 2011 and the question asked was 'Do you want Wales to make laws on all matters in the 20 subject areas it has power for?' On a turnout of 72.5%, 'Yes' 63.49% and 'No' 36.51%.

Up until this point the assembly was subject to the Government of Wales Act 2007 which allowed it law-making powers but only in some of the areas it was responsible for. The UK Parliament had the power of veto. Prior to this, the Government of Wales Act 1998, before devolution, only allowed the assembly the right to pass secondary legislation. The UK Westminster Parliament granted permission.

Creation of the Senedd

The Wales Act 2017 made a number of important amendments to the Welsh Government. Importantly, it gave the Welsh legislature the ability to devolve powers from the UK Parliament for powers. This is known as the 'reserved powers' model of devolution. It gave a range of new powers of primary legislation, and greater fiscal powers.

Finally, the legislation was given powers to rename the Welsh Assembly in a referendum. In 2020, the Welsh Assembly was renamed the Senedd, Welsh Parliament.

The Senedd Cymru (Members and Elections) Act 2024 delivers on some of the recommendations of the Richard Commission. From the 2026 election, the Senedd will expand from 30 members across 16 multi-member constituencies. Each constituency will return six members with proportional representation under the D'Hondt method. This replaces the current system, which combined first-past-the-post and regional lists.

The Powers of the Senedd

The Senedd now enjoys similar powers to Scotland. The Government of Wales Act 2017 gave the first time Wales had primacy over legislation, along with Scotland. It allows the Senedd to pass laws, though these are not as extensive as with Scotland can, however, still varies. The Senedd has authority to control other specific taxes, such as landfill tax. The Senedd has powers in almost all the areas that the Scottish Parliament does. This includes health, social services, environment, agriculture and education.

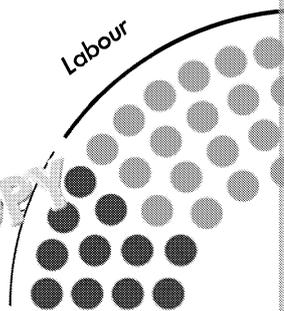
The only significant area where the Scottish Parliament has power that the Senedd does not is the justice system. There are fewer controversies and concerns about the devolution of powers to Wales than that given to Scotland, even though the quantity of power is no less. At least in some part, due to the fact that Wales has proved by popular support to remain part of the United Kingdom and has no desire for independence. Devolution for Wales

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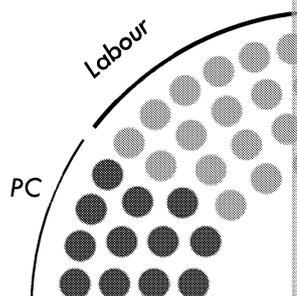
Welsh elections: 2011

The election result allowed Labour to run the government on its own. Since 2007, it had formed a coalition with Plaid Cymru. The Conservatives came second this time and won more seats than they did in the previous three assembly elections while Plaid Cymru dropped to the lowest total it has had. In its manifesto it wanted to see further powers transferred to Wales, particularly in criminal justice and health care.



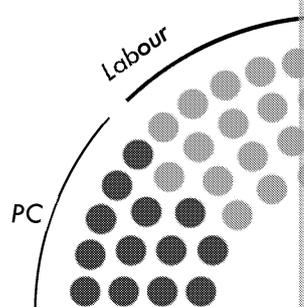
Welsh elections: 2016

The Labour Party retained its dominance of the Welsh Assembly by taking 29 of the 60 seats, which was down just one from 2011. The Conservatives finished with 11, a reduction of three, while Plaid Cymru increased its number of representatives from 11 to 12. UKIP made the most progress in the Welsh Assembly by getting representation for the first time. It took seven of the top-up list seats and immediately caused an upset within its own ranks when members elected the ex-Conservative MP and minister Neil Hamilton to the assembly at the expense of the UKIP Welsh leader. The Liberal Democrats saw their representation fall from five to just one.



Welsh elections: 2021

The 2021 election saw Labour match their best ever performance, picking up 30 seats – just one short of a majority. Both the Conservatives and Plaid Cymru made small gains, while the Liberal Democrats retained their single representative. UKIP failed to re-elect any members of the Senedd. Labour formed a minority administration as a result, with First Minister Mark Drakeford at the helm.



In November 2021, Labour and Plaid Cymru signed a cooperation agreement with shared goals. Though not a coalition, it allowed Plaid advisers to work within government initiatives, including free school meals, Senedd reform, and National Care Service homes. The agreement marked a novel approach to cross-party collaboration. In May 2024 following concerns over financial conduct, but several major bills were delivered or progressed.

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3. The Constitution, Parliament and Devolution in Northern Ireland

The Peace Process in Northern Ireland

The politics of Northern Ireland is complicated and sensitive. While the full history of Ireland goes back several centuries, we're concerned here with the modern period.

Northern Ireland was first established in 1921 when the island of Ireland was divided into two parts. The southern part of the island became the Republic of Ireland, a sovereign country, while the northern part remained part of the United Kingdom. Within Northern Ireland, there are two main communities: the **Ulster Unionists**, who are British and want to remain part of the United Kingdom, and the **Irish Nationalists**, who are Irish and want to be reunited with the Republic of Ireland. In the 1960s, tensions between these two groups broke out into violent conflict, particularly between 1968 and 1998, a period known as **The Troubles**. Prior to 1972, Northern Ireland had its own government, which was dominated by unionist politicians. However, as The Troubles became more severe, the British government suspended the Northern Ireland government and Northern Ireland became subject to direct rule from Westminster.

In the 1990s, the British and Irish governments sought to bring about a political settlement to end the violence. Negotiations between governments, community representatives and the public were fraught with difficulty, but eventually they brought about what is known as the **Good Friday Agreement**, or alternatively the **Belfast Agreement**. This agreement was supported in a referendum by 71% of Northern Ireland's voters, on an 81% turnout, giving it democratic legitimacy.

The agreement formally recognised that:

1. The majority of people in Northern Ireland want to remain part of the United Kingdom.
2. A large number of people in Northern Ireland want to be part of the Republic of Ireland.
3. If, in the future, it appears that a majority of people in Northern Ireland might want to be part of the Republic of Ireland, then a referendum should be held.

The agreement created a range of new devolved institutions and processes. Among these, it created the **Northern Ireland Assembly**, which is elected on the basis of the single transferable vote in multi-member constituencies. Those elected are known as **Members of the Legislative Assembly** (MLAs). In terms of the executive, it created a unique system of power sharing for governance. In Northern Ireland, coalition governments are mandatory. The executive is shared between the two largest parties represented. As such, an election-winning party is entitled to fill the role of **First Minister**, while the second largest party, which is represented by the most MLAs from the opposite community designation is entitled to fill the role of **Deputy First Minister**. Despite their names, these roles have equal executive power. They are then shared between the parties. This system was put in place to ensure both communities are represented by Northern Ireland's devolved institutions.

If either of the two largest parties from each community designation withdraws from the coalition, then Northern Ireland's executive cannot function. This has become a frequent occurrence.

Northern Ireland's party system is very different from the rest of the UK's, but two parties that you should know are left-wing Irish nationalist Sinn Féin, and the right-wing British Unionist Party. In present-day Northern Ireland, these are the two main parties representing each community.



The position of the First Minister and Deputy First Minister of Northern Ireland, as of 2022.

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Powers of the Northern Ireland Assembly

Unlike Scotland and Wales, Northern Ireland does not share the same level of powers. Northern Ireland has not been given tax-varying powers. It does, however, have some of the primary legislative powers of the other two institutions. Northern Ireland has powers over health and social policy, the environment, including transport and agriculture, and has some levels and authority over police and elections. In the 1990s, there were traces of devolution to the Government of Ireland Act 1920 – reserved powers were outlined, stating that the assembly was forbidden from making laws in some areas including the actions of the army and war. Because of the special circumstances of Northern Ireland outlined in the 1998 Act, it followed the same path as Scotland and Wales in recent times.

Is Parliament Still in Control of Northern Ireland?

The Secretary of State for Northern Ireland retained the ability to take back control of Northern Ireland, and has done so repeatedly since the formation of the assembly. The first suspension between the unionist and nationalist parties having broken down. The first suspension was in 2000 and lasted for almost three months having been caused by general lack of agreement between the two sides.

A much longer suspension of the assembly began in October 2002, after unionist parties lost support for the assembly due to their suspicions that nationalist party Sinn Féin were linked to the Irish Republican Army (IRA). Despite this, new elections were held in 2003, with the Unionist Party achieving the largest vote. Unionist parties continued to refuse to return to the assembly until decommissioning of arms had taken place more fully, and successfully argued that Northern Ireland looked as far away as ever. The stalemate continued for over four years until a monitoring commission reported that the IRA had virtually 'transformed' itself into a political party. Eventually a timetable was agreed which would lead back to an assembly and a power-sharing government was agreed upon by all parties. At the very last moment, both sides agreed to a power-sharing government. Power-sharing was agreed to, and the assembly was restored.

Although it had successfully completed two terms without suspension between 2007 and 2017, the Northern Ireland Assembly once again collapsed in January 2017, after the Renewable Energy Bill was introduced to Sinn Féin leader and Northern Ireland Deputy First Minister Martin McGuinness. This second suspension lasted until January 2020. During this period, Westminster passed the Northern Ireland Protocol, legalised abortion and same-sex marriage. Also, the Conservative Party won the 2019 general election in Westminster. This was the first time a Northern Ireland party had helped a party win a general election in British political history.

Though Northern Ireland's power-sharing institutions were restored in early 2022, the suspension ended in February 2022 when the Democratic Unionist Party (DUP) withdrew over the Northern Ireland Protocol's customs checks between Great Britain and Northern Ireland. The DUP returned to the executive or Assembly until those checks were removed, effectively ending the suspension of governance. Following the May 2022 assembly election, the stalemate persisted until a power-sharing government-DUP deal on 31st January 2024 – confirming no routine customs checks between Great Britain and Northern Ireland – the DUP returned. The executive was restored in February 2024.

As we can see, the situation in Northern Ireland is quite different from that in Scotland and Wales. The difficulty maintaining the functioning of the executive doesn't necessarily mean that the principle is wrong. The specifics of politics in Northern Ireland must be considered. The fact that power-sharing has been possible at all in Northern Ireland demonstrates that the process has been highly successful.

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Northern Ireland elections: 2011

The 2011 election result continued the trend seen in recent elections, with the DUP's influence on the unionist side, and Sinn Féin on the nationalist side. The DUP remained the same apart from the Alliance Party gaining one more ministerial seat and the Ulster Unionists. Peter Robinson and Martin McGuinness remained as first and second minister respectively. In January 2016 Arlene Foster replaced Peter Robinson as first minister. In August 2015 the UUP chose to leave the executive over the issue of a provisional IRA had not been totally put down despite Sinn Féin's claim that it no longer existed. The UUP withdrew their single minister from the executive because of the presence of Sinn Féin members. Again, this shows how deep mistrust still exists and threatens the stability of the devolved government.

Northern Ireland elections: 2016

The 2016 Assembly elections saw a largely unchanged picture, with unionists and nationalists down three seats. Sinn Féin and the DUP solidified their leadership in their communities, and for the first time no other parties formed the executive, with the DUP and Sinn Féin as the main two. Arlene Foster and Martin McGuinness resumed their roles as first and second minister; however, power sharing broke down in late 2016 due to the Renewable Heat Incentive scandal. After Foster refused to resign over the scandal, McGuinness stood down, triggering new elections.

Northern Ireland elections: 2017

The 2017 Assembly elections marked a dramatic shift in Northern Ireland's political landscape. The DUP lost 10 seats on their 2011 result, while the smaller Ulster Unionist Party lost 10 seats. Sinn Féin and the other nationalist party, the DUP, only lost one seat between them, thus that unionists no longer held a majority in the Assembly, for the first time in its history. Instead, unionists were outnumbered by nationalists by just a single seat – a profound implication for Northern Ireland's future. Power sharing had broken down and the election did not resume until January 2020, leaving the UK Parliament to govern Northern Ireland in the meantime.

Northern Ireland elections: 2022

The 2022 Northern Ireland Assembly election was historic: for the first time Sinn Féin – won the most seats. The DUP came second, with the cross-community vote result positioned Michelle O'Neill to become Northern Ireland's first nationalist first minister. However, the DUP refused to re-enter government due to post-Brexit trade arrangements, leaving the Assembly inactive for nearly two years. The deadlock ended in February 2024, after a restoration of power-sharing.

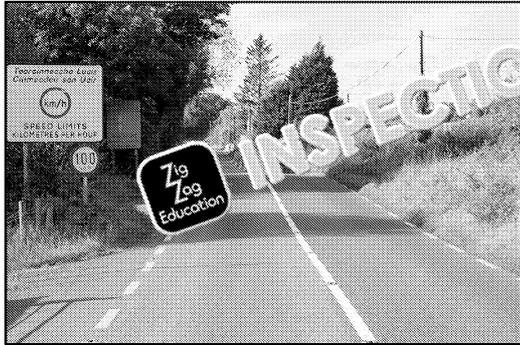
Party	Designation	Seats
Sinn Féin	Nationalist	27
Democratic Unionist Party	Unionist	25
Alliance Party	Other	17
Ulster Unionist Party	Unionist	9
Social Democratic Labour Party	Nationalist	8
Traditional Unionist Voice	Unionist	1
People Before Profit	Other	1
Independents	Unionist	2

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Northern Ireland after Brexit

Extracting Northern Ireland from the European Union has proven to be a controversial process. This is in large part because the peace process agreed heavily dependent on EU institutions, and based on the assumption that both would remain EU members.



A typically understated border crossing between Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland. The only indication of a national boundary is changing speed limit signs. A so-called 'soft border' like this is a key demand of the nationalist community.

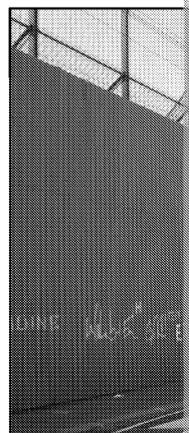
A key demand of nationalists in Northern Ireland would be free movement between Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland. This means that checks such as checkpoints, should not be implemented if supporters of Brexit were determined to maintain the EU's free movement area. After Brexit, the border between Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland is a fundamental problem. How can it be maintained, in order to ensure that the demand between the UK and EU is ended.

The solution agreed between the British government and European Union is free movements between Britain and Northern Ireland (for example, when goods travel from Liverpool to Belfast). This solution has ensured free movement remains a key demand of the nationalist community. However, it has also infuriated unionists. For Northern Ireland, the checks undermine their status as a part of the United Kingdom. Unionists want Northern Ireland to align their economic arrangements with the Republic of Ireland. Unionists believe the settlement will further demands for Irish reunification – particularly as the nationalist community is becoming more electorally successful than ever before.

As a result, the Democratic Unionist Party – unionism's main political force in Northern Ireland – would have to govern until post-Brexit arrangements were changed. The Northern Ireland Protocol represented a serious threat to Northern Ireland's status as part of the UK. Without their participation, Northern Ireland's devolved institutions were suspended for two years.

That stalemate ended in early 2024, when a new agreement with the UK government was reached, including legal guarantees around Northern Ireland's place in the UK. The agreement was signed in February 2024, and Sinn Féin's Michelle O'Neill was appointed as the first nationalist first minister. The crisis highlighted the complexity of Northern Irish politics, where even trade arrangements carry constitutional weight. It also showed why constitutional change in the UK is often so difficult. Brexit required a reassessment of arrangements by members of the EU – none more important than those underpinning the Good Friday Agreement.

The future of Northern Ireland's constitutional status remains uncertain. With nationalist parties gaining ground and Sinn Féin now leading the executive, the prospect of a future 'border poll' on Irish reunification has become more visible. Though not imminent, such a vote would raise major constitutional questions for the UK.



A 'peace line' in Belfast, Northern Ireland, and are a result of the circumstances of Northern Ireland.

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1.4 Debates on Further Reform

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Understand the arguments for and against the codification of devolution
- ✓ Understand the arguments for and against the extent that constitutional reform has been significant
- ✓ Understand the arguments for and against an extension of constitutional reform
- ✓ Understand the arguments for and against the codification of the UK Constitution

Key Questions

1. Should devolution be extended in the UK?

This chapter will assess the extent to which devolution should be extended by analysing how successful devolution has been so far, so this chapter will build on your knowledge on devolution so far. This will be alongside a return to the central government, the problems that it has caused, and other limitations to consider when devolving power from Westminster.

2. Should constitutional reforms since 1997 be taken further?

This chapter will also draw on all of your knowledge of the various reforms that have taken place between 1997 and 2017, assessing the arguments in favour of whether they have been significant. It will study each area of reform in detail. We will discuss whether constitutional reforms should be continued or whether they should be stopped.

3. Should the UK adopt a written constitution?

This chapter will help you evaluate the nature of the UK Constitution. This will include what you know about the features of the constitution. We will discuss the disadvantages of the UK not having a fully written constitution, in some ways similar to the constitution in the USA. By drawing on examples from each, you should be able to argue for and against codification in the UK by the end of this chapter.

Talking point

These questions will prepare you for your exam. They are designed to help you think about the issues in more detail.

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A Quick Recap

So, throughout this course companion we have discussed a lot of specific areas of the constitution. The nature and sources of the constitution have been shown to be uncodified. We have also been over in detail all of the reforms to the constitution and put them in context by assessing their significance. Devolution has arguably brought about a solid change to the constitution in recent times, and the shifting of power away from Westminster to devolved bodies is something you should be familiar with by now.

All of these areas raise further questions, however. There are benefits and limitations to the current arrangements and arguments and be able to use them going into an extended discussion in the exam, given the devolution that has occurred in the last 20 years. Have constitutional reforms since 1997 been? Should these reforms be developed further? Should the constitution be reformed so that it is written into a single document? Should there be a written constitution? Should there be a codified constitution? This chapter will help you to answer each of these questions.

Should Devolution be Extended in the UK?

Devolution has been continuing to extend since 1997. While there are many arguments that suggest that this has been a good thing, critics of devolution suggest that it has been a failure and tends to favour MPs of devolved bodies such as the Scottish Parliament, the Welsh Senedd and Northern Ireland Assembly. For this we must return to the West Lothian Question.

The West Lothian Question

We have mostly discussed the West Lothian Question in relation to the power of the Scottish Parliament because, as you will remember, it was first asked in 1977 with regard to the power of the Scottish Parliament. This is becoming a bigger question in terms of devolution in general. Indeed, it is a bigger problem. The 2014 independence referendum is still fresh in the memory, and Scottish Conservative leaders have sought to bring the issue back to the forefront, as Scotland unilaterally left the European Union. There is also the issue that Scottish Conservatives played a key role in being able to form a minority after the 2017 general election. The Conservative Party lost to Labour in England and Wales, so the 13 Scottish Conservative MPs provided support for Labour to form a confidence and supply government. Why should these Scottish MPs support Labour who will govern England? The same must be asked of DUP members of government who support the Conservatives. This is the first time that it can really be considered that the West Lothian Question now be brought into the West Lothian Question. As Wales continues to be held in a state resembling those that Scotland has, more and more the West Lothian Question must be addressed. The most common diagnosis for the West Lothian Question should be an English Parliament separate from Westminster.



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English Votes for English Laws

In 2015, David Cameron took the first step to tackle the issue that had been a long-standing problem of devolution. This was the introduction of English privilege for MPs on English matters in Parliament. Under EVEL, English-only matters must have a majority of English MPs in order for it to become law, in order to limit the power of non-English MPs. To increase the power of these MPs, critics argue that the current reform has failed to address the Question. Since EVEL has since been abandoned, the question of whether to introduce English-only legislation in Parliament remains. Supporters of EVEL argue that it will provide an institution for England, similar to the Welsh Assembly and Northern Ireland Assembly, which deal specifically with their respective regions. English Parliament, if introduced, would be separate with central government work alongside it in a similar way to these institutions. Do you think this is a good idea? What is the West Lothian Question?

Problems with Devolution

1. Devolution risks the disintegration of the UK and the end of unified government. This has been highlighted by the 2014 Scottish independence referendum. Although what resulted was a 'no' vote, over 40% of the votes resulted in 'yes'. Areas such as Glasgow voted for independence. To carry on with devolution policy would only encourage opinions shifting away from a United Kingdom.
2. It challenges the sovereignty of the UK Parliament. Parliamentary sovereignty is a pillar of the UK constitution and any threat to it therefore threatens the constitution. As devolution challenges this, power is inherently handed to devolved governments. This is problematic as power is inherently handed to devolved governments, which is harmful to the principles that guarantee British Parliamentary sovereignty. The Scotland Act 2016, which gave Scotland tax-varying powers as well as other powers in areas, including social welfare benefits.
3. There is little public desire to see devolution extend to England. This is supported by the fact that Scotland and Wales were both made devolved powers on the basis of a democratic vote. For example, the 'no' vote against independence was almost 11% higher than the 'yes' vote. In combined authority elections also supports this – in 2017, over 50% of voters did not turn out to vote. An English Parliament would not enhance democracy.
4. It will cause conflict between devolved government and central government. This is particularly important with regard to the proposed creation of an English Parliament. The current system carries out its roles effectively and has provided for all parts of the UK. If there is an English devolved parliament, it will only complicate their work.
5. The cost to the UK taxpayer will be unfairly financed. This has already been highlighted by the fact that powers handed to Scotland and Wales. Given that the United Kingdom is a unitary state, it is grossly undemocratic and unfair to provide tax relief to certain members of the UK.
6. The services that are provided in the UK will become patchy and uncoordinated. This is due to the differences between Westminster, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and the proposed English Parliament. It is difficult to distinguish these differences for ordinary citizens, and this is a major problem with extended devolution.



A picture of a member of the UK Parliament.

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7. There are major problems when the party in power at Westminster differs from the party in power in the devolved assemblies. Policy coordination is improbable given that the Labour Party is in power in Scotland, for instance. The Conservatives are in power in Westminster but have previously opposed the independence of Scotland, so there is obvious conflict of interest between the two governing parties.
8. There has been a failure to effectively introduce local government reform. The lack of progress with government reforms since 1997 shows this. The 'No' vote in the referendum and the subsequent election of the Scottish Assembly in 2004 meant that the UK government has pursued localism and decentralisation, both of which have cost a great deal of energy and have often not been adopted.

Argument for Devolution

1. The economy of the region will have distinctive features, best handled by local government. For example, economic output per head in Greater London was over £43,000 in 2010, compared with £18,000 in the poorest regions. Such a difference in wealth in different regions suggests that the government should act differently to benefit the most people.
2. Devolution addresses the special culture and history found in different regions. The UK Parliament, for example, has the devolved power of preserving national heritage. The government has verbally committed to protecting these from the cuts made by the current government.
3. The central government would be in charge of deciding the powers of the devolved governments, which ensures that devolution will not go too far and threaten the unity of the UK.
4. The West Lothian Question is not a major political issue in England. Most of the country's politics and economy is already dominated by England anyway, and devolution will not reduce this dominance more than anything else.
5. Some areas such as Scotland may already have their own distinctive features in terms of education, law, and religion.
6. Devolution takes the argument for independence away from nationalism and the influence of the media. This is emphasised by the success of the Wales referendum in 2011, where the population voted in favour of further devolved powers. This has meant that there is no desire in Wales for independence.
7. It increases the spread of democratic principles and local democracy. The current political system for ordinary citizens as MPs tend to be closer to them than local councillors, which is beneficial for increasing direct democracy.
8. Regionalism is beginning to have the desired effect of increasing access to the political system. The current government has been the most successful in introducing devolution to large geographical areas. The continuation of this will enhance democracy and increase the ability of citizens to access UK politics.

Talking point



Do you think a devolved English Parliament would be good?



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How Significant have Constitutional Reforms been since

Should We Criticise These Constitutional Reforms?

Criticisms that these reforms have been unhelpful for the unity of the political system for some time, and other widespread criticisms were that they lacked whole coherence. These criticisms have been applied to many of the reforms put forward by Conservative / Liberal Democrat and Conservative governments over the period. One criticism is that too little thought is given in many areas to the knock-on effects or how they fit into the whole. This also explains why so many proposals seem to be abandoned in the legislative process. There was little thought, for example, given to the effect of an unwritten constitution on the devolution settlement.



Positive Points

While many of these opinions have a basis, it is also true that the reforms do represent the most major constitutional changes for over a century. The establishment of a committee on constitutional reform, of the temporary inclusion of the Liberal Democrat in the Cabinet committee, and a Department for Constitutional Affairs (later for the Home Office) showed a commitment to the process. The programme of the 2005 Labour Government to settle the matter of the House of Lords, and a consideration of the position of Northern Ireland did receive devolved powers with new voting systems. Northern Ireland whose powers were greatly increased in 2006, and a Greater London Assembly referendum in several parts of the UK for local mayors, and even one for a mayor in the North East. The **Constitutional Reform Act (2005)** meant that a Supreme Court to remove the political power of some senior judges, the judicial powers of the House of Lords curtailed, the Human Rights Act and Freedom of Information Act have been strengthened, the rights of all hereditary peers in the House of Lords seem likely to be completely removed. There has been an extension of powers to the governments of Scotland and Wales, and a movement to give metropolitan areas outside London significant new powers. While these reforms have been introduced and a referendum in 2016 has led to the UK deciding to remain in the EU, if these reforms have lacked an overall plan, they have nevertheless represented a significant change in government attitudes to constitutional reform.

Case Study 1. New Labour Government and Modernisation, 1997–2010

New Labour had a mixed record over constitutional reform in an attempt to modernise its contents. They were primarily focused on modernising some of the principles of Parliament to make it more democratic. They were initially successful in doing this. The House of Lords Act 1999 saw over 600 hereditary peers in the House of Lords reduced to 92. This was seen as much more democratic as Lords could no longer be appointed based on their bloodline. The reform also balanced the party support in the chamber, which had been dominated by Conservatives. The Lords today are much more representative of the political ideologies in the UK. The next reforms that were proposed on House of Lords were the **House of Lords Reform Bill (2009)**. This was a landmark of constitutional reforms in the past 20 years. There were several other bills that were drafted on the powers of the House of Lords, but the two chambers disputed what the next stage was to be. Ultimately, none of these reforms was passed, and reforms to the chamber continue to stall.



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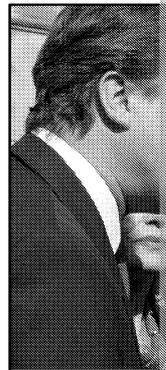


Similarly, reforms to the House of Commons were few and far between, and New Labour had proposed several reforms to the chamber in order to demystify it. Success was the introduction of a Backbench Business Committee, which has the power to ensure that MPs can represent their constituents during debate. However, there have been other reforms that could be considered successful. New Labour made amendments to the House of Commons Act 2001 that this has done little to hold the executive any better to account than it did.

Case Study 2. Coalition Government and Constitutional Reform 2010

Deputy Prime Minister Nick Clegg came into government in 2010 promising to reform British democracy in the spirit of the Great Reform Act of 1832. The Conservatives and Liberal Democrats agreed on a process to reform that could have led to a mainly elected House of Lords, a new House of Commons, changes to the ways political parties were funded and to the election of MPs in Parliament while ensuring the size of the electorate in each constituency. None of this happened, mainly due to arguments between the two coalition

partners. Reforms were achieved in other areas but they do not add up to what Nick Clegg promised in 2010. The Fixed Term Parliaments Act 2011 removed the prime minister's power to choose the date of the next general election, but it failed to achieve its aim and was ultimately repealed. The Succession to the Crown Act 2013 changes the rules on the succession to the throne by replacing male preference primogeniture with absolute primogeniture. The Electoral Registration and Administration Act 2013 speeds up the process in changing from household to individual registration. The Police Reform and Social Responsibility Act 2011 transferred control of police forces from police authorities to local police and crime commissioners. The first elections for police and crime commissioners were held in 2012 when the turnout was extremely low. The Welsh Assembly was given increased powers following a referendum held in 2011, and the Wales Act 2014 transferred some powers to the assembly. The Wales Act 2017 also authorised another referendum which allowed the assembly to vary its boundaries if the electorate vote for it. The Recall of MPs Act 2015 allows a petition to be signed if an MP is sentenced to a prison term or is suspended from the House of Commons. If the petition is signed by at least 10% of local voters, then the seat is declared vacant and a by-election is held. The recalled MP is allowed to stand in the by-election.



David Cameron
(right – Liberal Democrat
leader)

The failure to deliver on the headline reforms is likely to be what the Coalition government was criticised for. The commitment to give the electorate an opportunity to decide whether to change the electoral system used to elect the House of Commons was clearly a demand that the Conservatives supported the present system of FPTP. The Liberal Democrats felt they had to give the electorate a choice. The Liberal Democrats agreed to the reforms they wanted, such as redrawing the boundaries of constituencies and reducing the number of MPs. The Conservatives would only go so far by agreeing to a referendum but with the choice of whether being between AV and FPTP electoral systems. The Liberal Democrats have always favoured a PR system, preferably STV, but felt they had to give the electorate a choice. The Liberal Democrats had only a choice between two majority electoral systems. The referendum was held on 5 May 2011. The campaign was marked by the prominent role the Conservative Party played in opposing the AV system as 'costly, complex and supported by Clegg' with little attempt to highlight the benefits of the AV system or its democracy aspects. On a turnout of 42%, the electorate voted 68% to 32% not to change the electoral system.

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Part of the coalition agreement was to introduce proposals for a wholly or partly elected House of Commons on the basis of proportional representation by December 2010. In May 2011, Nick Clegg tabled a draft bill. Following further discussion over detail, the House of Commons introduced the bill into the House of Commons for its first reading in June 2012. The House of Lords, the Upper House of 450 members, with 360 being elected and 90 (including 12 bishops) being appointed on a non-party basis by an independent body. Members would have renewable terms, but there was no mention on the bill of a new system for election apart from the present system being used in the House of Commons. By August 2012 the bill had not passed, mainly because so many Conservative backbenchers were unwilling to support the bill. Labour Democrats were furious, claiming the Conservatives had broken their coalition agreement by not honouring the commitment to House of Lords reform. As a result, the Liberal Democrats withdrew their support to equalising the size of constituencies and cutting the number of MPs from 650 to 500, a measure the Conservatives were very keen to see.

Nick Clegg had no better luck in trying to reform party funding. In 2011, the Commission on Standards in Public Life recommended political parties should accept a large cap on donations. This committee was very critical of large donations were perceived as distorting the political process through buying influence. Despite the strength of the argument, Clegg could not get his Conservative coalition partners to accept large donations, nor would the Labour Party give way on receiving large donations.

Case Study 3. The Impact of Brexit

As we have already seen, Brexit poses massive constitutional questions for the UK. Leaving the European Union means abandoning a major aspect of present-day UK constitutional arrangements, essentially returning the UK to the situation that existed in 1972, before it became a member of the EU.

Unanswered questions remain regarding the impact of Brexit on individual freedoms. The Conservative Party sought to introduce a British Bill of Rights, which would give the government greater authority than the European Convention on Human Rights allowed. This would mean that countries like the UK would no longer enjoy the same freedoms to travel, work and live in the EU. The government has committed to maintaining freedom of movement.

One of the most significant constitutional consequences of Brexit has been its impact on devolution. The original devolution settlements for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland were underpinned by EU law, with provisions stating that devolved legislation was invalid if it conflicted with EU obligations. Following Brexit, these frameworks required adjustment – yet Westminster's efforts to centralise certain powers through legislation like the UK Internal Market Act 2020 have sparked considerable resistance from devolved governments.

Cooperation has remained limited, particularly given ongoing political divergence: Scotland and Northern Ireland voted to remain in the EU, and tensions over constitutional authority persist. Calls for a second Scottish independence referendum continue, while in Northern Ireland nationalist support has grown, fuelling demands for a new settlement.

Rather than resolving constitutional questions, Brexit has opened a new era of uncertainty with no clear end in sight.

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Should the UK Adopt a Codified Constitution?

Context

The codification of the UK Constitution has arguably already begun with the changes that have been taken place. We now have a clearer separation of powers with the creation of the Supreme Court. Some rights are written into UK law, partly resembling the American Bill of Rights. The UK Constitution remains uncodified, which can be seen by its several locations and some parts are still unwritten; for example, in common law. The arguments in favour of an alternative are associated normally with the wider debate surrounding the codification of the UK Constitution.

Arguments in favour of fully codifying the UK Constitution include:

- ✓ There would be more clarity on authorities acting unconstitutionally so that they can be challenged more easily. It is hard for ordinary citizens to know exactly what is and isn't allowed, and given that some points are unwritten norms that theoretically have no binding force, this ensures that politicians must comply with the constitution.
- ✓ A separation of powers would be set out in terms of its principles, and this would help prevent dictatorship by increasing the power of Parliament and the judiciary in a way that would help prevent the elective dictatorship that has been allowed to occur. It would also help define power balances.
- ✓ Governments will have to plan constitutional amendments more intensely. The amendments that have been taking place since 1997 have arguably been haphazard and have rarely been considered. Codification would make the constitution more difficult to amend so only those that are necessary would be allowed to be implemented.
- ✓ An entrenched bill of rights would go further in protecting the rights of citizens. It would mean that the protection of rights against the state cannot be compromised easily. This is particularly important given the events that occurred with the surveillance after 9/11.
- ✓ It would provide an opportunity to modernise the constitution and remove outdated principles with a fresh opportunity to assess all aspects of the constitution and remove unnecessary parts, including the appointment process of the House of Lords.
- ✓ The question of sovereignty would be answered better as it would be written into the constitution throughout. Reforms since 1997 have threatened the principle of parliamentary sovereignty by handing power to the population, the Supreme Court and the devolved governments.
- ✓ There would be more access to constitutional matters for citizens, increasing transparency. Citizens, for example, have a much better idea of the contents of their constitution, which also encourages political participation in general.

It is important to know and understand these arguments and, even better, to be able to apply your knowledge of the American Constitution to these points. You must be able to present both arguments that suggest that the UK Constitution should remain uncodified and those that suggest it should be codified.

- ✗ The constitution is too rigid in times of emergency when fast action is needed. The US Constitution, for example, has been amended only 27 times in its existence, which makes it outdated and impractical for times of sudden change.
- ✗ An unentrenched constitution can adapt to changing ideas and culture over time. Over the last hundred years that Britain has had a constitution, society has become a democracy with a Parliament in place of a monarch and has increased the liberties of citizens.

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- X Power would continue to be placed with those who have been elected, not judges. A separation of powers would give more political authority to the executive and therefore, threaten the representativeness of government, harming democracy.
- X The Human Rights Act is written into UK law so has all the advantages of rights protected by the Supreme Court and written into statute law, and it is, therefore, more flexible than rights would be in a codified constitution.
- X Governments can carry out their manifestos more easily because they have a majority. With bigger majorities, governments with clearer mandates can make any changes proposed before entering office without undemocratic restraints.
- X It would be difficult to decide who should write it and might place huge responsibilities on unelected authorities. For example, if a single government were charged with writing the constitution, how is it fair that their legacy over one term would outline UK government for hundreds of years to come?
- X Brexit has shown that our relationship with international bodies is constantly changing. There is no guarantee that what we decide to codify will always be the case.



EXAM TIP
 understand these arguments and be able to give examples.

Talking point



Which of these arguments for and against a codified constitution is the most important?



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