



Course Companion for A Level Edexcel

Component 2: UK Government

Prime Minister and the Executive

2026 Edition

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- Keir Starmer gives his Inheritance speech in the garden of 10 Downing Street, August 2024 by Simon Dawson, No 10 Downing Street

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Teacher's Introduction

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

It contains all of the relevant and significant information for the UK Prime Minister and the Executive module. The question 'Is the prime minister too powerful?' has been an important exam topic for many years, and there is no reason to think that the exams for the new specification will be much different.

This companion covers all of the key areas: the structure, roles and powers of the executive; the concept of ministerial responsibility; the powers of the prime minister and the cabinet; and the relative powers of the prime minister and the cabinet. Along with this, talking points and exam tips will be provided throughout.

This pack has been designed to be either worked through in order, or dipped in and out of to support your own lesson structures. Please use it in whichever way you prefer. The talking points, exam tips 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
- 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 Prime Minister and the Executive, this includes (but is not limited to) political developments since the 2017 general election, discussion relating to the outcome of the 2019 general election, 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 reflect developments such as the political context since the 2019 general election, the changing composition of cabinet, the increasing role of secondary legislation and the premiership of Boris Johnson.

Fourth edition, January 2026

A swathe of new examples and updates from the Truss, Sunak and Starmer governments, including resignations, new talking points, and a new case study of Keir Starmer's ability to control events and dictate policy.

Remember!

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

3.1 The Structure, Roles and Powers of

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Understand the structure of the three main sub-branches of the executive
- ✓ Understand the main roles of the executive, including with regard to legislation
- ✓ Understand the concept of prerogative powers.
- ✓ Be able to explain the different types of the prime minister and the cabinet



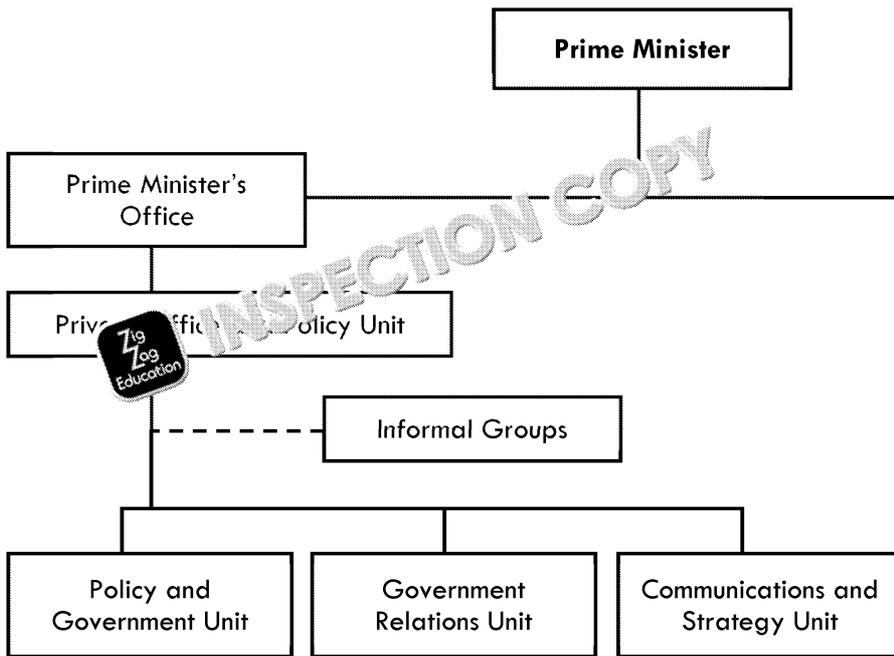
| | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Prime minister | The head of the government and the chair of the cabinet |
| Cabinet | The main decision-making body in government. It is composed of the prime minister – and other senior ministers who are called cabinet ministers. |
| Executive | A branch of government that is responsible for implementing policy. In UK politics, the executive inherently overlaps with the government, the legislature, as the executive is made up of government ministers. |
| Minister | A member of government, in either the House of Commons or the House of Lords, who has been given a specific policy area to focus on. |
| Government department | A unit of government, usually run by a minister, that is responsible for a specific area of political activity. |
| Secondary legislation | A law which passes through Parliament without going through the full process that primary legislation does. It is enacted or created by a government minister. |
| Royal prerogative | A range of powers that are available to ministers, handed down from the monarch. Parliamentary approval is not required. |
| Patronage | The power available to an individual to appoint someone to a position. |
| <i>Primus inter pares</i> | A Latin phrase meaning 'first among equals' representing the position within the cabinet. Different prime ministers have placed different emphasis on the 'first' or 'equal' aspects within their government. |
| Separation of powers | A system of government where the legislative, executive and judicial powers are kept apart and do not overlap. Neither has a direct influence on the other, i.e. neither has a direct influence on the other. |
| Fusion of powers | A system of government in which the executive, legislative and judicial powers are combined or fused together and are able to directly influence each other. |
| Peer | A member of the House of Lords. |

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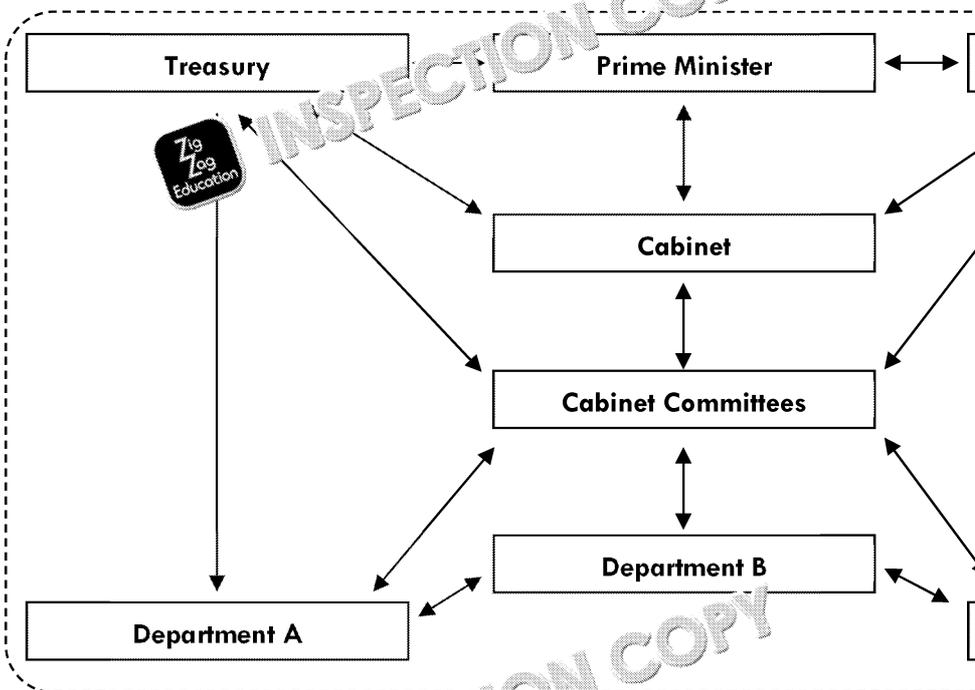
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The Structure of the Executive



The core executive is at the heart of the government, with the prime minister and departments interacting with all administrative areas of the executive. The institutions that exclusively work for them, such as the Prime Minister's Office. Though these may work with other institutions, with the diagram above it is clear as to how this begins to happen, they are seen as prime ministerial institutions.



Above is a diagram showing the structure of the executive and how different institutions interact with each other. Those involved in this are the Prime Minister's Office, the Treasury, and day-to-day workers in departments. Also, as the diagram suggests, different departments work with each other, along with cabinet committees, the Treasury. The lines may seem a bit confusing, but don't worry; they signify which institutions interact and what is important is that all government institutions work with each other to function effectively. It is useful to remember the ways that these groups interact to make sure that the government keeps working.

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The Main Roles of the Executive

It can be confusing to work out what the chief functions of the executive are. As discussed, they are inherently linked to the legislature. We will discuss them in more detail and outline how these are different roles from those of the legislature.

Proposing Legislation

The executive is charged with the task of putting forward bills to the Houses of Parliament. Although Parliament is the chief legislator, its role is mainly to discuss bills and scrutinise them to help them pass the legislative process. The actual task of suggesting areas where the law should be changed – initiating legislation – is down to the government. It is usually ministers who will introduce a bill to Parliament, and this will normally involve some of the promises made in the government's manifesto. Hundreds of bills may be progressing through Parliament at any one time.



Priti Patel introducing a bill.

Proposing the Budget



Rachel Reeves delivering the budget in October 2024.

The executive is also charged with proposing the plans of the government. Every year the Chancellor of the Exchequer will set out new financial plans in a budget presented to Parliament where the state of the country is discussed. At times when there has been a change of government there may be more than one budget in a year. In 2017 there was a budget in both March and June.

Though the legislature may discuss the financial policy of the government, it is the executive's own economic plan and very important piece of

legislation. Ministers, however, negotiate with the chancellor prior to the budget. The negotiations occur with departments as well as the whole of cabinet. The October budget by Rachel Reeves, highlights the various areas that the government must focus on in the budget. For example, changes were made to transport, housing, business taxes and personal taxes, including tax changes to inheritance of farmland. It is clear that proposing a budget is an important function of the executive.

Making Decisions on Policy

Ultimately, the executive is a decision-making body. The prime minister and the cabinet can be said to be the main bodies in performing this function – the prime minister, day-to-day members of the executive are responsible for implementation. The cabinet, chaired by the prime minister, meets regularly in a room specifically designed to hold meetings, where day-to-day policy is discussed and future plans are brought forward by specialist ministers. These plans must be within legislation and budget plans.



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Powers of the Executive

You may already be familiar with the term ‘**elective dictatorship**’. This describes politics where the executive has a number of institutional and structural advantages dominant over the legislature. This is particularly important in relation to political important policy-making powers that the executive enjoys that make it dominant.

Prerogative Powers

Prerogative powers are powers handed to ministers, including but not restricted to the prime minister, by the monarch. The royal prerogative was traditionally a group of exclusive powers held by the monarchy and exercised according to convention. However, a gradual shift of power from the monarchy to Parliament has seen most of these powers move to the executive. Though the royal family still possesses some prerogative powers, the limits on these are relatively firm. This is because they would be threatening democracy to challenge the government, which has a mandate, on any issue. For example, the prerogative power to give royal assent to legislation has not been denied since 1707, as it would present major constitutional difficulty and controversy.

A number of prerogative powers, though, are now firmly in the hands of the executive. More specifically, it is ministers who exclusively have these powers. Some examples of these powers include:

- making treaties
- the deployment and organisation of armed forces
- international relations and diplomacy
- granting pardons
- organising the civil service

The prime minister has a group of emergency powers, including the recommendation to dissolve Parliament.



Tony Blair (left) and George Bush (right) have been investigated for their reasons for deploying forces in Iraq.

You should not assume that prerogative powers are fixed and set in stone since they have moved from the royal family to the executive. There have been attempts to limit the power of the executive to wield these powers and to view them as undemocratic and unconstitutional. One of the powers has been the power to deploy armed forces. The power of the prime minister was brought into question by the controversy surrounding Tony Blair's decision to deploy forces in Iraq in 2003. Gordon Brown subsequently introduced a convention that Parliament should be consulted before deploying forces to new areas. The Syria case has shown how this power has shifted. David Cameron's decision to deploy forces in Syria was controversial.

There have been attempts to limit other ministerial prerogative powers in Parliament, including by a rebellion within the governing party, and did not succeed. There has been another vote on Syria. There has not been a situation where Parliament has prevented the executive from deploying armed forces since the convention was introduced.

There have been attempts to limit other ministerial prerogative powers in Parliament. The Fixed-term Parliaments Act 2011 sought to prevent the government from calling a general election without parliamentary approval from over two-thirds of MPs. This was introduced to limit the potential for the executive to abuse its power by calling elections tactically. However, general elections were still called in 2017 and 2019, leading to the bill being repealed and the prerogative power being restored.

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Control over Legislation

The executive holds a range of institutional advantages over the legislature and the legislative process. In general, the government can be said to have control over the legislative process. While it is Parliament's job to scrutinise and amend legislation, almost all government bills are passed by the executive – usually by the relevant government minister. Government bills are very rarely defeated. This gives the government considerable power as



Parliamentarians assemble in the House of Lords for what would have been Elizabeth II's final Queen's Speech in May 2022 (Charles stood in for her), in which the legislative agenda of Boris Johnson's ill-fated government for the following year was set out.

The executive also introduces bills. Bills are introduced, and debated, in the House of Commons. The government's control over the legislative process enables it to minimise scrutiny of its proposals.

The government's legislative agenda is set out in the King's or Queen's Speech, which is delivered during the State Opening of Parliament. Although the King's or Queen's Speech content will reflect

Secondary Legislation

Secondary legislation consists of changes to the law which can be made by the executive without the approval of Parliament, thus bypassing the legislative process through which primary legislation is passed. **Statutory Instruments** are the most common form of secondary legislation. They derive their authority from previous Acts of Parliament which permitted the executive to do so.

A good example of how Statutory Instruments are often used is the Misuse of Drugs Act 1971, which is an example of primary legislation – permits the executive to determine which substances are controlled and which are restricted. As such, when new dangerous substances emerge, the government can ban them by issuing Statutory Instruments, and does not need to consult Parliament.

The widespread use of secondary legislation during the coronavirus pandemic became particularly controversial. Due to the nature of the emergency, many unprecedented restrictions on the public's behaviour – such as the banning of social gatherings – were made using Statutory Instruments, and without parliamentary scrutiny. Some MPs argued that passing such drastic laws called for democratic oversight, and the extent of the changes being made unilaterally by the executive set a dangerous precedent. The Speaker of the House of Commons Lindsay Hoyle even criticised the government's use of secondary legislation during the crisis, telling the House that: 'The way in which the government exercised its powers to make secondary legislation during this crisis has been totally unsatisfactory.'

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Exclusive Roles and Powers of the Prime Minister

There are many ways in which the prime minister and the cabinet have similarities as is expected because they work together and the prime minister is part of the cabinet. There are many roles that the prime minister has that the cabinet does not, and the prime minister's roles are, therefore, different because they help to carry out this role.

Political Leadership



Theresa May was defeated in December 2017 over an amendment she opposed that gives Parliament a second vote before a final deal over Brexit. Eleven Conservative MPs rebelled and influenced the result.

The prime minister must organise the government. This involves strategic decisions including over high-priority or emergency responsibilities of the prime minister. The government will take when approaching a crisis.

A major factor in carrying out this role is that the party is aligned on most issues. This is what makes up a majority government. Recent elections have shown that this is important, though, is that the prime minister is the leader of the largest party in Parliament. This has become increasingly important so it is up to the prime minister to ensure that the government is effective and this will help to lead politically.

National Leadership

The prime minister is the leading national figure in the UK. This means that they are the main person that will be called upon whenever the country must be united. This is especially true in times of crisis. The prime minister must, therefore, be a good communicator with both the members of the government and the public because they will be relied on to maintain order and calm through their media communication in times of emergency or crisis.

A clear example of a prime minister performing this role would be the televised announcements conducted by Boris Johnson during the coronavirus pandemic, in which he discussed the restrictions being introduced to society, and the government's approach to managing the spread of the virus. In this role, Johnson acted both as the spokesperson for the government and as a figure of national leadership. During times of emergency such as these, it is common for the government and the prime minister to receive popularity boosts in opinion polls – though this is not always guaranteed.



Boris Johnson is an example of a prime minister performing this role.

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Talk Point

Do you think the prime minister's exclusive roles make them like a leader?

Government Appointment

The prime minister has the power to appoint and dismiss government ministers. This power can be used to determine the nature and the agenda of the government. The prime ministerial power to appoint and dismiss is relevant – it means that inherently the prime minister is more powerful than



Boris Johnson was regarded as having appointed Nadine Dorries to cabinet due to her personal loyalty to him.

This could suggest that that the prime minister chooses a cabinet that mirrors their own strengths and weaknesses. Prime ministers must give factors when selecting ministers: loyalty to themselves; creating a balance of relevant experience and expertise; and demographic representation for many instances in which these factors are not and this has cost prime ministers

give enough consideration to less right-wing factions in her party in the Cameron tenure. Theresa May was criticised for appointing MPs who were not loyal to her. Boris Johnson received scrutiny for not balancing party opinion in his appointment of

Chairing the Cabinet

As well as the appointment of government ministers, chairing the prime minister over the rest of the executive, the PM is also in a particularly advantageous position by chairing the cabinet. This means that they lead cabinet meetings. This provides an opportunity for ministers to set the government's agenda, as they have the chance to shape the agenda at cabinet meetings and can decide which viewpoint will be looked upon more favorably. The cabinet can help ensure that issues that come to the cabinet are given priority. The PM has great loyalty in achieving what they have set out. Theresa May set up committees after her first cabinet meeting. For all of these reasons, being the prime minister is an important role of the prime minister.

Leading the Executive

Above all, the prime minister must direct and manage their branch of government and help it to function effectively as the executive branch. This links to some of what we have already discussed, namely, that the prime minister has authority over the cabinet. The prime minister is also the head of the civil service and must, therefore, manage all civil servants accessible to the executive. The most important of these are those who work in the **Prime Minister's Office**. This refers to all of the civil servants and advisers based at 10 Downing Street, who provide advice to the prime minister on whatever they demand. Prime ministers appoint senior advisers within Number 10.

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Prerogative Powers

The prime minister has certain powers that have been passed down by the monarch, but as discussed, this is the case for all of the executive, including the cabinet, but some are specific to the prime minister. The most significant of these are **patronage** and **honours**. The prime minister has the authority to appoint life peers to the House of Lords. David Cameron saw the appointment of 13 Conservative peers just before he left office.

Other prerogative powers of the prime minister include the deployment of the armed forces, which is exercised by Tony Blair in a way that is now more limited due to a convention which saw the introduction of a parliamentary vote on such matters, which has been used since. The prime minister's prerogative powers are generally weakening, they are not all available to the prime minister.

Representing the UK Internationally



Ronald Reagan and Margaret Thatcher, 1984.

The prime minister is the chief figure who represents the UK and is responsible for diplomacy with other countries internationally. The most visible examples of this role are with Margaret Thatcher and Tony Blair with US presidents. Thatcher built a new relationship between the UK and the USA because of her close relationship with Ronald Reagan, and Blair sought to continue this by building rapport and friendship with George W. Bush.

In some cases the prime minister may take a lead role on international affairs. Sunak appointed former PM David Cameron as Foreign Secretary; while Starmer's approach to international issues, Cameron became the government's leading international spokesman. Starmer's approach to international relations represents a return to the traditional prime ministerial role. Starmer's approach has been to bridge the divides between the USA and the UK. Starmer's approach has been to bridge the divides between the USA and the UK, 'special relationship' and supporting European allies.

Exclusive Roles and Powers of the Cabinet

Some Important Facts about the Cabinet

It meets once a week, while Parliament is sitting – 30 or 40 times a year. Some members are more important than others. The Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Foreign Secretary and the Home Secretary are the three most important members of the cabinet, apart from the prime minister. The cabinet meets in full cabinet. It is there mainly to give approval, resolve disagreements, legalise government decisions, debate issues and to stand as a symbol for executive decisions that all agree on.

What is the Role of the Cabinet?

The **cabinet system** still remains at the heart of the UK system of government. By the collective decision-making that is supposed to take place to agree on government policy, the prime minister as *primus inter pares*, meaning 'first among equals'. One of the principal roles of the cabinet is the right to select the few (usually about 20) who will form his or her cabinet. These are known as **Secretaries of State**, and will head government departments. Other members may be there because of another role such as the Cabinet Secretary.

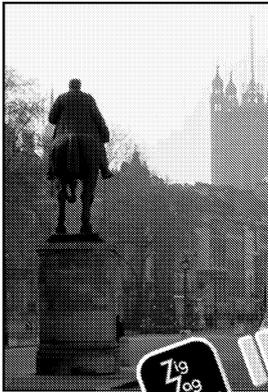
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Not all cabinet members, therefore, are Members of the House of Commons. made in cabinet committees, and these decisions have the same status as full prime minister who decides on the committees, their composition and the agenda. Sometimes cabinets will be reorganised to make them more efficient, as happened when responsibilities for local government and transport were separated, or in June 2001 when responsibility for constitutional affairs was created within the cabinet. In 2003 a Department for Justice.

One of the issues today is that prime ministers tend to sideline their cabinets preferring to rely on personal advisers or on informal meetings with a few members of the cabinet. The work of the civil service serving the cabinet is coordinated by the civil servants in the Cabinet Office. The Prime Minister will also appoint a Secretary to ensure the work of the Cabinet Office ties in with government policy. Blair's Cabinet met for 30 minutes, just once a week and members of Brown's Cabinet were known for insufficient discussion and consultation. We should remember that the cabinet has collective power when it is minded to, as more recent prime ministers have done.

Where are the Cabinet Decisions Made?



Whitehall, London, is the traditional home of the civil service and most government departments.

The answer is usually in **cabinet committees**. The **committees** (e.g. Economic Affairs, Local Government, etc.) deal with particular issues when needed. The latter deal with particular issues when needed in an important industrial dispute or national emergency. Cabinet committees have the same status as a cabinet decision. The full cabinet meets when there is a major agreement. It is the work of committees that will be, what they will discuss, and what they will decide. The work of committees has recently been for prime ministers to rely more on personal advisers.

Here is a good time to say a little more about the **Cabinet Secretary** leads the work of this office, supervising the main tasks are to provide the cabinet and coordinate the meetings and make sure that decisions are made.

As we have seen, the Cabinet Office has become more coordinated with the prime minister and it could be argued that this has been another way of strengthening the cabinet at the expense of the cabinet itself. You will read several arguments that say that cabinet government is now dead, and that real power now lies in the hands of the prime minister, their personal advisers, and the senior civil servants who work with them. But that may not always be true.

Did you know?
The Cabinet Office is a public body of the government.

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3.2 The Concept of Ministerial Res

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Understand the concept of individual responsibility.
- ✓ Understand the concept of collective responsibility.
- ✓ Be able to recite and use examples of ministers resigning for both individual and collective reasons.



| | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| Ministerial responsibility | The idea that government ministers bear the responsibility for the performance of the government. |
| Collective responsibility | The idea that cabinet, as a collective political body, shares the positive and negative actions and consequences of government. |
| Individual responsibility | The idea that a cabinet minister should be held completely responsible for their government department or personal performance. |
| Department performance | The success or failure of government departments and ministers themselves professionally in implementing and upholding policies. |
| Policy failure | The idea that a law being implemented by an individual minister has been unsuccessful in some way. |
| Personal misconduct | The failure of government ministers to work and live in a way that satisfies the demands of public life. |
| Binding decisions | The success of the cabinet in reaching a unified decision and the dismissal of cabinet members who did not support this. |
| Vote of no confidence | The defeat of the government on a major issue which forces the entire government to resign. |



James Callaghan's
Government
have resigned
vote of no confidence
in 1979.

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What is Ministerial Responsibility?

Simply put, ministerial responsibility means the ways in which ministers are held accountable for the failure of their political and personal performance. There are two types of ministerial responsibility: **individual** and **collective**. Ministers often seem to get **collective responsibility** mixed up with the idea of **individual responsibility**. **Individual responsibility** is enforceable by law. They are **conventions**, and there have often been ministers who have refused to resign. One of the questions often asked is whether these ideas still

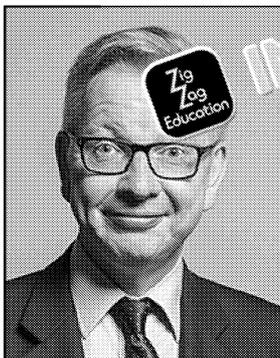
The difference between individual responsibility and collective responsibility

- **Collective responsibility** is the convention that all members of the cabinet support decisions made by the cabinet (even if they privately disagree with them) and they will resign if they do not. Collective responsibility now includes all members of the cabinet.
- **Individual responsibility** is the convention that individual ministers are responsible for their departments and **personal** actions, and resign if they are found to be in breach of the government.

If a minister is caught having an affair, or is managing their department poorly, this is **individual responsibility**, and the minister might have to resign. If a minister publicly agrees to a cabinet or government policy, then they are bound by it under the idea of cabinet or government **collective responsibility**. It is very easy to get these mixed up. Look at the examples you use very carefully.

Collective Responsibility

Meetings of the cabinet, where debate can occur between members in order to reach a conclusion that will become policy, should be **secret**. This means that the discussions of ministers will be private, and the public face of the government can be maintained.



Michael Gove led the cabinet revolt against the handling of Brexit negotiations by the executive.

What is decided upon in cabinet meetings is government policy. Ministers – who have agreed to it, agree to be bound by it and support it. The cabinet is then responsible jointly, as a whole, for that policy. The cabinet should, therefore, be prepared to resign if the government were to lose a no-confidence vote, though this is rare.

If a member of the cabinet finds they cannot support a policy publicly, they will resign. You should be clear that a minister resigning is not a cabinet failing at something, but rather specific ministers cannot in good faith be part of a specific policy.

To some extent, resignations for reasons of collective responsibility (which are relatively rare) are, therefore, acts of protest, of confidence (or a more sceptical approach) for future political gain – rather than a sign of failure. Resignations show a crack in the face of the government, which is open to criticism and can lead to a change in government policy.

In recent years there have been examples of exceptions to the rule of collective responsibility. The 2016 referendum, for example, meant that collective responsibility is suspended on a day-to-day basis. The cabinet may be allowed to choose a side and not be obliged to resign (or to avoid mass resignations or to allow voting on 'issues of conscience', such as the 2016 referendum). These examples are discussed later.

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There are also times when collective responsibility is challenged. As mentioned, discussions within cabinet should remain a confidential matter within the cabinet and do not go public at times. Personal differences and departmental conflicts can go public. For example, Boris Johnson (then Foreign Secretary) and Matt Hancock (then Health Secretary) collaboratively challenged the position on Brexit of Theresa May (then Prime Minister) and Amber Rudd (then Home Secretary) by writing a report urging a harder Brexit from the EU. This report was leaked, and suddenly it was known that the cabinet was not united on the most important issue of the day.

Problems can arise when the prime minister does not consult the cabinet on many issues. This was a particular problem when ministers resigned from the Thatcher and Blair governments, frequently speaking out about not having a hand in many cabinet decisions at all. These two prime ministers had a large degree of power, having large majorities, and, therefore, did not have to spend as much time and energy trying to reach a consensus as Theresa May, for instance, whose lack of a majority in the 2017 Election meant her cabinet represented a range of opposing views at a time when these divisions were coming to a head in the issue of the UK's relationship with the European Union.

Individual Responsibility



An image of the Hillsborough disaster, where many Liverpool fans died. This is clearly a very sensitive issue not only for people of the area but for the UK as a whole.

Individual responsibility, while a cabinet is supposed to be a unit, is an important principle in British politics. As a general principle that a sole cabinet minister's personal or political misconduct should not affect the rest of the cabinet, there is an uncertainty about what this covers. Ministers who manage government departments should be individually responsible for their actions as a civil servant or adviser working for the government.

Examples for this are numerous. In 2014, for example, a high-profile case was the case of Francis Maude, the then Minister of the Cabinet Office, whose minister was Francis Maude. The 24-year-old was found to have made unauthorized edits to the Wikipedia page that described the Hillsborough football stadium where 96 fans were killed. This is different from Maude being accountable to Parliament as a minister; as a minister, he should remain as open as possible, he was unable to prevent this from happening. As a civil servant, he should have reported this to his department so it would not have been practical for him to resign. It should be noted that general individual responsibility is less common than collective responsibility. There are many reasons for this, including autonomous governments that are trusted to handle their own collective mandates.

There has also been clarification in recent times regarding the difference between the management of a government policy. Individual ministerial responsibility is a policy that has been introduced and how it can be assessed in terms of its broad operation. The management of this policy, however, is up to civil servants within the department, and ministers cannot be expected to know or be held accountable for individual actions when implementing policy.

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4. Political Pressure

The final reason why a minister may be forced to take individual responsibility is significant political pressure to which the government has to respond. The blame, and it is not a result of ministers breaking from the requirements of their professional lives. This could involve sustained pressure from the media or the public. David Cameron was forced to resign as prime minister following the June 2016 European Union referendum, not due to the failure of the policy he created, nor his personal misconduct, but because of the pressure to resign from the public and media following his vote of him voting against the outcome of the referendum.

Ministerial Responsibility in Coalition 2010–2015

At one level, the coalition agreement made by the Conservatives and Liberal Democrat coalition provided a clear foundation upon which all cabinet members could share collective responsibility. The agreement mapped out the broad policy direction of the programme in the main areas of government responsibility, including economic policy, constitutional reform and defence policy. Conservative and Liberal Democrat cabinet members knew what their party leaders had negotiated. For instance, David Cameron tried to replace the Human Rights Act and Nick Clegg was not going to oppose the introduction of education fees for students.

On the other hand, the coalition agreement covered several areas where the Conservatives and Liberal Democrat MPs were allowed to abstain but not vote against the government. This included nuclear power and the introduction of a married couples' tax allowance where the coalition understanding could take effect.

In the case of individual responsibility, there were cases where cabinet ministers were criticised in Parliament or the media for actions they or their departments had taken. In November 2011, Theresa May, the Home Secretary, blamed the Immigration Control Act for the relaxation of checks on European travellers and resigned. Andrew Lansley, the Health Minister, was heavily attacked over the way the NHS was run but never offered to resign. He was publicly backed by David Cameron and moved from the post in a cabinet reshuffle in 2012.

A number of resignations by cabinet ministers were offered and accepted for reasons of misconduct which were bringing embarrassment to the government. Liberal Democrat ministers David Laws (Treasury Secretary) in 2010 and Chris Huhne (Transport Secretary) in 2012 together with Conservative ministers Liam Fox (Defence Secretary) in 2012 and Maria Miller (Culture Secretary) in 2014.

The priority for David Cameron and Nick Clegg was to keep the coalition government together and almost certainly led to the prime minister taking a fairly lenient approach to misconduct, especially where the cause was a difference of views held by the Conservative and Liberal Democrat Party members. This could be seen when Liberal Democrat minister supported the government's plan which would allow the redrawing of constituency boundaries and the reduction in the number of MPs from 650 to 600 (see above). It can also be seen when Liberal Democrat minister for Business Secretary, was exposed by a newspaper publicising the policies of the Conservative cabinet members and making very un-ministerial comments. He was going to deal with the proposed takeover bid of BSkyB by the Murdoch group. In normal circumstances he would have been under strong pressure to resign or to transfer his responsibilities for media affairs to another cabinet minister.

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David Cameron and Ministerial Responsibility 2015–2016

Having won the 2015 General Election outright, David Cameron was free to form another coalition. However, he quickly found that two new factors were greatly interrelated. Firstly, the Conservative government was committed to hold on to the UK's membership of the EU, and the cabinet would almost certainly be arguing that they would want to campaign on. Secondly, Cameron had announced in his election campaign that he would not be contesting the next election as the Conservative Party was the only party to succeed him was not to be in his cabinet and would have to face the dynamics of government.

By March 2016, Cameron had concluded his renegotiation on the terms of the EU, and announced the promised in/out referendum (now known as the Brexit referendum) to take place on 23rd June 2016. The government recommended that the country would remain inside the EU. However, in order not to split his party, Cameron allowed the cabinet to vote in agreement to campaign to leave. This amounts to the suspension of collective responsibility for this issue, which follows what Harold Wilson, the Labour prime minister, did in 1975 when he held a referendum on the same issue. It soon became clear that five full members of the cabinet campaigned to leave, and the other 16 campaigned to remain. Ministers outside the cabinet had a similar right to campaign against the government position.

On 18th March 2016 Iain Duncan Smith, the Secretary of State for Welfare and Pensions, resigned from the government because he felt unable to support publicly the strategy for balancing the budget, which he argued was being implemented on the backs of the most vulnerable and least well-off in society. However, the government regarded Duncan Smith's resignation as being caused by disagreements over the upcoming Brexit referendum. Meanwhile, austerity policies continued to be implemented.

On 23rd June 2016, Britain voted to leave the European Union in a referendum, leading to David Cameron's resignation as prime minister. This resignation is an example of individual ministerial responsibility – individual, because he had led the Remain campaign, and collective, because he could not support a policy of leaving the EU.

Theresa May and Ministerial Responsibility, 2016–2019

Theresa May's premiership provides us with many examples of ministerial responsibility. In 2017, Michael Fallon resigned as Defence Secretary over an incident of alleged inappropriate behaviour which had taken place 15 years earlier. Inappropriate behaviour is clearly a personal issue which is why it was an instance of *individual* responsibility.

Just a week later, Secretary for International Development Priti Patel resigned under quite different circumstances after it emerged that she had been holding secret meetings with the Israeli government without the knowledge of the Foreign Office, Cabinet Secretary or the Prime Minister – an example of *individual* responsibility.

The Home Secretary Amber Rudd was forced to resign in 2018, after being accused of misleading Parliament. This came during the fallout from revelations that British citizens had been wrongly deported by the Home Office, known as the Windrush scandal. In addition, the Defence Secretary Gavin Williamson was publicly sacked after being accused of leaking

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classified information to newspapers. Both are further examples of individual responsibility. In the case of Williamson it is unusual for a member of cabinet to turn down a promotion; he would have to be publicly dismissed instead.

Brexit has given us numerous examples of resignations over *collective responsibility*. At normal times are relatively rare, particularly because most ministers have a strong sense of duty to their position and will not abandon it easily. In July 2018, Foreign Secretary Boris Johnson and Secretary of State for Work and Pensions Amber Rudd both resigned in opposition to the government's policy on Brexit. In August 2018, they were joined by Work and Pensions Secretary Esther McVey and Secretary of State for the Department of Health, Matt Hancock. The leader of the House of Commons, Boris Johnson, resigned over the matter in May 2019.



Including more junior ministerial positions, Theresa May oversaw a record number of resignations from her government during her three years as prime minister, demonstrating the importance of collective responsibility in maintaining unity and discipline when their own authority has been challenged (as was the case by the result of the 2017 general election).

Boris Johnson and Ministerial Responsibility, 2019–2022

Boris Johnson's premiership was particularly turbulent in terms of resignations. Indeed, ministers began resigning in protest at Johnson's leadership before he became Prime Minister! In total, six ministers resigned in anticipation of Boris Johnson becoming Prime Minister, including the Chancellor Philip Hammond, the Justice Secretary David Gauke, the Secretary of State for International Trade and Development Secretary Rory Stewart, who was also a leadership contender, and the Secretary of State for Health, Matt Hancock. Hancock considered to be on the Remain side of the Brexit debate within the Conservative Party, chose to resign knowing that they would lose their positions anyway under Johnson's leadership.

In September 2019, the Secretary of State for Work and Pensions Amber Rudd resigned from the Cabinet and the Conservative Party in protest at the expulsion of 21 pro-EU Conservative MPs by Boris Johnson. This followed the resignation from a junior position of Johnson's brother, Jo Johnson, two days earlier for similar reasons. Both could be seen as examples of collective responsibility: they could not consent to decisions being made by the Prime Minister.

More dramatically, the Chancellor of the Exchequer Sajid Javid resigned in February 2020 during a cabinet reshuffle in which Johnson demanded that Javid sack all of his advisers and replace them with advisers he had selected, effectively handing control of the Treasury to the prime minister's office. Coming just weeks after a thumping general election victory, the sudden resignation of such a senior member of government for internal reasons is highly unusual, and could be seen as an example of Johnson asserting his new-found control over the Cabinet.

In May 2020, a government crisis occurred when it emerged that the Prime Minister's key adviser, Dominic Cummings, had appeared to have broken the strict coronavirus lockdown measures by travelling across the country. Cummings absorbed intense pressure for Cummings to resign, but both he and the Prime Minister had acted appropriately and not broken the law. The decision to retain Cummings was a significant test of collective responsibility. The resignation of Douglas Ross – a junior minister in the Scotland Office – who had also been accused of breaking the lockdown rules, was seen as a test of the government's position.

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A particularly contentious issue arose in November 2020, when Home Secretary Priti Patel was found by an internal investigation to have engaged in the bullying of civil servants in her department, and thus breached the ministerial code – the standards which ministers are expected to abide by. By convention, breaching the ministerial code is a resigning matter; however, Johnson decided to reject the findings of the report, and allowed Patel to remain in post. As a result, it was the standards adviser himself who resigned just a few days later, due to the Prime Minister publicly reaching a different conclusion from him.



Johnson that Ho



Health Secretary Matt Hancock broke his own rules on social distancing.

In June 2021, footage leaked to the media exposed the Health Secretary, Matt Hancock, engaging in an affair with a staff member, breaching the government's own social distancing rules. The matter was particularly egregious as the Health Secretary was responsible for leading the government's response to the pandemic. Hancock subsequently forced to resign for personal misconduct.

In July 2022, the Deputy Chief Whip, Chris Pincher, resigned over allegations of sexual misconduct. Allegations that the Prime Minister had covered up previous similar accusations against Pincher were also made. However, Johnson later accepted that he had been misled by Pincher's allegations, but appointed Pincher to the government.

Johnson's admission that he was aware of the Pincher scandal led to the immediate resignations of Health Secretary Sajid Javid and Chancellor Rishi Sunak, as they had lost confidence in the Prime Minister after a series of scandals. The resignations precipitated a wave of mass resignations from Cabinet members and junior ministers alike, all on the grounds of no longer wishing to share collective responsibility for the Prime Minister's decisions. In total, 61 members of government resigned in 24 hours – the largest number in British political history. The resignations forced Johnson himself to resign, as he was no longer able to fill government posts.

Johnson's own resignation was on the basis that he had lost the support of his MPs – so it was ultimately political pressure that ousted him. But in the end Johnson's resignation could also be said to have been due to all three other types of individual responsibility we have identified: performance failure, personal misconduct and taking responsibility for departmental failings.

Key Moments in Ministerial Responsibility 2022–2025

Liz Truss's short-lived government of autumn 2022 was nevertheless eventually responsible for several resignations. Boris Johnson resigned as Minister of State for Trade Policy about 'serious misconduct' during the 2022 party conference. Kwasi Kwarteng resigned following the fallout from the mini budget – it could be argued that the prime ministerial responsibility here to try to shield herself from the political im-

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Suella Braverman left Truss's government after sharing sensitive information using a personal email address – a failure of individual responsibility. But over change, after becoming prime minister just a week later Rishi Sunak

Sunak's less than two-year innings also saw its fair share of examples. Gavin Williamson resigned as Chancellor when Sunak's ethics adviser advised that he had been involved with his tax affairs. The most important example of collective responsibility was when Robert Jenrick resigned as Secretary of State for Health when Sunak's flagship Safety of Rwanda Bill did 'not go far enough'.

In February 2022, Anneliese Dodds resigned over cuts to foreign aid in favour of a clear example of being unable to abide by collective responsibility. The most recent example of collective responsibility was when Angela Rayner resigned as Secretary of State for the Home Department in September when she was accused about her personal tax affairs, having reportedly failed to pay tax on purchases worth a major figure in the government, with her own mandate as elected deputy prime minister. Her departure triggered both a cabinet reshuffle and a deputy leadership election. It is likely that Rayner may be better off outside the struggling government, while some of the other ministers they are free of an antagonist and competitor in the government.

Talking Points



Do failures of individual responsibility do more damage than resignations from their government?

Do resignations from their government always damage a prime minister's authority, or sometimes help to remove corrupt ministers?



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3.3.1 The Power of the Prime Minister

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Understand the various factors that affect the selection of ministers by the prime minister.
- ✓ Be able to justify whether you think the UK has a prime ministerial or a cabinet government or something in between.
- ✓ Understand what makes a prime minister predominant and how this affects the UK political system.
- ✓ Understand the UK political system as to whether the prime minister can now be presidential.



Key terms

| | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Prime ministerial government | A mode of government where the prime minister has dominate the cabinet. |
| Cabinet government | A mode of government where the cabinet has the responsibility applies. The prime minister is no more than a cabinet minister. |
| Presidentialisation | The process of the UK prime minister becoming increasingly like a president in a presidential political system. |
| Predominant | Describes a prime minister who uses resources and potential available to the office, becomes proactive. |
| Pre-eminence | Describes a prime minister who uses resources available to the office, above a basic level of power but remains similarly powerful to cabinet ministers. |
| Personalised leadership | When a prime minister has a strong public personal brand, clear aims and strategy. |
| Spatial leadership | When a prime minister does not work very closely with the cabinet of the executive but keeps a small circle of advisers. |



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Two Types of Government

We have seen that there are many parts to the executive of the UK government which has tended to reside with either the prime minister or their cabinet.

Prime Ministerial Government

A prime ministerial government is one where the executive is dominated specifically concerned with the relationship between the prime minister and ministerial government is one where the cabinet is overlooked and is rarely the prime minister.

In the constitution of the US you can read precisely what the role of the president and the other branches of government may do to scrutinise the executive.

You won't read anything similar about the UK prime minister, because this has changed over several centuries. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, the first minister was chief adviser to the king, and as the nineteenth century progressed, the role became associated with the leaders of political parties who were still constitutionally bound to govern as part of the cabinet. The prime minister was seen as 'first among equals', and that is still the basic constitutional position today, although the growth of executive power in general has allowed a range of responsibilities to be added to the role.

Remember that constitutions have two sides – theoretical and practical. From the 1960s there were warnings that in practice the prime minister was becoming too powerful. Crossman and others were talking about '**prime ministerial**' government – where the prime minister seemed to be making all the important policy decisions away from the cabinet – and later Tony Benn criticised the immense power said to be exercised by the prime minister also at the expense of the cabinet and even of Parliament.

Department for Work and Pensions
Ministry of Justice
HM Revenue and Customs
Ministry of Defence
Home Office
Scottish Government
Department for Transport
Business and Energy Department
Environment Department
Department of Health and Social...
Cabinet Office
Attorney General's Office
Department for Education
Foreign Office
HM Land Registry
Welsh Government
UK Statistics Authority
National Crime Agency
Local Government Department
International Trade Department
HM Treasury
Culture Department
Ofsted
Food Standards Agency
Ofgem
Competition and Markets Authority
National Archives
Charity Commission
Office of Rail and Road
Ofqual
Ofwat
Northern Ireland Office
Supreme Court

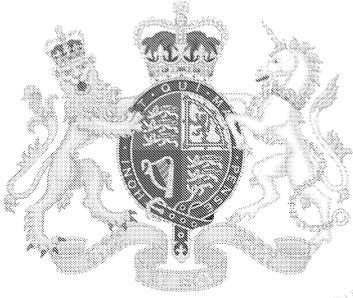
The number of civil servants in most government departments
The total number of civil servants employed

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Cabinet Government



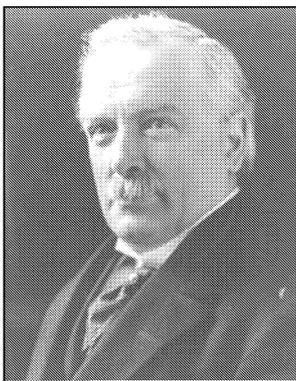
Government coat of arms

In the UK we have **cabinet government**, where decisions are made collectively within the cabinet, and not by individual ministers. This does not always happen, but the whole idea of cabinet government suggests that there is some kind of collaboration between the prime minister and other ministers. This idea has not totally disappeared, but the power of the cabinet has weakened and this has happened in the last century. The UK has not been in the same way politically active, at some times

The Prime Minister and the Cabinet

So, we are in a position to say something about the real relationship between prime ministers and the cabinet. We have seen where Thatcher's occasional disregard for her colleagues' opinion led her, and how John Major attempted a more collegiate style of government, with equally disastrous consequences. Blair also tended to disregard his cabinet when it suited him, and again he found himself back-tracking when the cabinet turned on him. Gordon Brown discovered the same painful truth, while David Cameron, as the leader of a coalition government, had to be much more careful to listen to the opinions of his colleagues, especially Nick Clegg, the leader of the Liberal Democrats. Have you noticed a pattern here? Prime ministers seem to have more power over the Cabinet at times when they are popular with the electorate. This has been true in each of the cases we have looked at. When a prime minister is popular with voters, then the cabinet tends to increase in cohesiveness and can even force the prime minister. This is evident from many examples. By losing her party in a general election, Theresa May also determined her own credibility as a leader. Boris Johnson is also trying to balance the conflicting interests of his cabinet members. Similarly, as his public popularity eroded amid the Brexit vote of 2022, Boris Johnson's Cabinet took the future of his premiership out of his hands.

Is the Prime Minister Too Powerful?



Dominant Prime Ministers are nothing new. David Lloyd George had been the youngest member of the House of Commons in 1890 at 27 years old. He became a powerful Chancellor of the Exchequer in 1908, and led the Liberals in a coalition government during World War I. He was often accused of ignoring his cabinet and of governing without their advice.

By the Second World War there had been many prime ministers of known personalities, so it is not surprising that Gladstone, Lloyd George and Churchill seemed to become more powerful. The constitutional role of 'firmly guiding but not allowing'. Some people were in favour of this, but generally the prime minister's 'government' did not become more powerful after the Second World War.

In the 1960s, Richard Crossman, a Labour cabinet minister, wrote a foreword to 'The English Ministers'. As we have seen, he referred to 'prime ministerial government'. He suggested a dramatic increase in the prime minister's use of the prerogative powers of the executive. The executive had seen a dramatic rise in importance in the twentieth century. Decisions needed to be made more speedily and as technology was beginning to progress, the prime minister was becoming more of a media personality in his own right. The truth, as we have seen, is that collective cabinet government was becoming less important compared with individual government elsewhere by the prime minister using other individual advisers.

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Case Study – Conservative Government 1979–1990

Margaret Thatcher is widely regarded as one of the most powerful prime ministers in British history. Throughout her tenure, she frequently ignored the cabinet and imprinted her own personal ideology – Thatcherism. This was evidence of a prime ministerial government. However, by 1990, many ministers in the cabinet were disgruntled by the fact they had been peripheral in the government's agenda. Many who resigned had spoken out about Thatcher's dictatorial role in the cabinet. The Conservative leader's election after her unpopular poll tax showed the consequences of ignoring the cabinet long term – many of them stopped their support of Thatcher and she was ousted because of it. Is this evidence of a cabinet government?



Clearly, how much the prime minister is able to dominate the cabinet varies. Margaret Thatcher was dismissive of the ministers in her cabinet. Other prime ministers, such as James Callaghan, were not dominant in this context. This variance is a result of a number of factors which will be described below.

Government majority

The size of the majority of the governing party, if indeed a majority is present, is a big factor in how much the prime minister is able to dominate the cabinet. In general, the bigger the majority, the more likely it is that a prime ministerial government will unfold. In the 1997 General Election Tony Blair's New Labour won the greatest majority in the post-war political era. With 418 seats to the Conservatives' 165, Blair was held in high regard among his own party. This included members of his cabinet, and there was more room to bypass the cabinet as it was more manageable. He proceeded to ignore his cabinet consistently. This exemplified a prime ministerial government, particularly with a large majority. Similarly, since Boris Johnson's current majority in Parliament is also large, we can probably expect a return to a prime ministerial style.



On the other hand, David Cameron's Coalition Government was not one of the highly personalised forms of governing, and his cabinet held certain authorities which he was unable to bypass. The most obvious difference between these two governments is the size of the majority. The Conservatives in 2010 did not achieve a winning majority in the election and were, therefore, forced into coalition with the Liberal Democrats. The Liberal Democrats had a majority of 79, which is not feeble by any means but is dwarfed by New Labour's majority of 166. Also, several members of the cabinet were Liberal Democrats themselves, including Deputy Prime Minister Nick Clegg, and to bypass these members at any time would have posed serious problems for the unity and functioning of the government. For this reason, Cameron's Government was a cabinet government in which he was first among equals and cabinet ministers were involved in decision-making and events that took place.



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Electoral success

Government majorities are the result of another factor that determines how far a prime minister can dominate the executive – electoral performance. This is one reason why Thatcher and Blair were so dominant over the cabinet as prime ministers. They each transformed their party into the formidable electoral machine of the time. Thatcher won three elections and her leadership spanned over 11 years. Her majority, importantly, was at its lowest after the first general election she won in 1979 and she therefore proved that she could consistently improve it. Blair maintained an impressive electoral performance while in office. For this reason, she commanded greater respect from the cabinet, who for many years conceded the dominance over them that she exerted.

Electoral success results in large majorities, which makes a prime minister more powerful – but electoral success also means the prime minister's party is strong; that is, the party is much more likely to keep a winning majority and therefore, is happy to yield to the leader.

Policy success

The prime minister will always be judged on the basis of how well the government performs throughout its tenure, and this is inherently assessed by the success or failure of its policy record, the more likely it is that the rest of the cabinet will support the prime minister's policy. A failure of major policy could represent a loss of faith in the cabinet's power potential.

Party unity

This is usually a product of achieving success in one or more of the factors outlined above, though some of it is down to circumstances. Indeed, it does help if a prime minister has shown that they can perform electorally or have been successful while in office. This will mean the cabinet obstructs the prime minister less in general. However, no matter what the circumstance there are always factions within parties. Thatcher had to satisfy the 'wets' and 'dries' within her cabinet.

However, perhaps the best example is Theresa May's government between 2016 and 2019. The main split between the Conservative Cabinet was whether ministers are for a 'soft' or a 'hard' Brexit. Philip Hammond, Chancellor of the Exchequer, frequently spoke about integration and cooperation with the European Union. Foreign Secretary Boris Johnson and Environment Secretary Michael Gove were two of the 'hard-Brexiters'. This made the dominance of the executive difficult for Theresa May. This split the cabinet with the knowledge that some ministers would be dissatisfied and could be imbalanced in some way. There is evidence that party unity, or lack of unity, can affect a prime minister's ability to control the cabinet.

Leadership style

The leadership of the prime minister is one of the key factors that influence the PM and the cabinet. There have been prime ministers since the Second World War with completely different leadership styles, both in the way they approach politics and which their leadership is personalised.

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Political leadership concerns how a prime minister will deal with individuals within the government. The extent to which the prime minister can truly control the government depends on circumstances that have already been mentioned in part. Public opinion is very important. This is often affected by policy success or electoral performance. Political leadership refers to how far the prime minister can show their personal influence. The prime minister is the most publicly exposed political figure in the UK and has the opportunity to impose a very personal political agenda while in office. The 'Thatcherism' and 'Blairism' are the two most obvious examples, as they have defined leadership styles. This has several advantages and disadvantages, but what makes them able to dominate the government with this style of leadership.

Political events

Perhaps the factor that is least within the prime minister's control is the extent to which external events shape their political control over the cabinet. They may inherit a set of circumstances which affect their ability to align the cabinet, for instance. Theresa May struggled because of Brexit, with many members of her cabinet in fundamental disagreement over how to tackle exiting the EU. This clearly put her at a greater disadvantage and gave increased power to the cabinet.

Cabinet Office

There have been very recent changes to the power of the cabinet in relation to the prime minister. Notably the Cabinet Office has been given more power, allowing for special advisers, a policy unit and a press office in the cabinet. This has made the cabinet more powerful in relation to the prime minister, though this change does not constitute the emergence of a cabinet government.

Appointing Ministers to the Cabinet

One of the reasons that means the prime minister is destined to have a power advantage over the cabinet is the fact that he or she appoints members of the cabinet. This may happen on a mass scale, known as a cabinet reshuffle, or to replace one member of the cabinet who may have been forced to resign under individual responsibility. The prime minister, when they take office, chooses their whole cabinet.

However, this is not as straightforward as it sounds, nor does it guarantee that the prime minister is indeed dominant over the cabinet. This is because the prime minister must take a number of factors into account when selecting the cabinet (see table below and on the next page).

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| Factor | Explanation |
|---|--|
| Ideology | <p>While there is normally only one party in government, there is often a wide ideological balance represented within the cabinet. Theresa May was particularly meticulous between different ideological factions and both the Conservatives and Labour. In stark contrast, Boris Johnson almost exclusively appointed members from his own wing of the party, and largely excluded other factions.</p> |
| Political performance  | <p>The past performance of potential cabinet members concerning their expertise. Expertise mostly refers to ministers who may have been previously used to the pressure and scrutiny that comes with being in government. Priti Patel was appointed Chancellor of the Exchequer by May because she had done a good job in David Cameron's Cabinet in 2010-2014. Amber Rudd was reappointed Foreign Secretary by May because of the knowledge she had been handling since 2014. Previous performance does not always determine ministers in relation to cabinet appointments.</p> |
| Personal performance | <p>Unlike political performance, this relates to the personal conduct of cabinet members. Michael Fallon, mentioned above, was kept on by May because of his political expertise in defence, but at the end of 2017 resigned because of harassment. This meant that May was forced to appoint another minister.</p> |
| Gender | <p>The next few factors concern demographic representation. Gender is a factor when a prime minister is selecting their cabinet. Powerful government roles have traditionally been held by men, and there has been a societal expectation of men in government but in all aspects of British life. If the cabinet is to represent the population, then there should be half of each gender. In September 2022 only eight of the 22 members of the cabinet were women.</p> |
| Ethnic minority representation  | <p>Traditionally, ethnic minority representation in government has been low, but there are signs that this is changing. 30% of Liz Truss's Cabinet were from an ethnic minority background, including Priti Patel as Foreign Secretary and Home Secretary. That's more than double the percentage of the population who are from a minority ethnic background.</p> |
| Age | <p>The final demographic factor that the prime minister might consider when selecting their cabinet is age. The cabinet has traditionally been seen as a group of older politicians and as exclusive and elitist in its favour of those over 50. There has been a greater effort in recent times to lower the average age of the cabinet, which dipped below the age of 50.</p> |
| Loyalty | <p>If there has been a leadership election or challenge, or there has been an unsuccessful general election, the prime minister may consider loyalty to them personally as party leader. The prime minister cannot always make decisions solely on who is best suited for the job. Boris Johnson's emphasis on loyalty in Cabinet as his public popularity was at its peak.</p> |
| Position on major policy | <p>Sometimes, beyond ideology, the policy of government may be a factor. For instance, Theresa May wanted to ensure that Brexit was implemented adequately and not undermined by her appointment of cabinet members.</p> |
| Coalition  | <p>This is not always a factor that the prime minister must consider when selecting a one-party majority in Britain. However, in 2010, Gordon Brown had to take this into account when selecting his cabinet, and this was a factor in who he appointed. There were five Liberal Democrat cabinet members in Gordon Brown's Prime Minister Nick Clegg. For obvious reasons, Conservative David Cameron's first choice, suggesting that his power of appointment was not in total control over the cabinet.</p> |

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Has Presidentialisation Occurred?

So, the power of the prime minister has increased over time, and we have ministerial government in British politics. However, this is not to suggest powerful in relation to the rest of the executive. One debate that has arisen prime minister can now be said to be presidential. While the prime minister with the president inherently, there are some differences which have argued recent times. We will explore the main arguments for and against the case prime minister has occurred.

The Prime Minister as Presidential

- Leadership styles are becoming increasingly personalised. This has become a desirable trait of the prime minister and allows them to carry out their goals effectively. Margaret Thatcher and Tony Blair, for instance, were able to establish personal ideologies named after them. Other prime ministers have not been considered as dominant because their leadership has not been as personalised. There is an increased pressure on prime ministers to come across as leading figures in the political system. TV debates have been introduced in general elections, which emphasise that the pressure is on leaders more than ever.
- **Predominant prime ministers** are able leaders of presidential status. Their party as well as their wider status in the political system makes them able to utilise their power to the full extent they are more political within both Parliament and the executive. Thatcher and Blair are examples of prime ministers who were predominant in their nature. They used their own and personal resources to maximise their power.
- The prime minister is becoming separated from the rest of their party in British politics and has resulted in the prime minister at times being distant from the cabinet and the broader party. Tony Blair enjoyed electoral success because he was ideologically and physically, away from the rest of his party. David Cameron of the Conservative Party and in this sense created distance between himself and the party. Similarly, Boris Johnson was regarded as having distanced himself from the government during the 2019 general election. All recent prime ministers select few rather than the whole cabinet or party, and this is grounds for saying the prime minister has branched away from the legislative back of the party, as a result of this.
- As we have discussed earlier in this chapter, prime ministers have an authority that are not shared with MPs or other ministers or members of the cabinet but are not limited to, or restricted by, powers, the control over the deployment of the leadership and responsibility. These are all powers that would be considered as presidential.
- There has been a focus now than ever before on the media capabilities of prime ministers. For example, the US president is assessed based on their communication skills. As a result of this celebrity-style status, we have begun to see this with the prime minister. Theresa May were deemed to have been good politicians before becoming prime minister, but poor communication skills were highlighted upon taking up office. In contrast, Boris Johnson was propelled to office on the back of his entertaining media performance.



In America, television has made the president more like a celebrity.

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The Prime Minister is not Presidential

- While the power of the prime minister in relation to the cabinet has increased in recent times, it cannot be said that the prime minister controls their own branch in the same way that a president controls the executive. The executive, of course, can in the most difficult of times still hold a certain authority over the prime minister. Margaret Thatcher attempted to hold a presidential-style authority over the executive, but this backfired as it was effective in her own cabinet who ousted her in 1990. This shows that the prime minister does not hold the same authority over their own branch as a president does.
- Predominant prime ministers may be considered presidential, but this is down to circumstances. *Pre-eminent prime ministers* are more common and are a more accurate representation of British prime ministers. They utilise the institutional resources available to them, and this does not make them presidential. They lead their party and the government, which is inherent to a prime minister, but usually they do not go beyond this role. Gordon Brown, David Cameron and Theresa May are all examples of this. Similarly, if these prime ministers are unable to control the agenda in a crisis, this can be attached to them alone.
- Though the prime minister has several exclusive powers that are not shared with senior ministers, this is not to say that they do not have political power. The powers of the prime minister are ministerial powers. Ministers lead government departments and civil servants, which means they are not directly elected in a presidential system. They also hold political weight and can direct the government.
- Prime ministers must have significant electoral success to be considered presidential. Thatcher and Blair won the post-war era but also won the greatest majorities in the history of the three most recent general elections have resulted in the largest party. This has resulted in weak executives, and weak prime ministers who personalise their leadership.
- Party support is not guaranteed. This may be true of a presidential system. The nature of a lack of support. For instance, leadership challenges prime ministers may face in times of unpopularity, whereas a president is not subject to this. This may not necessarily mean that another member of the party is available as an alternative, but may mean that the prime minister is subject to significant change. After the 2017 general election, Theresa May faced a cabinet and backbenchers, and was eventually ousted from her position by Conservative MPs – hardly a presidential system.
- It is worth pointing out that the prime minister, unlike other ministers, does not lead a government department. This means they do not have the extent of authority in that area that cabinet ministers commonly do.



Key Point



Watch a TV debate for both the 2024 Harris and Trump US presidential election and the 2024 UK general election. What similarities and differences can you identify?

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3.3.2 The Powers of the Prime Minister and Dictate Events and Determine

Learning Objectives

- ✓ Gain a good understanding of at least one prime minister and their policies and determine policy before 1997.
- ✓ Gain a good understanding of at least one prime minister and their policies and determine policy after 1997.
- ✓ Be able to discuss how specific policies or events impacted the power of the executive.

Key questions

1. **How far are British prime ministers able to follow the policy agenda that they want?**

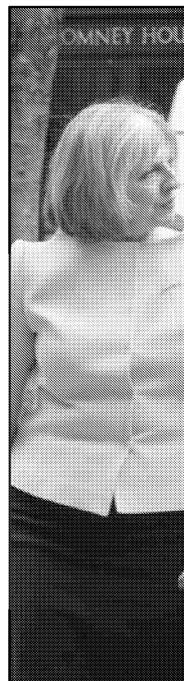
This chapter explores the ways in which prime ministers since 1945 have attempted to implement personal objectives through policy, and the success or failure they have had in this.

2. **To what extent can prime ministers prevent circumstances that lead to their downfall?**

This chapter will look at the ways that prime ministers have left office and what they could have done anything to prevent this from happening.

3. **What individual events and policies that have determined prime ministers' power?**

This chapter will take an in-depth look at the main policies and decisions that prime ministers took and how this affected their ability to determine events.



What Do We Mean by Dictating Events and Determining

When questioning what the prime minister can do to lead the political agenda, quite referring to the difference between predominant and pre-eminent power, the difference of the use of individual power resources that we are most concerned with is exploring the extent to which prime ministers have been able to imprint their agenda rather than be reactive to events inside or outside their control.

For this, we will examine prime ministers before 1997; Harold Wilson, James Callaghan, and Margaret Thatcher. After 1997, we will look at the extent to which Tony Blair, David Cameron, Theresa May, and Boris Johnson have been able to influence the political agenda while in office. Remember to be completely familiar with the specific implications of events and policy for before and one after 1997 in order to answer an essay question on the subject.

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| Year | Prime minister | Party | Reason |
|-----------------------|-------------------|---------------|---|
| 1945–1951 | Clement Attlee | Labour | Called an election but the Conservatives and won based on |
| 1951–1955 | Winston Churchill | Conservatives | Failing health. |
| 1955–1957 | Anthony Eden | Conservatives | Failing health and policy, to block the within his own part |
| 1957–1963 | Harold Macmillan | Conservatives | Economic failures: unpopular because |
| 1963–1964 | Alec Douglas-Home | Conservatives | Inherited a government be failing. Did better general election. |
| 1964–1970 | Harold Wilson | Labour | Devaluing the pound momentum from the became unpopular |
| 1970–1974 | Edward Heath | Conservatives | After a hung parliament he was expected to reach a confidence from Northern Ireland |
| 1974–1976 | Harold Wilson | Labour | Referendum over membership Economic Community |
| 1976–1979 | James Callaghan | Labour | His policy of pay restraint until he became gro |
| 1979–1990 | Margaret Thatcher | Conservatives | Her controversial policy to turn on her and |
| 1990–1997 | Jacob Major | Conservatives | Was seen as weak due to his leadership Thatcher's. |
| 1997–2007 | Tony Blair | Labour | Did not recover from surrounded his decision Iraq, and 'jumped b |
| 2007–2010 | Gordon Brown | Labour | He was blamed for global economic crisis skills made him very only election as PM |
| 2010–2016 | David Cameron | Conservatives | Lost a referendum on EU, and resigned the |
| 2016–2019 | Theresa May | Conservatives | Lost her party's majority election in 2017, and party over her Brexit |
| 2019–2022 | Boris Johnson | Conservatives | A series of scandals dishonesty damaged frustrated his MPs, |
| Sep 2022– Oct 2022 | Liz Truss | Conservatives | Following a controversy rapid loss of support confidence and her |
| 2022–2024 | Rishi Sunak | Conservatives | Lost the 2024 election party's waning fortu |

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The Power of the Prime Minister and the Cabinet to Dictate Policy: Before 1997

Harold Wilson

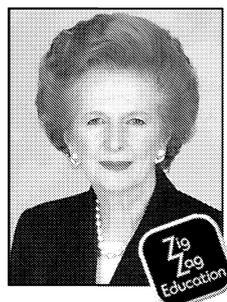
As the table above suggests, Harold Wilson had two spells as prime minister. Firstly, he was elected prime minister in 1964. For the next few years, he enjoyed relative success in being able to dictate events and determine policy. Because public opinion of him was high, he was relatively unchallenged in implementing his personal agenda. This included a major reform to education, including a particular focus on working classes having access to universities. In fact, more was allocated to education than defence by the Wilson Executive in its early years. However, health, social security was at the forefront of British politics, and these contributed to a strongly socialist ideological agenda that represented Wilson's political views before he entered office.

In terms of social reform, Wilson's Government was able to introduce new measures with the cultural movements that were taking place. This included helping against ethnic minorities, relaxing of laws against homosexuality and the like. Overall, Wilson determined policy that reflected his socialist principles. He also influenced economic policy. He inherited a large deficit, which was unusual for a Labour government. He had to fight off the devaluation of the pound year after year. By 1967, he was no longer. The devaluation of the pound was the turning of the tide of Wilson's government, beginning of the end for Wilson and his cabinet.

Wilson then became prime minister for the second time four years after he lost the October 1974 General Election – the second time in the year after a hung parliament with a majority of three seats. This position was a challenge for Wilson, who saw deep party divisions significantly limit what his executive were able to achieve. Unemployment rose to the first time in the post-war period and he was criticised for this sort of record. However, his second spell as prime minister was due to his position on Europe.

The prospect of integration into the European Economic Community (EEC) was a major issue before Wilson introduced an in/out referendum in 1975. He had, before being elected, opposed the idea of integration with Europe, and specifically with the EEC. However, from his own party, he was forced to hold a referendum, which resulted in support for membership and integration. This set the issue to rest for some time with the result; the issue would be raised again following Thatcher's 1988 'Bruges speech'.

Margaret Thatcher



Margaret Thatcher is viewed as one of the most influential women in the post-war period. She was also notable for being the first woman to hold the office of prime minister. Her longest serving prime minister of the twentieth century, her tenure was highly eventful, with the Falklands War, the miners' strike, and the creation of the Conservative Party. As we have discussed, Thatcher was a highly influential figure in the history of the UK – she had a highly personalised style of leadership. She also had transformed a struggling Conservative Party into a dominant electoral machine.

Almost immediately after entering office, she set about dismantling the elements that had been ingrained in the British state as early as Clement Attlee's Government. She was successful in bringing about a more free-market capitalist political system.

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and imprinted a personal ideology, one concerned mainly with individualism. Thatcher famously quipped that there was 'no such thing as society' and likened the state to a nanny.

Against the Keynesian economic approach of previous decades, this was a radical economic change, which meant a 'smaller' state, privatisation (moving services into the private sector), deregulation (removing restrictions on business), and increasing the flexibility of the labour market (in particular the ability of employers to hire and fire employees), including constraints on the power of trade unions.

In the most radical level of privatisation the UK has ever seen, Thatcher sold off state-owned assets to private investors, arguing that competition would mean that they would offer better services and lower prices. Gas, electricity and water were nationalised industries that were privatised. Telecom (BT) was privatised and the initial offering, where more than 50% of the shares were sold to the public, set a new record for the largest share issue in the world.

Perhaps the most defining event involving the economy during Thatcher's tenure was the miners' strikes, which were a response to the Thatcher Government's colliery (coal) closures. The strikes occurred in her second term, beginning in 1984 and not ending until the following year. At one time over 140,000 miners were striking, and over 25 million labour hours were lost. Speculation suggests that Thatcher wanted to shut down the coal industry for environmental reasons. However, what is important is that this resulted in a major victory for the Government and put it in a stronger position than it had been in initially.

This was characteristic of Thatcher's ability to shape the political sphere around her own ideas. Cabinet reshuffles allowed her to fill spaces with Thatcher loyalists. Margaret Thatcher dominated the executive relatively unopposed. Norman Tebbit, for instance, was appointed as employment secretary as he supported the case for privatisation. She also demonstrated a determined and uncompromising leadership style with the Falklands War. Her political success: Thatcher won three general elections as prime minister and was able to set the agenda in her favour.

Thatcher, though, is a great example of the fact that domination and control do not last forever. She stretched too far in attempting to determine policy completely. There was growing discontent among her cabinet. Despite the fact she had filled her cabinet with her ideologically, many had become frustrated with their lack of control. Thatcher continued to keep her advisers closer than her cabinet. When unpopular policies were implemented, the poll tax, which sparked riots in 1990, a leadership election was called, and the cabinet was why she was unable to retain power.

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The Power of the Prime Minister and the Cabinet to Determine Policy: After 1997

Tony Blair

Tony Blair's Labour Party in 1997 won the largest majority in the post-war period. This, in the UK, gave him a mandate the likes of which even Margaret Thatcher did not possess. Blair, along with Thatcher, is seen as one of the prime ministers who was most able to determine the agenda of his government. Like Thatcher, Blair enjoyed electoral success throughout his tenure, winning three general elections in 1997, 2001 and 2005.

Blair himself imprinted a highly personalised leadership style and ideology, a sign that he was able to control the agenda. His leadership style was one of pragmatism, and his ideology was unprecedented – 'New Labour' would provide policies that lay between the left and right. Principles of the free-market and a desire to bridge the gap of inequality throughout his time in office. It was an electorally formidable.

The prime minister changed the constitution more than any of his predecessors. He modernised and democratised some outdated laws and practices within the time he was in office. The most notable change, and one he worked on for at least a decade beforehand), was the Good Friday Agreement, which brought peace between the UK and Northern Ireland. The Human Rights Act (1998) allowed citizens to sue the state. The House of Lords Act (1999) removed all but 92 of the Lords, creating a party balance in the chamber. The Constitutional Reform Act (2005) paved the way for the eventual creation of a Supreme Court, which checked the power of the executive. The Bank of England Act (1997) and the Road to Nowhere (1997) made for economic stability and growth. The 1998 amendments to the constitution by Blair, and this is evidence of his agenda to change the very core of British politics.

As with Thatcher, however, unpopular policy was the reason for his eventual downfall. The decision to join George W Bush's US forces in intervention in Iraq. This was not until it was discovered that the prime minister's main reason for intervention was an imminent threat that Saddam Hussein posed with his weapons of mass destruction. It was not until it was discovered that the public, and his party, really believed the threat had been founded upon false intelligence.

This is what Blair has ultimately been remembered for. Again, with such a focus on highlights that the prime minister cannot always control the agenda and cabinet. Blair, like Thatcher, ignored his cabinet frequently, particularly as his leadership style was one of pragmatism. Blair's circle of advisers, though, who were with him for every step, including his decision to go to war in Iraq. Blair and Blair, who the two of them agreed would become prime minister.

Talking Point

Why were Thatcher and Blair good examples of why prime ministers are able to influence the agenda?

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David Cameron



David Cameron faced many obstacles that those who came before him did not. This was mostly because in 2010, the Conservative Party did not have a majority to form a government. They were forced to enter a coalition with the Liberal Democrats – the first in the post-war era – with a new emphasis on unity between the parties. Cameron had five cabinet positions, including the Liberal Democrats and a more collaborative style of leadership.

Cameron enjoyed some success, but the coalition at times did not appear to be his ability to control the Liberal Democrat agenda. Indeed, the forming of a coalition office power was shared between the ministers have the right to exercise. Cabinet reform occurred at a steady rate. He also kept a close circle of advisers, who he consulted for key decisions. The 'Quad' – Cameron himself, George Osborne, Nick Clegg and David Miliband operated together in times when decision-making was needed. This is reminiscent of Thatcher and Blair. He was able to imprint some of his own ideology on the Conservatism of old and adding a new, modern flavour. This is why he advocated, continued alongside key modernising legislation such as same-sex marriage, personally was in favour of, contrary to his party in general. It cannot be said that Cameron was prime minister powerless in determining events in government.

However, there were certain restraints. Cameron was tied to keeping the coalition together, the cabinet, for instance. This was not a formal limit, but Nick Clegg needed permission to change anything about those members of the cabinet. He was criticised many times on the same issue, which was partly due to the tensions between the parties to satisfy and find balance within the government. Cameron was also unable to pass legislation that was in the Liberal Democrat manifesto, such as the AV referendum. A successful policy admitted by the Conservatives was increasing the income tax rate. Cameron was in support of this, but the electoral system would have benefited from a policy shows he was unable to control the policy all of the time.

The prime minister won the 2015 General Election with a working majority, but this appeared to strengthen his power in his role. However, the 2016 Brexit referendum changed everything. After campaigning for the case that Britain should remain in the EU, and the resulting decision to leave, Cameron was forced to resign from office after having lost the support of the public and his own party.

Theresa May

Theresa May is a good example of a prime minister who had little ability to control events and determine policy during most of her time in office. Her rise to power at the head of the Conservative government came in the aftermath of the 2016 Brexit referendum, with a power vacuum left after much of the leadership had been lost to the Remain campaign. Although May had supported Remain herself, her leadership campaign focused largely on her ability to deliver Brexit. This is evident that even from the very beginning of her premiership she was responding to events, rather than controlling them.

While her party did not have a majority in Parliament during her first year in office, a slim one. The loss of support, or narrow parliamentary defeats, combined with the poor polling in the run-up to the 2017 general election, persuaded her to call a general election in 2017 by calling a general election and attempting to secure a more comfortable majority. It was seen by many as a safe bet, with the Conservatives expected to benefit from the support since the referendum, the election was disastrous for May. A poor performance combined with a successful Labour campaign, led to May losing her party's majority and much of her authority over her colleagues.

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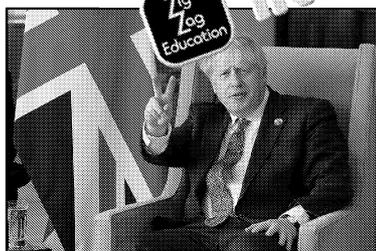


Rather than giving her greater ability to dictate events and policy, the 2017 May to govern as a minority administration, with the support of the Democrats provided a number of extra constraints on her ability to govern, as passing legislation would now require the support of groups within Parliament with virtually no votes. Throughout her premiership, May tried to carefully balance the interests of Eurosceptics, who wanted Britain to withdraw from EU institutions entirely; those who wanted Britain to remain closely aligned with the EU (and who were not Eurosceptics, but who belonged to); and the DUP, who wanted Northern Ireland to have exactly the same status after Brexit. As May was unable to bring such opposition parties, her government was heavily reliant on bringing these three conflicting groups together.

Ultimately, May was unable to do so, and after a number of high-profile cabinet resignations throughout her premiership, she was challenged for the leadership of the Conservative Party. Although she secured enough votes to stay on as prime minister, her flags were not enough to bring her party together, and was rejected in the biggest parliamentary defeat in the history of the UK. In response, opposition leader Jeremy Corbyn called for a general election. Theresa May's government, which she narrowly won with the support of DUP MPs. Throughout her premiership, several members of her cabinet appeared to be positioning themselves for a leadership challenge, and her ability to remove disloyal MPs from cabinet was severely constrained. A full-scale rebellion among MPs. In this sense, cabinet members enjoyed a significant degree of freedom to express themselves how they wished, which further undermined her authority.

After two more large parliamentary defeats of her flagship Brexit policy, and several discussions with opposition MPs, Conservative MPs began attempting to force a leadership challenge. This prevented a second leadership challenge within 12 months. May responded by calling a general election. It can be said that prior to the 2017 general election, Theresa May's government was in a state of crisis, and events rather than taking charge of them, while after the election her authority was restored. Her policy was largely gone, and her role had become simply to manage party discipline.

Boris Johnson



Immediately following his ascension to Prime Minister, Johnson was said to have taken a more drastic approach to managing party divisions, than his predecessor. This included the expulsion of 21 pro-EU Conservative MPs from the party in July 2019, and his controversial decision to prorogue Parliament in September the same month, an action that was later deemed unlawful by the Supreme Court. Rather than carefully balancing the interests of different factions within the Conservatives, Johnson appointed a cabinet largely made up of members of the right-wing of the party, and began to renegotiate a 'harder' Brexit deal.

This hard-line approach to party discipline ensured a more unified party victory in the general election in December 2019. Johnson's 2019 election campaign was a departure from his campaign in 2017; it focused singularly on the message of 'Get Brexit Done', and appealed to Leave supporters in traditionally Labour voting constituencies. As a result, he won a large majority of 80, and the UK subsequently withdrew from the European Union.

The somewhat forced resignation of Johnson's Chancellor Sajid Javid in February 2020, following an accident on the London Underground, can be seen as a further attempt by Johnson to gain control over the Treasury on his largely right-wing agenda. In the immediate aftermath of the resignation, Johnson sought to gain control over the Treasury by appointing a new Chancellor, with that of the outgoing Chancellor's. The end result was that Johnson ended up with a more experienced Chancellor in Rishi Sunak, and as a result is likely to have been able to maintain control over the direction of the Treasury. It was speculated that Javid – an arch Tory – was not as enthusiastic about Johnson's 'levelling up' agenda to reduce regional inequality, and that his resignation over the direction of the Treasury. It was speculated that Javid – an arch Tory – was not as enthusiastic about Johnson's 'levelling up' agenda to reduce regional inequality, and that his resignation over the direction of the Treasury. It was speculated that Javid – an arch Tory – was not as enthusiastic about Johnson's 'levelling up' agenda to reduce regional inequality, and that his resignation over the direction of the Treasury.

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However, Johnson's control over events didn't last long after his general election. The 2020 coronavirus pandemic crisis subsequently caused severe disruption to political developments around the world. The government was unprepared to take a number of drastic emergency measures in order to ensure the health service could cope with the influx of patients. These included bans on social gatherings, the construction of temporary hospitals, and substantial financial support for those whose employment was affected.

The pandemic serves as a clear indication of how difficult it is for a prime minister, even one who has just having recently won a general election, to exert control of events in the face of a crisis. Johnson was initially on the back foot when it came to coronavirus, and struggled to anticipate the direction that the crisis would take. The government was frequently criticised for its lockdown measures, which were implemented at the last minute, when they would have been more effective if implemented earlier. Political pressure was placed on the prime minister for miscalculation during the crisis, which would be expected, however, given that the pandemic's course was often hard to predict for politicians around the world.

Johnson's control of events was also undermined by the emergence of a clear alternative leader, Boris Johnson, which increased the pressure on his performance. To an even greater extent, his chief adviser Dominic Cummings also undermined his control of events, as Cummings frequently briefed the media with negative insider information about the government that contradicted Johnson's public statements.

Johnson lost a considerable amount of control over events from November 2020 onwards. In October, the prime minister attempted to change parliamentary rules to prevent an ally – Owen Paterson – from the House of Commons for improper lobbying. The scandal led to a huge loss of support for the government, which was forced to U-turn on its position, angering Conservative MPs. In November, a series of parties that had been taking place in Downing Street during lockdown, including one where the prime minister's denials that parties had taken place were later disproven, undermined his authority.

However, Johnson showed a strong determination to regain control of the agenda during this period, frequently making major policy announcements or taking controversial actions that were widely viewed as attempts to move the news agenda on from damaging stories. These attempts were met with mixed success. For example, a major new asylum policy was announced the day after the prime minister had received a fine from police for attending a lockdown-breaching party. The policy – in which refugees were to be deported to Rwanda – was significant enough to take some of the pressure off the prime minister. A less successful attempt to control the agenda came in the wake of the publication of a damaging report on the Downing Street parties. Johnson attempted to associate the leader of the opposition, Keir Starmer, with disgraced children's entertainer Jimmy Kimmel, but this was forced the prime minister into an apology and merely added to questions about his leadership.



Johnson

The outbreak of war in Ukraine was one event in 2022 which Johnson managed to handle well. As a strong supporter of President Volodymyr Zelenskyy, Johnson was instrumental in convincing other world leaders to give Zelenskyy more support, and became the first world leader to visit the capital Kyiv. But although Johnson took charge of the Ukrainian crisis, it was his handling of domestic political signals that were piling up – particularly as the war slipped into its second year.

Ultimately, Johnson could be said to have regained some semblance of political control in 2022, despite political pressure that would have probably toppled most leaders in previous years. However, while he showed greater initiative and maintained fewer boundaries than predecessors, his chaotic leadership style also inflamed the controversies that had been plaguing the agenda.

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Keir Starmer

Keir Starmer's Labour Party ousted the Conservatives in the 2024 general election with a 172-seat majority, ending 14 years of consecutive Conservative governance. Elected on the promise to change the UK and reverse years of underinvestment and political instability, Starmer's approach so far has apparently proven disappointing to the electorate, with plunging personal approval ratings and with the Labour Party slumping to third place in many opinion polls.

Starmer's grip on his party started off tight: in their first month Starmer removed 10 MPs from seven MPs for supporting an SNP amendment to scrap the end of 2024 they had promised to get rid of the cap, saying that fiscal consolidation. He chose to avoid a larger rebellion looming on overall welfare reform, forcing

Voting intention polling has taken a dive since taking office, from around 45% Labour in May 2024 to less than 20% in January 2026. With such a large majority be able to obstruct Labour's legislative agenda the same way the Conservative minority government. However, Labour MPs – given the government's unpopularity incentives to be loyal to the government's line.

Starmer's ability to dictate events and determine policy has been largely constrained by global political conditions which Labour found themselves in when they took office. The September 2024 budget in which chancellor Rachel Reeves set about filling the public spending left by the previous government. While announcing big increases also set out tax rises to raise an additional £10 billion, mainly coming from business

Much like Johnson, Starmer has taken well to the global stage and has played international relations particularly around bridging the divides between the UK and Europe, he has made an unprecedented second state visit to President Trump. Starmer stepped up and defend Ukraine, establishing a 'coalition of the willing' to ensure support against Russia (without the United States if necessary) until a peace deal is reached.

But he continues to face an uncompromising media environment. Largely right-wing agenda that much of the television channels follow, and social media is largely dominated by those who have found it expedient to be close to Trump's very right-wing administration. This has become a major media and polling issue despite post-election net migration figures.

Starmer faces the mounting challenges of controlling his party and policy in an increasingly unfriendly press and social media environment, and a right-wing insurgency, and other elements supported by the world's richest nations. All of these factors are inter-related, and it is unclear to what extent the problems stem from Starmer's fault or the political environment. As we write at the start of 2026, Labour still has time to chart a more positive course for government, but only time will tell how Starmer holds up – and whether he ultimately leads that recovery, or is ousted.

Tag Point

What is the cause of Labour's poor polling? Is Starmer's leadership and communication at fault – which is ultimately under his control (or not)? Or is it down to factors that the prime minister can't control well: a hostile media environment, a struggling economy, and relentless geopolitics?

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