

BRITAIN 1983



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A Year Book of the Commonwealth

The present Commonwealth as a free association of sovereign nations is the outcome of the development of self-government in the older British Dominions and, more immediately, of their demand during the First World War for an equally full control of their own foreign policy. This Year Book includes an outline of the constitutional development of the Commonwealth and the nature of Britain's relations with Commonwealth countries, a list of British and Commonwealth representatives and their offices in London, with a description of each of the countries, their histories, organisation, social conditions, industries, economies and constitutions, land policy, government and officers concerned. A useful reference for all seeking concise information on the Commonwealth countries, from Australia to Zimbabwe, and contacts abroad.

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BRITAIN

1983

AN OFFICIAL HANDBOOK



BRITAIN

1983

The Privy Council

Her Majesty's Government

Government Departments

The Civil Service

Local Government

The Fire Services

2 Diplomatic Relations

Membership of the European Community

The Commonwealth

International Peace and Security

Britain and the United Nations

Other International Organisations

Development Co-operation

4 Defence

Civil Defence

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5 Justice and the Law

The Law

Criminal Justice

Civil Justice

Administration of the Law

6 Social Welfare

National Health Service

Personal Social Services

Social Security

Voluntary Service

7 Education

The Youth Service

8 The Environment

AN OFFICIAL HANDBOOK

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The cover shows a diagrammatic representation of optical fibre cables. This new technology is being increasingly used in telecommunications systems (see pp 302 and 219).

The year 1983 has been proclaimed World Communications Year by the United Nations in recognition of the fundamental importance of communications infrastructures in the economic and social development of all countries.

INTRODUCTION

Britain 1983 is the thirty-fourth official handbook in the series ; it has been prepared and revised by Reference Services, Publications Division, of the Central Office of Information. The handbook is widely known as an established work of reference and is the mainstay of the reference facilities provided by British information services in many countries. It is on sale by Her Majesty's Stationery Office throughout the world.

Britain 1983 describes many features in the life of the country, including the workings of the government and other major institutions. It does not attempt an analytical approach to current events.

Care should be taken when studying British statistics to note whether they refer to England, to England and Wales (considered together for many administrative and other purposes), to Great Britain, which comprises England, Wales and Scotland, or to the United Kingdom (which is the same as Britain, that is, Great Britain and Northern Ireland) as a whole.

The factual and statistical information in *Britain 1983* is compiled with the co-operation of other government departments and agencies, and of many other organisations. Sources of more detailed and more topical information (including statistics) are mentioned in the text and a guide to official sources is given in Appendix 2.

The text, generally, is based on information available up to September 1982.

Reference Services
Publications Division
Central Office of Information, London

I LAND AND PEOPLE

INTRODUCTION

Britain comprises Great Britain (England, Wales and Scotland) and Northern Ireland, and is one of the ten member states of the European Community. Its full name is the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Historical Outline

The word Britain derives from Greek and Latin names probably stemming from a Celtic original, which is also reflected in the name of the region of north-western France ('Brittany' in English) settled by migrants from Britain in the fifth and sixth centuries AD. Although, in the prehistoric time scale, the Celts were relatively late arrivals in the British Isles (following cultures which had produced such notable monuments as the stone circles of Avebury and Stonehenge) it is only with them that Britain emerges into recorded history, and the term Celtic is often used rather generally to distinguish the earlier inhabitants of the British Isles from the later Anglo-Saxon invaders.

Following sorties by Julius Caesar in 55 and 54 BC Britain was occupied by the Romans in the first century AD and an ordered civilisation was established under their rule for two or three hundred years except in the territory north of Hadrian's Wall (across northern England) and in some western areas. Christian missionaries arrived not only in Roman Britain but in Scotland and Ireland.

England and Wales

The final Roman withdrawal in the fifth century, however, followed a long period of increasing disorder during which there began raids on the island from northern Europe—mainly by peoples traditionally described as Angles (from Schleswig), Saxons and Jutes. It is from the Angles (who are reputed to have settled mainly in the region now known as East Anglia) that the name England derives. In the following two centuries the raids turned into settlement and the establishment of a number of small kingdoms (with the Britons, or Celts, maintaining an independent existence in the areas now known as Wales and Cornwall). Among these, powerful kingdoms claiming overlordship over the whole country were established, first in the north (Northumbria), then in the central area (Mercia) and finally in the south (Wessex). However, the rise of Wessex in the ninth century was contemporaneous with further raids and settlement from Europe, in this case by the Vikings from Scandinavia. In the tenth century the Wessex dynasty defeated the invading Danes and established a wide-ranging authority in England. A second wave of Danish invasions, however, led to the establishment of a Danish dynasty in England between 1017 and 1042, when the Wessex line was restored.

The last successful invasion of England took place following a disputed succession when Duke William of Normandy (a duchy established by the Vikings and owing only nominal allegiance to the French king) enforced his claims by defeating the English at the Battle of Hastings in 1066. There was considerable settlement by Normans and others from France, French became the language of the nobility for the next three centuries and the

legal and, to some extent, social structure was influenced by that which prevailed across the Channel. The monarchy established by William and his successors was (except in intervals of civil war) considerably more effective both in administrative and military terms than its predecessors and it began to establish its authority over increasingly wide areas of the British Isles. This policy was pushed forward with most energy by Edward I (1272–1307). His most lasting success was in Wales, the main stronghold into which the Britons had retreated. With the death in battle in 1282 of the Welsh Prince Llewellyn the royal authority became firmly established there. Edward gave his own heir the title of 'Prince of Wales' which has subsequently been borne by the eldest son of the sovereign. The rising led by Owain Glyndŵr at the beginning of the fifteenth century showed strong continuing Welsh national feeling but a new dimension to the situation was provided by the accession to the English throne in 1485 of Henry VII of the Welsh House of Tudor. Wales was politically assimilated to England under the Act of Union of 1535.

Scotland

A more difficult problem for English kings was that of relations with Scotland. Hadrian's Wall had proved no insurmountable barrier between the Romans and their northern neighbours, and far-reaching expeditions both by the Romans into Scotland and by the Picts into England took place. In the sixth century the Scots from Ireland or 'Scotia' settled in the areas of Scotland now known as Argyll. What is now Lothian was English in population and Welsh (Britons) moved north from the invading English into Strathclyde. A united kingdom, under the Scots king Kenneth MacAlpine, emerged in the ninth century while Scotland, like England, was endeavouring to defend itself against the Vikings.

Whether and in what sense the Scottish kingdom owed allegiance to that of England was, from its inception, a subject of endless dissension contributing to intermittent and inconclusive border warfare throughout the Middle Ages, though the idea of uniting the two countries by force ended with the English defeat at Bannockburn in 1314.

The eventual unification of the crowns reflected the fact that, after the reformation (Henry VIII's break away in 1534 from the supreme authority of the Roman Catholic Church), old national antagonisms had become less important than religious differences. Following the death of Henry's daughter Elizabeth I in 1603, the Protestant James Stuart, James VI of Scotland, was welcomed to the English throne as James I. England, Wales and Scotland were henceforth known as Great Britain. Apart from the union of the monarchies, however, England and Scotland remained separate during the seventeenth century, except for an enforced unification by Oliver Cromwell early in the brief period of the Commonwealth (1649–1660) after he had defeated royalist forces in Scotland. By the beginning of the following century political and economic arguments for a closer union were making themselves heard in both countries. Eventually, in 1707, both sides agreed on the formation of a single parliament for Great Britain although Scotland retained its own system of law and church settlement. The union was put under strain when Queen Anne died in 1714 and George, Elector of Hanover (descended from James I) succeeded the Stuarts on the British throne. 'Jacobite' rebellions on behalf of the exiled members of the House of Stuart took place in 1715 and 1745 and it was from the highlands of Scotland that they attracted most of their, in the event, rather ineffective support.

Ireland

In Ireland, out of a patchwork of Celtic and pre-Celtic peoples similar to that in Britain, a number of kingdoms had emerged before the Christian era; any supremacy established by one over the others in the following 1,000 years was of a shadowy and temporary nature. In cultural matters Ireland was to compare favourably with the remainder of Europe during the Dark Ages and, in particular, Christianity survived in Ireland when it had been swamped for the time being in England by pagan Anglo-Saxon invaders. Ireland, however, did not escape the incursions of the Vikings, who were to dominate the country during the tenth century.

In 1169 Henry II of England launched an invasion of Ireland, the overlordship of which he had been granted by the Pope who was anxious to bring the Irish church into full obedience to Rome. A large part of the country came under the control of Anglo-Norman magnates but their descendants tended to assimilate to their new country and little direct authority was exercised from England during the Middle Ages.

The Tudor monarchs showed a much greater tendency to intervene in Ireland. Henry VIII's assumption of the title of King of Ireland in 1541 arose from his desire to apply the reformation settlement and from this time on the religious issue was to produce far-reaching and often tragic consequences. The determination to establish royal authority in Ireland was strengthened during the reign of Elizabeth I by the fear that the country might be used by Philip of Spain in his efforts to subjugate England, and a series of bitterly fought campaigns were waged against Irish insurgents. The main focus of the resistance was the northern province of Ulster and, with its collapse in 1607, Ulster became an area of settlement by immigrants from Scotland and England. (There was settlement by immigrants elsewhere in Ireland though on a lesser scale.)

The English civil war of 1642–52 led to further risings in Ireland which were ruthlessly crushed by Cromwell. The restoration of the monarchy in 1660 was followed by the accession of the Roman Catholic James II to the throne in 1685, and there was more fighting after his deposition three years later in favour of the Protestant William of Orange and his wife Mary.

During most of the eighteenth century there was an uneasy peace and towards its end various efforts were made by British governments to achieve stability. In 1782 the Irish Parliament (dating from medieval times) was given legislative independence; the only constitutional tie with England was the Crown. The Parliament represented, however, only the privileged Anglo-Irish minority, who had obtained possession of most of the agricultural land, and Catholics were excluded from it. Against the background of an abortive rebellion in 1798 and the prospect of intervention by France (with which England was at war between 1793 and 1800) the Irish Parliament was induced to vote for union with what, from 1801, was to be the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

The 'Irish question' continued as one of the major problems of British politics during the nineteenth century. In 1886 the Liberal Government under Gladstone introduced a Home Rule Bill which would have given an Irish Parliament authority over most internal matters while reserving to Britain control over external affairs. This led to a split in the Liberal Party and the failure of the Bill. It was not until 1914 that Home Rule was enacted by the Government of Ireland Act. Its implementation was, however, prevented both by the threat of armed resistance on the part of the Protestant majority in Ulster and by the outbreak of the first world war.

A nationalist uprising in Dublin in 1916 was suppressed, but with the end of the first world war a guerrilla force known as the Irish Republican Army (IRA) began operations against the British administration. In 1921 a settlement was reached under which six of the nine counties of the province of Ulster received their own Parliament, but remained represented in and subject to the supreme authority of the British Parliament, while the remainder of Ireland as the Irish Free State (later to become the Irish Republic) became a self-governing state outside the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Channel Islands and Isle of Man

Although the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man are not part of the United Kingdom, they have a special relationship with it because of the antiquity of their connection with the Crown. The Channel Islands were integrated into the Duchy of Normandy in the tenth and eleventh centuries and have been territories of the Crown ever since the Conquest. The Isle of Man was under the nominal sovereignty of Norway until 1266 when it was ceded to Scotland, subsequently passing to the Earls of Derby for a period but eventually coming under the direct administration of the Crown in 1765. Today the territories are Crown dependencies, with their own legislative assemblies and systems of local administration and of law, and their own courts. The British Government is responsible for their defence, their international relations and, ultimately, their good government.

THE FOUR LANDS

In the following pages, brief descriptions of England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland bring together, for each of the countries, a number of topics which are dealt with more fully in later chapters. For Northern Ireland, some background to the present political position is included.

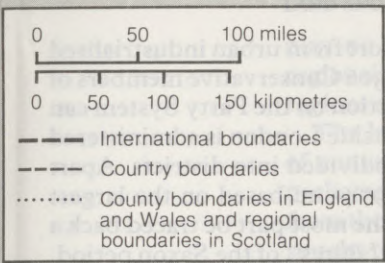
ENGLAND

England is predominantly a lowland country. There are upland regions in the north (the Pennine Chain, the Cumbrian mountains and the Yorkshire moorlands) and in the south-west in Devon and Cornwall. For the most part, however, the country is undulating or flat and, in the south, crossed by low ranges of hills including the Cotswolds and the Kent and Sussex Downs. The greatest concentrations of population are in the London and Thames estuary areas, the west Yorkshire and north-west industrial cities, the midlands conurbation around Birmingham, the north-east conurbation on the rivers Tyne and Tees, and along the Channel coast. (For main urban districts, see Table 2, p 23). Immigration from Europe over the centuries has led to the establishment of Irish and Jewish communities in many of the larger cities. In the latter part of the twentieth century immigrants from the South Asian subcontinent and the Caribbean have also formed distinctive urban communities.

Government

England has no government minister or department exclusively responsible for its central administration of domestic affairs, in contrast to Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. Instead responsibility is shared among a number of government departments, whose responsibilities in some cases also cover aspects of affairs in Wales and Scotland. There are 516 members of Parliament for England in the House of Commons, and arrangements are made for the discussion of English affairs. Traditionally, of the two major political parties, the Conservatives find their support chiefly in rural areas,

Britain



while the Labour Party derives its main support from urban industrialised areas. In the 1979 election England returned 306 Conservative members of Parliament, 203 Labour and 7 Liberal. (A section on the Party System can be found in Chapter 2.) Local government outside London is administered through a two-tier system of 45 counties subdivided into districts. Apart from six metropolitan counties created in 1974 and based on the largest conurbations, the counties' histories can for the most part be traced back a thousand years to the administrative units, or 'shires', of the Saxon period. The two-tier system was introduced among the local government reforms of 1974, in response to the gradual expansion of local authority responsibilities. London is administered, under reforms introduced in 1965, by a central council and 33 bodies responsible for particular areas.

Table 1: General Statistics

	England	Wales	Scotland	Northern Ireland	United Kingdom
Population					
('000, April 1981)	46,221	2,790	5,117	1,547	55,676
Area					
(sq km)	130,439	20,768	78,772	14,121	244,100
(sq miles)	50,363	8,018	30,414	5,452	94,247
Population density					
(persons per sq km, April 1981)	354	134	65	110	228
(persons per sq mile, April 1981)	915	343	168	284	591
Gross domestic product					
(£ per head, 1980)	3,431	2,937	3,229	2,518	3,363
Employees in employment					
('000, mid-1981)	17,890	914	1,927	467	21,198
Percentage of employees in:					
(June 1981, provisional)					
agriculture, forestry and fishing	1.6	2.5	2.3	1.9	1.7
engineering and allied industries	13.5	10.5	10.4	8.0	12.9
all other manufacturing	15.6	15.8	15.0	16.2	15.6
construction	5.0	6.5	7.5	6.1	5.3
mining, quarrying, gas,					
electricity and water	3.0	6.2	3.4	2.3	3.2
service industries	61.3	58.6	61.5	66.0	61.3
Unemployment rate					
(per cent, June 1981)	10.6	13.9	13.5	18.0	11.1
Average gross weekly earnings					
(£, all full-time men, April 1981)	141.0	132.7	140.0	129.7	140.5 ^a
Identifiable public expenditure					
(£ per head, 1980-81)	1,339	1,759	1,696	1,946	—

Sources: See Appendix 2

^aGreat Britain only

Eight 'standard' regions in England are delimited principally for statistical purposes: South East, East Anglia, South West, West Midlands, East Midlands, Yorkshire and Humberside, North West and North. They

play no part in local government and do not always coincide with the regional units adopted by central government departments. (Standard regions are shown on p 169.)

The legal system of England comprises on the one hand a historic body of conventions, known as 'common law' and 'equity', and on the other parliamentary and European Community legislation. Common law stems from the work of the king's judges after the Norman conquest of 1066 who sought to bring together into a single body of legal principles the various local customs of the Anglo-Saxons. Great reliance was placed on precedent, and the practice of reporting on cases commenced in the thirteenth century. Equity law derives from the practice of petitioning the king's Chancellor in cases not covered by common law. The English legal system is therefore distinct from many of those of Western Europe which have codes deriving from Roman Law. The Habeas Corpus Act 1679 is a fundamental statute forbidding imprisonment without trial.

The Economy

Up to the eighteenth century the English economy was mainly agrarian and the chief manufacture was wool cloth. Trade, particularly following voyages of exploration, developed rapidly. London as the capital city, and a major port and mercantile centre, and the textile areas (East Anglia, south-western England and west Yorkshire) were the most populous and prosperous regions. In the late eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, however, rapid growth took place in the midlands, the north-west, west Yorkshire and the north-east, where the coalfields, iron ore deposits and ports permitted Britain to become the first industrialised nation, basing its wealth on coal mining, on the manufacture of iron and steel, heavy machinery and textiles, on shipbuilding and on trade. London enhanced its position with the growing strength of the economy but East Anglia and the west country, remote from areas of industrial development, were affected by agricultural depression, and entered a period of relative decline.

In the twentieth century, the second period of industrialisation, based on new sources of energy, new manufacturing industries and new forms of transport, has continued to change the broad pattern of regional and industrial development in England. In the 1920s and 1930s the northern industrial centres saw their traditional industries weakened owing to fluctuations in world trade and competition from other industrialising countries and, in some cases, from substitute products. London, its surrounding counties and the West Midlands generally benefited from the newer, more mobile, industries. These included chemicals (such as pharmaceuticals, dyes, plastics and artificial fibres), electrical and electronic engineering, vehicle manufacture, aircraft building, instrument engineering, aluminium and rubber manufacture and a wide range of consumer goods, including processed food, drink and tobacco products as well as durables. In the latter half of the century, the continued expansion of the newer industries has combined with the effects of new and expanding towns programmes, aimed at reducing overcrowding in the older urban centres, to produce further economic growth in the counties around London (especially to the north of it), and expansion in East Anglia and in the South West. At the same time successive governments have supported measures to make the older industrial regions attractive to new industries and more recently to revive economic activity in inner urban areas. Rationalisation programmes for the steel, coal and shipbuilding industries have been implemented.

East Anglia, still largely agricultural, was the fastest growing English region in both population and industrial activity in the 1960s and 1970s. Particular growth points have been Peterborough, the east coast ports (which, besides benefiting from relative proximity to the northern European Community countries, have in some cases become important bases for the development of gas resources in the southern North Sea) and nine towns receiving population overspill from London. Food processing, agricultural machinery, vehicle engines and electronic and instrument engineering are the strongest industries, and the service sector has been growing in Cambridge, Ipswich and Norwich.

Greater London and the industrial cities of the West Midlands, the North West, Yorkshire and Humberside and the North continue to represent the largest concentrations of manufacturing industry. London is an important area for products of all kinds including food and drink (especially brewing), instrument engineering, electrical and electronic engineering, clothing, furniture and printing. Of importance in the surrounding south-eastern counties are oil refining (along the Thames and near Southampton), pharmaceuticals, pumps, valves and compressors, instrument engineering, electronics (particularly in Berkshire and Hertfordshire, and around Chelmsford), motor vehicles, aerospace, building materials, timber, paper and plastics products. There is diversity, too, in the North West, with significant activity in food processing (especially grain milling, bread and flour confectionery and biscuits), chemicals of all kinds, textile machinery, insulated wires and cables, computers (Manchester being one of the largest centres in the country), motor vehicles, aerospace, clothing, glass making (with the world's largest flat glass maker, Pilkington's, in St Helens), paper and rubber products. Lancashire is the centre of the cotton and allied textile industries.

The characteristic manufactures of the West Midlands are metals (steel tubes, iron castings and non-ferrous metals), machine tools, electrical engineering, motor vehicles, carpets, pottery (with over 80 per cent of Britain's ceramic industry located in Staffordshire) and rubber production. Of the other regions, Yorkshire and Humberside has important shares of cocoa, chocolate and confectionery production, iron and steel, machine tools, textile machinery, woollen and worsted goods (producing about two-thirds of Britain's wool textiles), carpets, clothing and glass containers. The North has general chemicals, iron and steel, process plant, shipbuilding and marine engineering, and clothing; the East Midlands has steel tubes, iron castings, over two-thirds of Britain's hosiery and knitted goods industry, and footwear; and the South West has food processing (especially dairy products), aerospace, pumps, valves and compressors, and paper products.

In agriculture, large and medium-sized holdings are proportionately more important in England than elsewhere in Britain, and the proportion of mixed holdings has been falling, as part of a general tendency towards greater specialisation. Dairying is most common in the west of England, where the wetter climate encourages the growth of good grass; sheep and cattle are reared in the hilly and moorland areas of northern and south-western England; and arable farming, pig and poultry farming and horticulture are concentrated in the east and south. Horticulture is also important in the West Midlands. Forestry is mainly found in the North, South East and South West regions. The principal fishing ports are in the South West and on the east coast.

England has plentiful energy resources in its coalfields and from nuclear power stations and has access to offshore oil and gas reserves. (The electricity grid of England and Wales is the largest interconnected power network under unified control in the Western world.) About 60 per cent of Britain's deepmined coal is produced in the East Midlands and Yorkshire coalfields, the former being the most productive in the country. There are seven nuclear power stations around the coasts of southern England, and projects to construct two more in the north and one on the south coast are nearing completion. The world's first large-scale nuclear power station was established at Calder Hall in Cumbria in 1956, while substantial investment in reprocessing capacity is being undertaken nearby. Important mineral deposits in England include aggregates for the construction industry (sand, gravel and crushed rock), industrial minerals (including clay, salt from the North West and china clay from Cornwall), tin ore, also from Cornwall, and iron ore from the East Midlands and Humberside. Investment in water resources includes the construction of the Kielder Reservoir in Northumbria, completed in 1980; when filled, in 1982, it became one of Europe's largest man-made lakes.

A motorway network has been constructed in England since the 1950s and at present comprises four long-distance arterial routes linking London and the cities of the midlands, the north and north-west and the south-west, and over 30 shorter motorways, mainly near London and Manchester. Priority is being given to the London orbital route and schemes of industrial importance. Inter-city travel has been improved by the introduction of high-speed rail services which are among the fastest in the world. Many ports have been equipped to deal with new developments in shipping (such as container ships) and to take account of changes in the nature of trade brought about by the increase in oil traffic through North Sea ports. The major airports are Heathrow (the largest international airport in the world) and Gatwick, both serving London, and Manchester and Luton.

Employment in service industries has accounted for an increasing share of total employment in recent years, expansion being particularly marked in financial and business services. London is one of the world's leading centres of banking, insurance and other financial services. Decentralisation of some office services from the capital has led to a growth in office employment in the South West and East Anglia in particular. London and the surrounding counties account for two-thirds of advertising and market research activity, more than half of all services offered by research establishments (other than those attached to businesses), half of central government services and nearly half of non-food wholesale distribution in England. After London and the South East, the North West, with its main centre in Manchester, is the next most important concentration of service industries. Tourism and catering have also expanded: overseas visitors spent about £2,725 million in England in 1981, two-thirds of it in London. They are, however, tending to spend more time in areas outside London in the south-east, the south-west and the midlands. The south-west is the most popular region for domestic tourism, accounting for more than a fifth of main holidays. The Lake District, with 11 major lakes, and peaks including Scafell (England's highest point, at 978 metres, 3,210 feet), is also very popular with walkers and climbers.

Cultural and Social Life

Cultural life in England takes so many forms that a brief summary can only attempt to suggest its variety. London alone has about 40 main 'West End'

theatres, a similar number of small 'fringe' theatres, about a dozen major centres for music concerts, ballet and opera, seven major art galleries, a dozen major museums (with over 80 smaller galleries and museums), some 400 public libraries, and over 140 West End, local and independent cinemas. In a typical week there are some 50 lectures, 30 poetry readings, and over 500 jazz, rock or folk music performances, as well as discotheques, bingo halls, amusement arcades, ice and roller skating rinks and swimming pools. With its ceremonial occasions, palaces, other historic buildings and shops, London is also one of the world's leading tourist centres. About 15 attractions (Westminster Abbey, the Tower of London, Madame Tussaud's, the London Zoo and the museums and art galleries) each receive more than a million visitors a year.

Because of its size and its position as the capital city, London is not representative of the rest of England, but much the same broad range of cultural interests is reflected in most other cities and towns. There are, for example, about 280 theatre centres and 110 fringe theatres elsewhere in England, the combined total representing an increase of over 20 theatres between 1975 and 1981. The English Tourist Board lists some 1,130 art galleries, museums, and similar institutions in the rest of England. A recent development has been the growth of leisure centres where a wide range of recreations is offered. Distinctive features of the northern industrial cities are special social clubs, working men's clubs, which attract major international entertainers. In addition to urban cultural activities there are many rural or outdoor recreations which are strongly supported and there is active interest in numerous games and sports, many of them having been devised in England.

The English love of gardens and landscapes is associated with a tradition of sightseeing visits to the numerous country houses, gardens and unspoilt rural and coastal areas. There are seven national parks, two forest parks, some 30 designated 'areas of outstanding natural beauty', about 140 country parks approved by the Countryside Commission, 550 'outstanding conservation areas', 620 km (385 miles) of designated heritage coastline and 1,550 historic buildings and gardens listed by the English Tourist Board. New developments include the opening of safari and wildlife parks and of 'theme' parks devoted, for example, to maritime history, which offer a diversity of entertainments as well. Many regions and towns have associations with the great English writers and artists, such as William Shakespeare, William Wordsworth, Jane Austen, Charles Dickens, the Brontë sisters, Thomas Hardy, Thomas Gainsborough and John Constable.

WALES

Wales is a country of hills and mountains with extensive tracts of high plateau and shorter stretches of mountain ranges deeply dissected by river valleys. The highest mountains are in Snowdonia in the north-west; the highest peak is Snowdon (1,085 metres, 3,560 feet). The lower-lying ground is largely confined to the relatively narrow coastal belt and the lower parts of the river valleys. The main areas of settlement are in the southern valleys and coastal areas where two-thirds of the population live. The chief urban centres are Cardiff, Swansea and Newport. Wales is a principality; Prince Charles, the heir to the throne, was invested by the Queen with the title of Prince of Wales at a special ceremony at Caernarfon Castle in 1969 when he was 21.

The country has its own Welsh language, spoken (according to the 1981 census) by 19 per cent of the population, chiefly in the rural north and west.

The Welsh name of the country is Cymru. Measures have been adopted since the 1960s to revive the use of the language, which is of Celtic origin, and closely resembles Breton, spoken in Brittany in France. They include recognising the equal validity of Welsh with English in law courts, the encouragement of bilingual education in schools, and the extended use of Welsh for official purposes and in broadcasting. A fourth television channel is being established which will transmit Welsh-language television programmes.

There is no established church in Wales, the Anglican church having been disestablished in 1920 following decades of pressure from adherents of the more evangelical Methodist and Baptist persuasions. Methodism in particular had spread rapidly in Wales in the eighteenth century, assuming the nature of a popular movement among Welsh speakers and finding strong support later in industrial communities.

Government

The country returns 36 of the 635 elected members of Parliament and there are special arrangements for the discussion of Welsh affairs. For the last 60 years the industrial communities of Wales have always supported the Labour Party in elections, ensuring a Labour majority in Wales. In the 1979 election 21 Labour, 11 Conservative, 2 Plaid Cymru (Welsh Nationalist) and 1 Liberal members were returned. The remaining Welsh seat is held by the Speaker. Substantial administrative autonomy is Centred on the Secretary of State for Wales, who is a member of the Cabinet, and has wide-ranging responsibilities relating to the economy, welfare services and the provision of amenities. The headquarters of the administration is the Welsh Office in Cardiff, which also has an office in London. In 1979 proposals for the establishment of an elected Welsh assembly in Cardiff to take over policymaking and executive powers from central government were rejected in a referendum held in Wales. Local government is exercised through a system of elected authorities similar to that of the English counties, and the legal system is identical with that of England.

The Economy

The south Wales coalfield was developed during the latter part of the industrial revolution in the second half of the nineteenth century creating populous urban centres which drew labour from the rural areas and from England and Ireland. However, the economy was narrowly based, mainly on coal, iron, steel and tinplate, and contracted sharply during the 1920s and 1930s, resulting in severe employment problems and substantial emigration. Since 1945 the Government's regional policies have introduced a diverse spread of manufacturing firms to help to offset the contraction in the traditional basic industries. These new firms have included investment by a growing number of overseas firms, most recently, for example, by the Ford Motor Company and Japanese and American electronics concerns. (Wales is now developing as an important centre for electronics in Britain.) In addition, there is a range of modern light engineering concerns as well as chemical and plastics plants, while the Royal Mint was transferred to Llantrisant from London in 1968. South Wales remains the principal industrial area but new manufacturing firms have also been introduced on the smaller coalfield in north-east Wales, around Wrexham and Deeside, again to offset the decline in the older, basic industries which previously dominated the area. Light industry has also been attracted to the towns in the rural areas in mid- and north Wales and an important refinery complex has developed around Milford Haven which is one of Britain's major oil ports.

Agriculture occupies about 72 per cent of the land area, the main activities being sheep and cattle rearing in the hill regions and dairy farming in the lowlands. Wales accounts for about 11 per cent of forest area in Britain and about 20 per cent of public sector (Forestry Commission) timber production.

Wales produces about 9 per cent of Britain's coal, including all of its anthracite, and 9 per cent of its electricity; one of the biggest pumped storage power stations in the world is under construction at Dinorwic. There are nuclear power stations at Wylfa and Trawsfynydd. Wales exports about a third of its water supply to England.

Communications in the south have been greatly improved, with the building of the Severn Bridge and the completion of motorway and high-speed rail links with England.

There has been expansion in financial and professional services and in the tourism and catering trades. With its north coast resorts, and the attractions of three national parks (Snowdonia, the Brecon Beacons and the Pembrokeshire Coast), Wales accounts for 15 per cent of Britain's domestic tourism.

Cultural and Social Life

There is much literary, musical and dramatic activity in Wales and there is a National Library and National Museum. Welsh literature is one of the oldest in Europe. The country is well known for its choral singing and the Welsh National Opera has achieved an international reputation. The special festivals of Wales, known as eisteddfodau, encourage Welsh literature and music. The greatest of these is the Royal National Eisteddfod of Wales, held annually, entirely in Welsh, and consisting of competitions in music, singing, prose and poetry. The small town of Llangollen has extended its eisteddfod to include artists from all over the world in the annual International Eisteddfod. Famous modern Welsh artists have included the opera singer Sir Geraint Evans and the poet Dylan Thomas. The politicians David Lloyd George (former Prime Minister) and Aneurin Bevan were noted orators in a strong Welsh tradition. An active local press includes a number of Welsh language publications. Great interest is aroused by the annual rugby football competition in which sides representing Wales, England, Scotland, Ireland and France take part.

Health services are provided mainly under the National Health Service, administered by the Welsh Office, while personal social services, and education (except at university level), are provided mainly through the local authorities. Educational provision is similar to that in England except for the use of Welsh in some schools. The collegiate University of Wales, founded in 1893, comprises seven member institutions. Wales has more old houses than other regions of Britain, a situation which is being tackled by substantial programmes of improvement and rehabilitation.

SCOTLAND

Scotland may be divided broadly into three areas: the sparsely populated highlands and islands in the north, accounting for just over half the total area of the country; the central lowlands, an area of undulating country, with some hill ranges and containing three-quarters of the population and most of the industrial centres and cultivated farmland; and the southern uplands, containing a number of hill ranges, which border on England. The highest mountains are the Grampians in the central highlands, with Ben Nevis (1,342 metres, 4,406 feet) the highest peak. The chief urban centres are the capital, Edinburgh, the main industrial centre, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Dundee.

The period from 1750 onwards has been one of considerable and continuous emigration of Scots to England and overseas. The rate slowed markedly in the 1970s as the offshore oil and gas industries developed and there was inward migration to the north-east of Scotland. The large outflow of people from Strathclyde has continued, however, though at a lower level than before. In the mid-nineteenth century, as Scotland industrialised rapidly, there was large-scale immigration from Ireland, which led to the establishment of sizeable Roman Catholic communities.

The period from 1750 until the beginning of the twentieth century was also one of stability and economic progress and of remarkable achievements in many fields. Among the famous men to emerge were David Hume, Adam Smith, Robert Adam, James Watt, John MacAdam, Lord Kelvin and James Clerk-Maxwell.

The Church of Scotland, which became the established church in 1690, has complete freedom in all matters of doctrine, order and discipline. It is a Protestant church which is Presbyterian in form—that is, governed by a hierarchy of church courts, each of which includes laymen.

Government

There are special arrangements for the conduct of Scottish affairs within the British system of government and separate Acts of Parliament are passed for Scotland where appropriate. In the 1979 general election the 71 Scottish seats in the House of Commons were apportioned as follows: Labour 44, Conservative 22, Liberal 3 and Scottish National 2. Since 1959 Scotland, like Wales, has had a majority of Labour members of Parliament. Administrative tasks relating to a wide range of economic and social functions are the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland, a member of the Cabinet, working through the Scottish Office, with its administrative headquarters in Edinburgh, and an office in London. As in Wales, a referendum held in Scotland in 1979 revealed insufficient support for an elected assembly in Scotland.

Local government generally operates on a two-tier basis broadly similar to that in England and Wales but established by separate legislation.

The principles and procedures of the Scottish legal system (particularly in civil law) differ in many respects from those of England and Wales, stemming from the adoption of elements of other European legal systems, based on Roman law, during the sixteenth century.

Economy

In the first half of the twentieth century Scotland experienced the same pressure on its chief industries as did the north of England and Wales, but there has been considerable transition in the economy since 1945.

The most important development has been the expansion of offshore-related industries following the discovery of oil and gas under the North Sea. Some 80,000 to 95,000 jobs have arisen directly or indirectly as a result of North Sea activities. While some traditional industries (coal, steel, shipbuilding, textiles) have been in decline for a number of decades, oil-related expansion has helped other traditional industries such as engineering, and has combined with growth in newer industries, government regional aid, and a high level of investment by overseas companies (especially from the United States), to produce new areas of growth. The north and north-east of Scotland have benefited most from the offshore developments, with Aberdeen as the administrative centre.

Prominent among other newer industries is electronic engineering which has developed greatly in the industrial centres of the Strathclyde, Lothian

and Tayside regions. Scotland is now an important electronics and high technology centre. Employment has also grown in chemicals, especially petrochemicals, food and drink industries and light engineering. The five new towns (East Kilbride, Glenrothes, Livingston, Irvine and Cumbernauld) have been notable growth areas.

The traditional Scottish manufactures—shipbuilding, textiles (high quality tweeds, Harris tweed being especially well known, woollens and knitwear) and whisky distilling—remain important.

Scotland has one-third of Britain's total agricultural land, but 70 per cent of it consists of hill grazing for cattle and sheep. About 10 per cent of the agricultural area is used for crops, and 70 per cent of this is under barley. Scotland accounts for half of Britain's forest area and for 40 per cent of public sector timber production. Fishing remains an important activity: more than 60 per cent of total landings of fish in Britain are made by Scottish vessels.

Despite the advent of oil, Scotland remains heavily dependent on electricity and gas. Nuclear and hydro-electric generation supply a higher proportion of energy than in any other part of Britain. Large supplies of unpolluted water form a major resource.

Communications, both domestic and international, have improved in many central and coastal areas, particularly in the north and north-east, owing to the stimulus of the offshore oil industry and road and bridge-building programmes.

The offshore oil industry has also encouraged expansion in financial and business services which have been traditionally strong in Scotland. Tourism is of major importance and accounts for 10 per cent of domestic tourism in Britain. Scotland's cultural and historic associations, its varied scenic beauty, and the opportunities for sport and recreation are particular attractions. Scotland is the home of golf and courses at St Andrews, Gleneagles, Turnberry and Prestwick are internationally renowned. Skiing is growing in importance, with centres at Aviemore, Glenshee, Glencoe and Lecht.

Cultural and Social Life

A vigorous cultural life in Scotland has as its highlight the annual Edinburgh International Festival. The Scottish Arts Council (a committee of the Arts Council of Great Britain with a large degree of autonomy) supports a wide range of activities. Notable performing arts bodies are the Scottish National Orchestra, Scottish Opera, Scottish Ballet, Scottish Chamber Orchestra, Scottish Baroque Ensemble and the BBC Scottish Symphony Orchestra. Scotland possesses excellent collections of the fine and applied arts, notably in the National Galleries of Scotland, the Royal Scottish Museum and the National Museum of Antiquities in Edinburgh, and the City of Glasgow Museums and Art Galleries.

A language of ancient Celtic origin, Scots Gaelic, is spoken by some 80,000 people mainly in the islands and north-west of Scotland. It is the indigenous language, with its own literary background. Scottish people in the lowlands have for centuries spoken a dialect of English known as 'Scots' or 'Lallans', which has its own recognised literary tradition and has seen a revival in recent times.

An active press includes two daily newspapers based in Edinburgh and Glasgow which have circulation outside Scotland. There are ten other dailies and four Sunday newspapers. Articles in some papers are printed in Gaelic. Television programmes are produced by BBC (Scotland) and by

three independent companies, covering the highland, lowland and border regions. BBC Radio Scotland covers most of the population and there are five 'community' services in the highlands and islands, two of them mainly in Gaelic. Independent radio stations provide services for Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dundee/Perth, Aberdeen, Ayr and Inverness.

As in the rest of Britain the National Health Service, and local authority social service, education and housing programmes provide for the welfare of the community.

Local authorities are responsible for the provision of most education, except at university level. Secondary education in Scotland is almost completely organised on comprehensive lines. Independent bodies administer vocational further education institutions and colleges of education. There are eight universities, of which four (St Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh) were established in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, while the other four have been established since 1964. The educational tradition has been particularly strong in Scotland, helping many Scots to positions of eminence in the arts and sciences.

Over 50 per cent of Scotland's housing has been built since 1945, only Northern Ireland having a larger percentage. Scotland has a high proportion of housing rented from public authorities—over 50 per cent compared with a national average of just over 30 per cent.

NORTHERN IRELAND

Northern Ireland is at its nearest point only 21 kilometres (13 miles) from Scotland. It has a 412-kilometre (256-mile) border in the south and west with the Irish Republic. At its centre lies Lough Neagh, Britain's largest freshwater lake (368 square km, 142 square miles). Many of the principal towns lie in valleys leading from the Lough, including the capital, Belfast, which stands at the mouth of the river Lagan. The Mourne Mountains rising sharply in the south-east include Slieve Donard, Northern Ireland's highest peak (852 metres, 2,796 feet).

Just under two-thirds of Northern Ireland's population are descendants of Scots or English settlers who crossed to north-eastern Ireland mainly in the seventeenth century; most belong to the Protestant faith, and have a traditional loyalty to the maintenance of the union with Great Britain. The remainder, over a third, are Irish in origin, mainly Roman Catholic and, in varying degrees, nationalist in political opinion, favouring union with the Irish Republic. Deeply divided for generations, both sides of the community have tended to see themselves as besieged minorities—Protestants as a minority in the whole of Ireland, Roman Catholics as a minority within Northern Ireland.

Government: Background to Civil Disturbances

From 1921 Northern Ireland had its own Parliament in which the mainly Protestant 'Unionists' formed the Government after successive elections. Roman Catholics in the community resented this continuing domination, and their exclusion from political office was accompanied by discrimination in such matters as housing, employment and local voting rights. Although substantial advances for the whole population were achieved in social welfare and economic development, in some respects provision for the Roman Catholics lagged behind that for the Protestants, and during the late 1960s an active and articulate civil rights movement emerged.

The sectarian disturbances which followed and the introduction of the Army in 1969 in a peace-keeping role were exploited by extremists from both sections of the community, notably the Provisional Irish Republican

Army (which broke away from the Official IRA in 1970, claiming to protect the Roman Catholic minority). Subsequently, sectarian divisions have been exacerbated by the actions of terrorists from both sides.

The demands of the civil rights movement were met by a series of reforms. Among the most important were measures to ensure the proper representation of minorities in local government and fairer housing allocations in the public sector.

More recent measures include the outlawing of religious and political discrimination in employment, and the establishment of an independent police complaints board. Commissioners have been appointed to look into complaints of maladministration, including discrimination, by central or local government; actions by official bodies have been made illegal if they discriminate on religious or political grounds; a human rights commission has been set up; and a law against sex discrimination has been implemented. While terrorism continues, certain emergency powers are in force (see p 102), but there has been much concern to reconcile them as far as possible with respect for individual liberties; the measures are temporary, need regular renewal by Parliament and are subject to independent review. Most traditional rights, including the freedom of the communications media and the right to prosecute the security forces if they exceed their authority, remain in force. Northern Ireland's legal system, and the safeguards it enshrines, is broadly similar to that in England and Wales.

The activities of many groups and individuals have indicated a wish in both parts of the community to overcome intimidation by armed terrorists and to resolve sectarian conflict by peaceful means, and, although terrorism continues, the level of violence is much lower than some years ago. The police take the primary role of maintaining order; the Army's task is one of assisting the civil authorities, and the number of soldiers on service has been considerably reduced. Security policy rests on the principle of fair and effective enforcement of the law by bringing terrorists to justice through the courts. They are tried for criminal offences and not for political beliefs. At the heart of the policy is a determination to develop the effectiveness of the police to the point where military involvement in the maintenance of law and order is no longer needed.

Direct Rule and Political Initiatives

When, despite the Northern Ireland Government's substantial reform programme, the intercommunal violence continued, the United Kingdom Government concluded that the best hope of ending terrorism and achieving political progress would be for the United Kingdom Parliament and Government to take over the responsibilities for law and order in Northern Ireland. The Northern Ireland Government felt unable to accept this and resigned, and in 1972 a period of 'direct rule' began, with a United Kingdom Cabinet minister responsible for functions previously exercised by the Northern Ireland Government and for the Northern Ireland departments (see p 57).

Several major but unsuccessful initiatives towards stable and effective devolved government supported by both sides of the community have since been made. A new constitution which devolved powers to an elected legislative assembly, and a 'power-sharing' executive representing all sections of the community, encountered Protestant 'Loyalist' opposition culminating in a general strike in 1974; in 1976 an elected constitutional convention failed to agree on a system of government that would command widespread acceptance; in 1978 a planned framework for a form of

devolution to consolidate common ground among the political parties was rejected; and in 1980 there was a political conference and extensive discussions. In 1981 the appointment of a Northern Ireland Council to advise the Secretary of State was proposed but the political parties in Northern Ireland were not prepared to accept this.

In 1982 the Government's policy continued to rest on the two fundamental principles that, first, there would be no change in Northern Ireland's status as part of the United Kingdom without the consent of the majority of people of Northern Ireland, and second, any form of devolved government must be acceptable to both sides of the community. In April, the Government published proposals for the establishment of an elected, 78-seat, Northern Ireland Assembly with scrutinising, deliberative and consultative functions and with a remit to recommend arrangements for partial or full devolution of powers. The necessary legislation was enacted and elections to the Assembly are to be held in October. The Government believes that political progress is essential if peace and stability are to be restored and a sounder economy promoted.

The future of Northern Ireland is a matter for the United Kingdom Government and Parliament and the people of Northern Ireland, and the principle of self-determination is enshrined in law. A 1973 'border poll' showed clearly that the majority of people in Northern Ireland wished to remain part of the United Kingdom. At the same time, the Government attaches importance to co-operation with the Irish Republic, particularly in security matters.

Northern Ireland at present returns 12 representatives to the United Kingdom Parliament but the number is to be increased to 17.

The Economy

Northern Ireland's geographical position on the western edge of Europe, its lack of many mineral or energy resources (both coal and oil have to be imported), and the small size of the local market have all tended to favour the concentration of industry and population on the eastern seaboard close to trading links with the rest of the United Kingdom. Most of Northern Ireland's trade is with, or through, Great Britain. With certain exceptions, the parts of the region beyond the immediate influence of the industrialised area around Belfast have stayed mainly rural, with generally small and often scattered communities relying mainly on farming.

Much of the nineteenth and early twentieth century growth of the economy derived from important linen and shipbuilding industries supported by a large agricultural sector. Since the mid-1950s major changes have taken place, and the former dependence on a few traditional industries has given way to a far more diversified industrial structure—to a considerable extent as a result of policies to encourage industrial development in order to broaden the region's economic base. At the same time there has been a marked growth in the service sector.

Belfast has Britain's largest shipyard; and other well-established industrial activities include the manufacture of aircraft, textile machinery and a wide range of engineering products, tobacco and clothing. There has also been extensive development in vehicle components, oil-well equipment, electronic instruments, telecommunications equipment, carpets and synthetic rubber.

Agriculture (predominantly livestock and products) is still the single most important industry, and accounts directly for almost a tenth of total civil employment, over three times the proportion in Britain as a whole.

The Government's economic measures have helped to promote major industrial development in Northern Ireland despite the effects of terrorism. However, the world recession has led to rising unemployment as in the rest of the country; the Northern Ireland unemployment rate is persistently the highest of any of the standard regions. To meet this special problem successive governments have offered higher incentives than are available in the rest of the country to encourage new investment both from within Britain and from overseas, and assistance to mitigate high energy costs. Between 1945 and the end of 1981 more than 300 industrial establishments were set up with government help; together they employed almost half the total manufacturing workforce. Northern Ireland's productivity and industrial relations records for some years have been better than those in the country as a whole.

The modern diversification of the economy has helped to stimulate output, productivity and incomes, and has assisted in narrowing the gap between living standards in Northern Ireland and those in the rest of the United Kingdom. Gross domestic product per person, which tends to be depressed in Northern Ireland relative to the country as a whole as a result of higher unemployment, lower activity rates and larger family sizes, has nonetheless risen from just under two-thirds of the British average in 1963 to about four-fifths. Average earnings are more than nine-tenths of the national average.

The principle underlying Northern Ireland's financial relations with the rest of the country is that it has parity, both of taxation and services, with England, Scotland and Wales. To maintain social services at the level of those in Great Britain, to meet the cost of security measures, and to compensate for the natural disadvantages of geography and lack of resources, the United Kingdom Government made transfers to Northern Ireland amounting to £1,001 million in 1981-82.

Cultural and Social Life

Despite the civil unrest and economic recession, for thousands of visitors (59,000 in 1981), as well as for local people, Northern Ireland's landscape and natural features, its cultural traditions and its festivals continue to offer special attractions. For many North Americans the land from which their forebears emigrated (a number of United States presidents have been descended from Northern Ireland families) has a unique interest. The story of this contribution to American life, the history of Northern Ireland, and aspects of its culture—from the dialects and strong literary tradition (poets Louis MacNeice and Seamus Heaney have international reputations) to the songs and dances and folk art—are recorded in the Ulster-American Folk Park, the Ulster Museum and the Ulster Folk and Transport Museum respectively.

With its own Arts Council, Northern Ireland has orchestras, much theatre and ballet and the restored Belfast Grand Opera House. The Queen's Festival, one of several annual events, is a major international occasion. The strong arts tradition has produced such soloists as flautist James Galway and soprano Heather Harper.

In day-to-day social life Northern Ireland is in many ways similar to the rest of the United Kingdom. The National Health Service provides both hospital and practitioner services, and health and personal social services correspond fairly closely although the administrative framework is different. Education, too, is much the same, from school to university level; emphasis on the comprehensive principle in secondary schools has,

however, been very small. Housing and the improvement of the urban environment present significant, though not unique, problems for the authorities, notably in Belfast where a continuing rehabilitation programme is being carried out, but planning and conservation arrangements are much like those in the rest of the country.

Distinctive local programmes are broadcast and there is a local press; national radio and television networks are received, however, and the national press is sold widely. Sport plays an important role in the community, and many world-class sportsmen and women have come from Northern Ireland.

PHYSICAL FEATURES

Britain constitutes the greater part of the British Isles, a geographical term for a group of islands lying off the north-west coast of mainland Europe. The largest of the islands is Great Britain (the mainlands of England, Wales and Scotland). The next largest comprises Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic. Off the southern coast of England is the Isle of Wight and off the extreme south-west are the Isles of Scilly; off north Wales is Anglesey. Western Scotland is fringed by small islands and to the north-east are the Orkneys and Shetlands. All these have administrative ties with the mainland, but the Isle of Man in the Irish Sea and the Channel Islands between Great Britain and France are largely self-governing, and are not part of England, Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland.

Britain's area is some 244,100 square km (94,200 square miles), of which nearly 99 per cent is land and the remainder inland water. This is about the same size as the Federal Republic of Germany, New Zealand or Uganda, and half the size of France. It is just under 1,000 km (some 600 miles) from the south coast to the extreme north of Scotland and just under 500 km (some 300 miles) across in the widest part. There are numerous bays and inlets and no place in Britain is as much as 120 km (75 miles) from tidal water. The prime meridian of 0° passes through the old observatory at Greenwich (London).

The seas surrounding the British Isles are shallow—usually less than 90 metres (50 fathoms or 300 feet)—because the islands lie on the continental shelf. To the north-west along the edge of the shelf the sea floor plunges abruptly from 180 metres (some 600 feet) to 900 metres (about 3,000 feet). The shallow waters are important because they provide breeding grounds for fish. The North Atlantic current, the drift of warm water which reaches the islands from across the Atlantic, spreads out over the shelf magnifying its ameliorating effect on the air.

Britain has a generally mild and temperate climate. The prevailing winds are south-westerly and the weather from day to day is mainly influenced by depressions moving eastwards across the Atlantic. The weather is subject to frequent changes but to few extremes of temperature. It is rarely above 32°C (90°F) or below -10°C (14°F). Near sea level in the west the mean annual temperature ranges from 8°C (46°F) in the Hebrides to 11°C (52°F) in the extreme south-west of England; latitude for latitude it is slightly lower in the east. The mean monthly temperature in the extreme north, at Lerwick (Shetland), ranges from 3°C (37°F) during the winter (December, January and February) to 12°C (54°F) during the summer (June, July and August): the corresponding figures for the Isle of Wight, in the extreme south, are 5°C (41°F) and 16°C (61°F). The annual rainfall is about 1,100

millimetres (over 40 inches), the mountainous areas of the west and north having far more rain than the lowlands of the south and east. Rain is fairly well distributed throughout the year, but, on average, March to June are the driest months and September to January the wettest. The distribution of sunshine shows a general decrease from south to north, a decrease from the coast inland, and a decrease with altitude. During May, June and July (the months of longest daylight) the mean daily duration of sunshine varies from five hours in northern Scotland to eight hours in the Isle of Wight; during the months of shortest daylight (November, December and January) sunshine is at a minimum, with an average of half an hour a day in northern Scotland and two hours a day on the south coast of England.

THE SOCIAL FRAMEWORK

The way of life of the people of Britain has been changing rapidly in the twentieth century. As in many other countries underlying causes include two major wars, a lower birth rate, longer expectation of life, a higher divorce rate, widening educational opportunities, technical progress, and a better standard of living.

This section deals with the social framework in very broad and informal terms as a background to the information given in later chapters.

POPULATION

With nearly 56 million people, Britain ranks about fourteenth in the world in terms of population. The estimated home population in April 1981 was 55,676,000 compared with 38.2 million in 1901, about 6.5 million at the end of the seventeenth century and some 2 million at the end of the eleventh century. Early figures are based on contemporary estimates, but from the beginning of the nineteenth century relatively plentiful and reliable information is available. Most of it comes from two main sources: the regular flow of statistical information based on compulsory registration of births, marriages and deaths, and the censuses taken regularly every ten years since 1801 (because of war there was no census in 1941). The most recent was in April 1981. In the period 1975–78 for the first years since records began (other than in war) the population fell slightly, reflecting a temporary decline in the birth rate. The upward trend was resumed in 1979. Projections for the future suggest that population growth will take place at a much slower rate than was expected a few years ago. Britain's total population is expected, on 1979 estimates, to be 56.4 million in 1986, 58.4 million in 2001 and 59.6 million in 2016.

Birth Rates

In 1981 there were 730,000 live births (25 per cent less than in 1966) which outnumbered deaths (657,000) by 73,000. The birth rate declined from 18 live births per 1,000 people in 1966 to an unprecedentedly low figure of 11.8 in 1977, but by 1981 had recovered to 13.1. Most of the recent rise represents an increase in the rate of childbearing, only a small part being attributable to increasing numbers of women of childbearing age. Nevertheless, as in many other developed countries, the fertility rate (63 births per 1,000 women of childbearing age) is low compared with past rates and remains below the level required for the long-term replacement of the population.

Several factors may have contributed to the relatively low birth rate. Contraception has become more widespread and effective, making it easier to plan families, and sterilisation of men and women has also become more

common. An appreciable proportion of pregnancies (about 40 per cent of those conceived outside marriage and 8 per cent of those conceived within marriage) are ended by legal abortion.

The postponement of conception within marriage coupled with a trend towards later marriage has led to an increase, to 25, in the average age at which women have their first child in marriage. Another feature is the current preference for smaller families, especially two-children families, than in the past, which has led to a significant decline in the proportion of families with four or more children.

Mortality

At birth the expectation of life for a man is about 70 years and for a woman 76 years compared with 49 years for men and 52 years for women in 1901. The improving health of the population has mainly had the effect of increasing young people's chances of reaching the older age groups. Life expectancy in the older age groups has increased relatively little.

The general death rate has remained about the same for the past 50 years, at about 12 per 1,000 population, reflecting the gradual ageing of the population since there has been a considerable decline in mortality at most ages, particularly among children and young adults. The infant mortality rate (deaths of infants under one year old per 1,000 live births) was 12.1 in 1980; neonatal mortality (deaths of infants under four weeks old per 1,000 live births) was 7.7; and maternal mortality was 0.1 per 1,000 live births.

The causes of the decline in mortality include better nutrition, rising standards of living, the advance of medical science, the growth of medical facilities, improved health measures, better working conditions, education in personal hygiene, and the smaller size of families. Major changes since 1951 in the causes of death have included the virtual disappearance of deaths resulting from infectious diseases (notably tuberculosis) and an increase in the proportion of deaths caused by circulatory diseases (including heart attacks and strokes) and by cancer.

Marriage and Divorce

During the last decade there has been a marked change in the pattern of marriage. In 1972 there were 480,300 marriages in Britain, but the number declined to 404,000 in 1977, before recovering to 418,000 in 1980. The proportion of the population of England and Wales who were or had been married has remained at around 60 per cent. Of the population aged 16 or over in England and Wales in 1980, 65 per cent were married, 23 per cent single, over 9 per cent widowed and 3 per cent divorced (more than three times the proportion in 1961). The trend of the 1960s towards earlier marriage was reversed at the beginning of the 1970s, since when there has been a slow increase in the average age for first marriages, which in England and Wales is now just over 25 for men and 23 for women. Remarriages (of one or both parties) account for about one-third of all marriages in Great Britain, compared with 20 per cent in 1971 and 15 per cent in 1961, and about 10 per cent of all marriages are remarriages where both partners had previously been divorced.

The divorce rate has been increasing steadily and in 1980 about 12 decrees of divorce were made absolute for every 1,000 married couples in England and Wales, compared with 2 in 1961. The rates are much lower in Scotland and Northern Ireland. In 1980 about 158,000 divorces were granted in Britain; the proportion granted to wives was about 70 per cent. The average age of people at the time of divorce in England and Wales has been falling and is now about 38 for men and 35 for women.

Another feature, common to many other Western European countries, has been a considerable increase in cohabitation. It was reported in the 1979 *General Household Survey* that nearly 20 per cent of women in Great Britain marrying in the late 1970s where the marriage was the first for both parties had lived with their husbands before marriage (compared with 7 per cent in the early 1970s) and about 10 per cent of women not currently married were cohabiting. Cohabitation occurs more frequently for separated or divorced women than for single women. There is some evidence of a growing number of stable non-married relationships and in the proportion of illegitimate births (which now account for about 11 per cent of live births in Britain compared with 6 per cent in 1961) registered by both parents.

Age and Sex Structure

Although the total population has remained relatively stable in the last decade, there have been noticeable changes in the age and sex structure, including a decline in the proportion of young people under 16 and an increase in the proportion of elderly people, especially those aged 85 and over. The estimated age distribution of the British population in mid-1981 was roughly as follows: under 16 years, about 22 per cent; 16-64, 63 per cent; and 65 and over, 15 per cent. Some 18 per cent of the population were over the normal retirement ages (65 for men and 60 for women), compared with 15 per cent in 1961.

In April 1981 there were 28.6 million females and 27 million males in Britain, representing a ratio of nearly 106 females to every 100 males. There are about 6 per cent more male than female births every year. Because of the higher mortality of men at all ages, however, there is a turning point, at about 50 years of age, at which the number of women exceeds the number of men. This imbalance increases with age so that there is a preponderance of women among the elderly.

Distribution of Population

The population density is about 229 per square km which is relatively high in comparison with most other countries. England is the most densely populated with 354 people per square km (with Greater London having a density of 4,238 people per square km), and Scotland the least densely populated with 65 people per square km, while Wales and Northern Ireland have 134 and 110 people per square km respectively.

Table 2 gives figures for some of Britain's largest urban areas. About half the population lives in a belt across England with south Lancashire and West Yorkshire at one end, and the London area at the other, having the industrialised Midlands at its centre. Other areas with large populations are: the central lowlands of Scotland; north-east England from north of the river Tyne down to the river Tees; south-east Wales; the Bristol area; and the English Channel coast from Poole, in Dorset, eastwards. Less-densely populated areas are the eastern fringes of England between the Wash and the Thames estuary, and the far south-west. The eight major metropolitan areas which have been denoted as 'conurbations' in successive population censuses accommodate a third of Great Britain's people while comprising less than 3 per cent of the total land area. They are: Greater London, Central Clydeside, Greater Manchester, Merseyside, South Yorkshire, Tyne and Wear, the West Midlands and West Yorkshire. Most of the mountainous parts, including much of Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland and the central Pennines, are very sparsely populated.

As in many other developed countries the recent trend (brought out by the 1981 Census) has been a movement of people away from the main

conurbations (particularly their centres) to the surrounding suburbs. This is reflected in the declining population in Greater London (which was the world's third city in terms of population in the mid-1960s but is now eleventh) and in falls in the proportion of people resident in most of the metropolitan counties. There has also been a geographical redistribution of the population from Scotland and the northern regions of England to East Anglia, the South West and the East Midlands. Another feature has been an increase in the rate of retirement migration, the main recipient areas (where in some towns the elderly can form over one-third of the population) being the south coast of England and East Anglia.

Table 2: Size and Population of the Main Urban Districts, April 1981

	Area		Population <i>thousands</i>
	square km	square miles	
Greater London	1,580	609.7	6,696.0
Birmingham	264	102.0	1,006.9
Glasgow	198	76.3	762.2
Leeds	562	217.0	705.0
Sheffield	368	141.9	536.8
Liverpool	113	43.6	510.3
Bradford	370	142.9	457.7
Manchester	116	44.9	449.2
Edinburgh	261	100.6	419.2
Bristol	110	42.3	388.0
Coventry	97	37.3	314.1
Belfast	140	54.0	297.9
Cardiff	120	46.3	273.9

Migration

Traditionally Britain has had a net outflow of people to the rest of the world, but in 1979 for the first time for many years there was a small net inflow of some 6,000 people.¹ Subsequently the traditional pattern has been restored, with a net outflow of 79,000 people in 1981. Between 1972 and 1981 some 2.25 million people left Britain to live abroad and nearly 1.9 million came from overseas to live in Britain, so that net emigration reduced the population by about 387,000. Of the emigrants in 1981, 34 per cent left for Australia, Canada or New Zealand, 12 per cent for other European Community countries and 11 per cent for the United States. Of the 153,000 immigrants in 1981, 13 per cent came from Australia, Canada or New Zealand, 31 per cent from other Commonwealth countries and 15 per cent from other European Community countries. A significant number of those leaving or entering Britain were returning migrants.

Nationality

New nationality legislation embodied in the British Nationality Act 1981 takes effect from 1 January 1983. Under this the former citizenship of the United Kingdom and Colonies is replaced by three citizenships: British Citizenship for people closely connected with the United Kingdom, the

¹International migration statistics exclude movements to and from the Irish Republic.

Channel Islands and the Isle of Man; British Dependent Territories Citizenship for people connected with the dependencies; and British Overseas Citizenship for those citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies who do not acquire either of the other citizenships. All those citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies who have a right of abode in Britain when the Act comes into force will become British citizens.¹

From that date British Citizenship will be acquired automatically at birth by a child born in Britain if his or her father or mother is a British citizen or is settled in Britain. A child adopted in Britain by a British citizen will be a British citizen. A child born abroad to a British citizen born, adopted, naturalised or registered in Britain will be a British citizen by descent. The Act safeguards the citizenship of a child born abroad to a British citizen in Crown Service, certain related services, or in service under a European Community institution. British citizenship may also be acquired by registration by certain children born in Britain who do not automatically acquire such citizenship at birth or born abroad to a parent who is a citizen otherwise than by descent; by British Dependent Territories citizens, British overseas citizens, British subjects under the Act (three very limited categories) and British protected persons after five years' residence in the United Kingdom (except for people from Gibraltar who may be registered without residence); and by naturalisation for Commonwealth citizens, citizens of the Irish Republic, and foreign nationals. For naturalisation, which is at the Home Secretary's discretion, five years' residence, good character and sufficient knowledge of English, Welsh or Scottish Gaelic are required except for the spouse of a British citizen who needs only three years' residence and no language qualification. Most existing entitlements to registration (including those for Commonwealth citizens and Irish citizens settled in Britain since before 1973, and in certain circumstances that for women married to citizens of the United Kingdom and Colonies before 1983) are preserved for five years from 1 January 1983. In 1981, 48,600 people acquired citizenship by naturalisation and registration.

Immigration Control

Immigration into Britain is controlled by the Immigration Act 1971 and administered according to rules made under it. The Act confers a right of abode—and exemption from control—on British citizens, on Commonwealth citizens born before 1983 to a parent born in the United Kingdom and on certain other Commonwealth citizens who had the right of abode before 1983. In general, others wishing to enter Britain for employment must hold work permits. Exceptions include Commonwealth citizens with a grandparent born in Britain, certain permit-free categories, and nationals of European Community countries. The dependants of work permit holders and of those who may enter without work permits may also be admitted, as may the wives and children of men already settled in Britain and certain other categories.

THE ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL PATTERN

The majority of people (some 97 per cent) live in private households (in families or on their own). The remainder include residents in hotels, and people in the armed services and in educational or other institutions. In 1980 eight out of ten people lived in a unit headed by a married couple.

Among many changes in household and family structure is the con-

¹One small exception will be that a stateless person who has been registered as a citizen of the United Kingdom and Colonies by virtue of his mother's citizenship of the United Kingdom and Colonies will acquire whichever of the three new citizenships his mother does.

tinuing fall in the average size of households in Great Britain from over 4 persons in 1911 to 3.1 in 1961 and 2.68 in 1980. The fall reflects a greater proportion of people living on their own (8 per cent) or in one-parent families, the increasing number of elderly people (more of whom are living alone), and the preferences of parents for smaller families. The trend towards smaller households (22 per cent of households consist of one person) is expected to continue and the number of one-person households is forecast to increase from 4.4 million in 1979 to about 6 million by 1991, of which 3.6 million would be pensioner households.

Housing and the Environment

Four British households out of five live in houses rather than flats and over half of all households own or are buying their own homes. Terraced housing, most of it built in the early years of the present century, still provides accommodation for about 30 per cent of all households. In inner urban areas slum clearance and redevelopment have been major features of post-1945 public housing programmes, but the modernisation and conversion of sub-standard housing have increasingly been encouraged as alternatives to clearing and rebuilding. Emphasis in new building is on low-rise, high density designs, often incorporating gardens or patios. Nearly half of Britain's housing stock has been built since 1945.

The main housing development of the past 50 to 60 years, however, has been suburban. Many families now live in houses grouped in small terraces, or semi-detached or detached, usually of two storeys with gardens, and providing two main ground-floor living rooms, a kitchen, from two to four bedrooms, a bathroom, and one or two lavatories. Originally many houses were located in 'ribbon development' along main roads, but in recent years housing estates have nearly always been sited away from main roads.

Housing standards are continually improving; some 96 per cent of households in Great Britain have exclusive use of a bath or shower, and 95 per cent sole use of an inside lavatory (high percentages by international standards) while 57 per cent have central heating.

An important influence on the planning of housing and services has been the growth of car ownership; about 60 per cent of households have the use of at least one car (or van), including 15 per cent with the use of two or more. Greater access to motorised transport and the construction of a network of modern trunk roads and motorways have resulted in a considerable increase in personal mobility and changed leisure patterns, as well as changes in the design of housing and shopping areas. Most detached or semi-detached houses in new suburban estates have garages, and out-of-town shopping centres, usually including large supermarkets, are often specially planned for the motorist and offer an alternative to shopping in the centres of older towns.

The growth in car ownership has brought very great benefits but also a number of problems, notably, in many towns and cities, increased congestion, noise and air pollution. Public transport, too, has been affected, and many services have been reduced or eliminated, especially in rural areas. The people without access to a car include those among the poorer sections of the community, or the elderly or infirm; mobility allowances help the disabled. Restrictions on bus licensing have been relaxed in order to make it easier for new services to develop, and car-sharing is being encouraged for journeys such as those to work.

There has been a steady reduction of the main atmospheric and fresh water pollutants that have been of concern in the past, producing dramatic

improvements in, for example, the quality of the air in cities and the condition of major rivers, although various forms of pollution remain a problem in some areas. There is a high degree of concern for the natural environment, as shown by the enormous growth in the past few decades in the number of organisations (especially voluntary societies) concerned with conservation.

Living Standards

Marked improvements in the standard of living have taken place during the twentieth century, but generally at a slower rate than in some other major industrialised countries. Real personal disposable income in 1981 amounted to £82,606 million at 1975 prices, 13 per cent higher than in 1976. The volume of consumer spending, after allowing for inflation, has remained unchanged over the last two years, reflecting the current economic recession. Long-term trends in the pattern of expenditure show a substantial rise in expenditure on housing, alcohol, motor vehicles, televisions, telephones, electrical and some other durable goods, and entertainment, and in expenditure overseas. As real incomes have risen, the share of expenditure on food has fallen. The share devoted to tobacco has also declined; an increasing number of people have stopped smoking for health reasons.

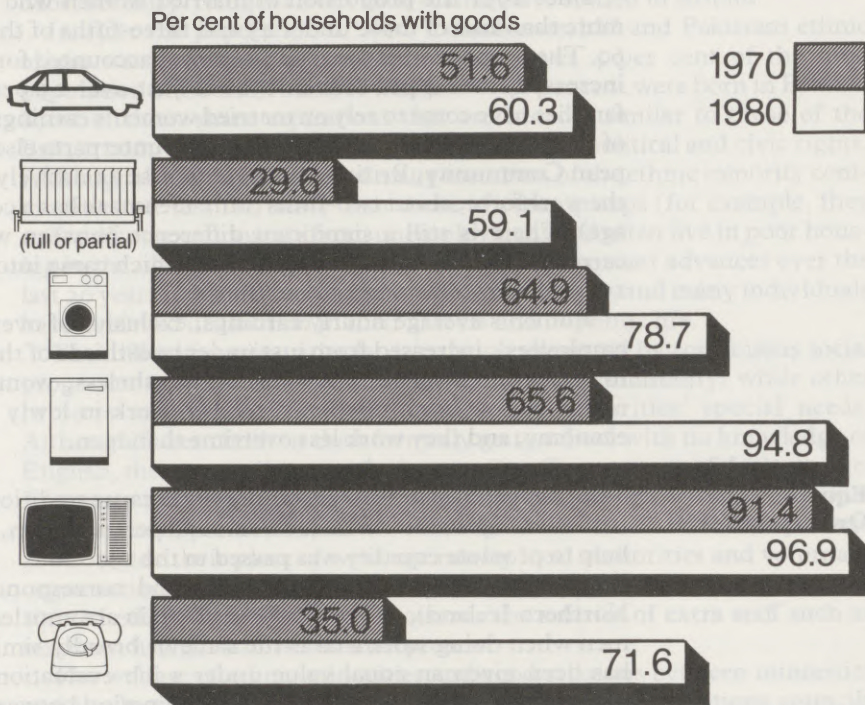
The general level of nutrition remains high. Over the last 20 years there have been substantial rises in the consumption of poultry, instant coffee, pork and processed (including frozen) vegetables, while home consumption per person of mutton and lamb, beef and veal, bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, butter, sugar, tea and some other foods has fallen. However, another feature has been an increase in the number of meals eaten away from home, either at work or in restaurants, and a growth in the consumption of food from 'take-away' and 'fast food' shops. In addition, in the 1960s and 1970s the amount of convenience foods eaten grew as women increasingly went out to work and had less time to prepare meals, and as the variety of prepared foods rose in line with the growth in ownership of refrigerators and freezers. Other features have included the continuing popularity of health foods and slimming products.

Alcohol consumption has risen substantially since the 1950s, although the level is well below that of some other European Community countries, and alcohol abuse has become a growing problem. Beer remains much the most popular alcoholic drink, but consumption of wines and spirits has been growing. A high proportion of beer is drunk in public houses ('pubs'), which are a traditional social centre for many people, but recent features have been for more beer to be drunk at home and in clubs; beer consumption has recently been falling. A notable development has been the large increase in consumption of lager, now estimated to account for about 30 per cent of the beer consumed.

Ownership of many durable goods has been increasing and some goods, such as televisions, vacuum cleaners and refrigerators, are available in more than 90 per cent of households. Of durable goods shown in the diagram on p 27, ownership of telephones and central heating systems is growing most rapidly; other durable goods growing in popularity include freezers (available in some 47 per cent of households), music centres and other audio equipment, and video recorders.

Alterations in the pattern of income distribution have included a fall in the share of the top 10 per cent from 33.2 per cent of total pre-tax income in 1949 to 26.1 per cent in 1978-79, although successive falls have been mainly

Availability of Certain Durable Goods



retained in the top half of the distribution. Income before tax of the self-employed is more unevenly distributed than total income, largely because of the very large incomes of a small number of people, mainly professionals such as lawyers, accountants and doctors. The combined effect of the tax system and the receipt of transfer payments and direct and indirect benefits in kind is to redistribute incomes on a more equal basis.

Wealth is much more unevenly distributed, with the top 1 per cent of the population aged 18 or over owning about 24 per cent of marketable wealth, the top 10 per cent having 59 per cent and the top 50 per cent having 95 per cent. The inclusion of non-marketable rights in occupational and state pension schemes reduces these shares substantially to around 13, 37 and 80 per cent respectively. There has been little change in the distribution of marketable wealth, but the trend for marketable wealth plus occupational and state pension rights shows a fairly continuous movement towards greater equality after 1974, indicating the growing significance of pension rights as part of total wealth.

Women

Probably the greatest changes in society have occurred in the economic and domestic lives of women, due, in part, to the removal of almost all theoretical sex discrimination in political and legal rights. At the heart of women's changed role has been the rise in the number of women, particularly married women, at work. With the availability of effective methods of family planning there has been a decline in family size. Women as a result are involved in child-bearing for a much shorter time and this, together with a variety of other factors which have made housework less burden-

some, has made it possible for women with even young children to try to return to work.

Since 1951 the proportion of married women who work has grown to more than half of those under 45 and three-fifths of those between 45 and 60. The proportion of the total workforce accounted for by married women increased from 4 per cent in 1921 to just over 25 per cent in 1982, and families have come to rely on married women's earnings as an essential part of their income. Compared with their counterparts elsewhere in the European Community, British women comprise a relatively high proportion of the workforce, about two-fifths (only Denmark has a comparable percentage). There is still a significant difference between women's and men's earnings but the equal pay legislation which came into force at the end of 1975 appears to have narrowed the gap.

Women's average hourly earnings, exclusive of overtime (for full-time employees), increased from just under two-thirds of those of men in 1970, to about three-quarters in 1981. Nevertheless, women's wages remain relatively low because women tend to work in lowly paid sectors of the economy, and they work less overtime than men.

Equal Opportunities

The changes have been significant but, because tradition and prejudice can still handicap women in their careers and personal lives, major legislation to help to promote equality was passed in the 1970s.

Under the Equal Pay Act 1970 (and corresponding legislation in Northern Ireland), women in Great Britain are entitled to equal pay with men when doing work that is the same or broadly similar, or work which has been given an equal value under a job evaluation scheme. The Sex Discrimination Act 1975 makes discrimination between men and women unlawful in employment, education, training and the provision of housing, goods, facilities and services. Discriminatory advertisements which breach the Act are also unlawful. (Northern Ireland has similar legislation.) In most cases complaints of discrimination may be taken before the county courts in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, or the sheriff courts in Scotland; complaints concerning employment are dealt with by industrial tribunals. The Equal Opportunities Commission was set up in 1975 (1976 in Northern Ireland under separate legislation) to enforce the Sex Discrimination Act and the Equal Pay Act. Its aims are to eliminate sex discrimination and promote equal opportunities. The Commission advises people of their rights under both Acts and may give financial or other assistance to help individuals to conduct a case before a court or tribunal. It also has power to conduct investigations and to issue notices requiring discriminatory practices to stop. In addition, it keeps legislation under review and may submit proposals for amending it to the ministers concerned.

Ethnic and National Minorities

Britain has a long history of accommodating minority groups and in the last hundred years or so a variety of people have settled in the country, some to avoid political or religious persecution, others seeking a better way of life or an escape from poverty.

The Irish have long made homes in Britain, and comprise the largest single minority group. Many Jewish refugees started a new life in the country towards the end of the nineteenth century and in the 1930s, and after 1945 large numbers of other European refugees settled in Britain. The large communities from the West Indies and the South Asian sub-continent date from the 1950s and early 1960s. There are also sizeable

groups of Americans, Australians, Chinese and various European communities such as Greek and Turkish Cypriots, Italians and Spaniards. Most recently, refugees from Indo-China have settled in Britain.

In 1981 the population of New Commonwealth¹ and Pakistani ethnic origin was estimated at 2.2 million (just over 4 per cent of the total population of Great Britain) of whom over 40 per cent were born in Britain. Most of them share aspirations that are broadly similar to those of the British community as a whole and they enjoy full political and civic rights. Although the circumstances of many members of the ethnic minority communities are less fortunate than those of other groups (for example, they suffer disproportionately from unemployment and often live in poor housing in the older urban areas) there have been important advances over the last 20 years in employment and housing conditions, and many individuals have achieved distinction in their careers and in public life.

The difficulties minorities face are being alleviated by continuous social programmes, some of which benefit the whole community, while other projects are directed towards meeting the minorities' special needs. Although fewer children than formerly go to school with no knowledge of English, there are still many who have an insufficient grasp of the language. Language teaching is recognised to be of prime importance and additional teachers are appointed to schools with ethnic minorities. For adults, classes at or outside their place of work are run by local authorities and voluntary organisations. Government grants are available to authorities with substantial ethnic minority groups towards the salaries of extra staff such as teachers, health visitors and interpreters.

The welfare of ethnic minorities and good relations between minorities and the local community are promoted by community relations councils and other voluntary bodies. In recognition of the special problems and tensions that can arise between the police and ethnic minorities, consultation between the police and the community is seen as having particular importance. Policies for promoting equality of opportunity in a multi-racial society in which all citizens receive equal respect are pursued against a background of legislation against discrimination.

Race Relations Act

The Race Relations Act 1976 makes discrimination unlawful on grounds of colour, race or ethnic or national origin in the provision of goods, facilities and services, in employment, training and related matters, in education, in housing and in advertising. It strengthened legislation passed in 1968 which, in turn, widened the scope of the first race relations legislation enacted in 1965; it also strengthened the criminal law on incitement to racial hatred.

The 1976 Act brought the law against racial discrimination into line with that against sex discrimination (see above), and gave complainants direct access to civil courts and, in the case of employment complaints, to industrial tribunals.

Commission for Racial Equality

The Commission for Racial Equality was established by the Race Relations Act 1976 with statutory duties to work towards the elimination of discrimination and to promote equality of opportunity and good relations between people of different racial groups. It has power to investigate unlawful discriminatory practices and to issue non-discrimination notices,

¹All other Commonwealth countries except Canada, Australia and New Zealand.

enforceable in the courts, requiring that such practices should cease. It has an important educational role and may issue codes of practice in employment. It is also the principal source of advice for the general public about the Race Relations Act and has discretion to assist individuals with their complaints.

The Commission supports the work of the 100 or so community relations councils, which are independent, voluntary bodies set up in most areas with a significant ethnic minority population to promote harmonious community relations at the local level. It makes grants towards the salaries of the community relations officers employed by the councils, most of whom also receive funds from their local authorities, and gives grants to ethnic minority self-help groups and to other projects run by or for the benefit of the minority communities.

Leisure Trends

Most people have considerably more free time, more ways in which to spend it and higher real incomes than had previous generations. Agreed hours of full-time work are usually from 35 to 40 hours a week, although many people actually work somewhat longer because of voluntary overtime. A large majority of employees work a five-day week.

The most common leisure activities are home based, or social, with visiting or entertaining relatives or friends and television watching among the most popular. Watching television is the main evening pastime for all except young men. Nearly all households have a television set and in winter the population aged five and over spend on average 20 hours a week watching programmes. Growing numbers are using video recorders to provide television viewing suited to their individual taste. Other popular pursuits include: listening to the radio, records or cassettes; reading; do-it-yourself home improvements such as house painting and decorating; going out for a meal or for a drink or to the cinema or to watch a sporting event; gardening; outings (such as visits to the countryside, seaside or to museums); photography; visits to social clubs and leisure centres; and social and voluntary work. About half the households in Britain have a pet, the most common being dogs (of which there are thought to be more than 5 million in Britain) and cats (nearly 5 million).

Sports and other pastimes have grown in popularity, reflected by increasing membership of the main organisations concerned with outdoor activities, although for some sports, such as football, attendances have been declining. Sporting activities in which people participate include, in order of popularity, walking, darts, and billiards and snooker.

Almost all full-time employees are entitled to a paid holiday each year in addition to public holidays and by the end of 1981 over four-fifths of manual workers had a basic holiday entitlement of four weeks or more.

The number of holidays (of four or more nights) taken in Great Britain by British residents was 36.5 million in 1981 compared with 34 million in 1971. Holidays abroad in 1981 numbered 13.3 million, compared with 7 million in 1971, and well over half involved 'package' arrangements. More than four-fifths of overseas holidays are taken in other European countries, with Spain being the most popular destination; it receives over one-fifth of all British holiday-makers abroad. The next most popular destinations are France, Italy, Greece, and the United States. The main holiday period is May to September when over 80 per cent of holidays in Britain and 70 per cent of holidays abroad are taken. A third of the population each year, however, takes no holiday away from home.

The United Kingdom constitution, unlike that of most other countries, is not contained in any single document. Formed partly by statute, partly by common law and partly by convention, it can be altered by Act of Parliament, or by general agreement to create, vary or abolish a convention. The constitution thus adapts readily to changing political conditions and ideas.

The organs of government are clearly distinguishable although their functions often intermingle and overlap. The legislature, Parliament, is the supreme authority. The executive consists of: (a) the Government—Cabinet and other ministers who are responsible for initiating and directing national policy, (b) government departments, which are responsible for national administration, (c) local authorities, which administer and manage many local services, and (d) public corporations responsible for the operation of particular nationalised industries or, for example, of a social or cultural service, subject to ministerial control in varying degrees. The judiciary determines common law and interprets statutes, and is independent of both the legislature and the executive.

THE MONARCHY

The British people look to the Queen not only as their head of State, but also as the symbol of their nation's unity. The monarchy is the most ancient secular institution in the United Kingdom. During the last thousand years its continuity has only once been broken (by the establishment of a republic which lasted from 1649 to 1660) and, despite interruptions in the direct line of succession, the hereditary principle upon which it was founded has always been preserved. The royal title in the United Kingdom is: 'Elizabeth the Second, by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and of Her other Realms and Territories Queen, Head of the Commonwealth, Defender of the Faith.' The form of the royal title is varied for those other member states of the Commonwealth of which the Queen is head of State,¹ to suit the particular circumstances of each. (For a full list of members states see p 76.)

The seat of the monarchy is in the United Kingdom. In the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man the Queen is represented by a Lieutenant-Governor. In the other member nations of the Commonwealth of which the Queen is head of State, her representative is the Governor-General appointed by her on the advice of the ministers of the country concerned and completely independent of the United Kingdom Government.

In the United Kingdom dependencies the Queen is usually represented by governors, who are responsible to the British Government for the good government of the countries concerned.

The title to the Crown derives partly from statute and partly from common law rules of descent. Lineal Protestant descendants of Princess Sophia (the Electress of Hanover, granddaughter of James I of England and VI of

Succession, Accession and Coronation

¹The other Commonwealth countries of which the Queen is head of State are: Antigua and Barbuda, Australia, The Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Canada, Fiji, Grenada, Jamaica, Mauritius, New Zealand, Papua New Guinea, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Solomon Islands and Tuvalu.

Scotland) are alone eligible to succeed, and although succession is not bound to continue in its present line, it can be altered only by common consent of the member nations of the Commonwealth of which the Queen is Sovereign.

The sons of the Sovereign have precedence over the daughters in succeeding to the throne. When a daughter succeeds, she becomes Queen-Regnant, and the powers of the Crown are vested in her as though she were a king. While the consort of a king takes her husband's rank and style, the constitution has never given any special rank or privileges to the husband of a Queen-Regnant although in practice he fills an important role in the life of the nation, as does the Duke of Edinburgh.

The Sovereign succeeds to the throne as soon as his or her predecessor dies and there is no interregnum. He or she is at once proclaimed at an Accession Council to which all members of the Privy Council are summoned. The Lords Spiritual and Temporal (see p 36), the Lord Mayor and Aldermen and other leading citizens of the City of London are also invited.

The Sovereign's coronation follows the accession after a convenient interval. It is a ceremony which has remained essentially the same for over a thousand years, even if details have often been modified to conform to the customs of the time. It takes place at Westminster Abbey in London in the presence of representatives of the Houses of Parliament and of all the great public interests of the United Kingdom, of the Prime Ministers and leading members of the other Commonwealth nations, and of representatives of other countries.

Acts of Government

The Queen personifies the State. In law, she is head of the executive, an integral part of the legislature, head of the judiciary, the commander-in-chief of all armed forces of the Crown and the 'supreme governor' of the established Church of England. As a result of a long process of evolution, during which the monarchy's absolute power has been progressively reduced, the Queen acts on the advice of her ministers, which she cannot ignore. The United Kingdom is governed by Her Majesty's Government in the name of the Queen.

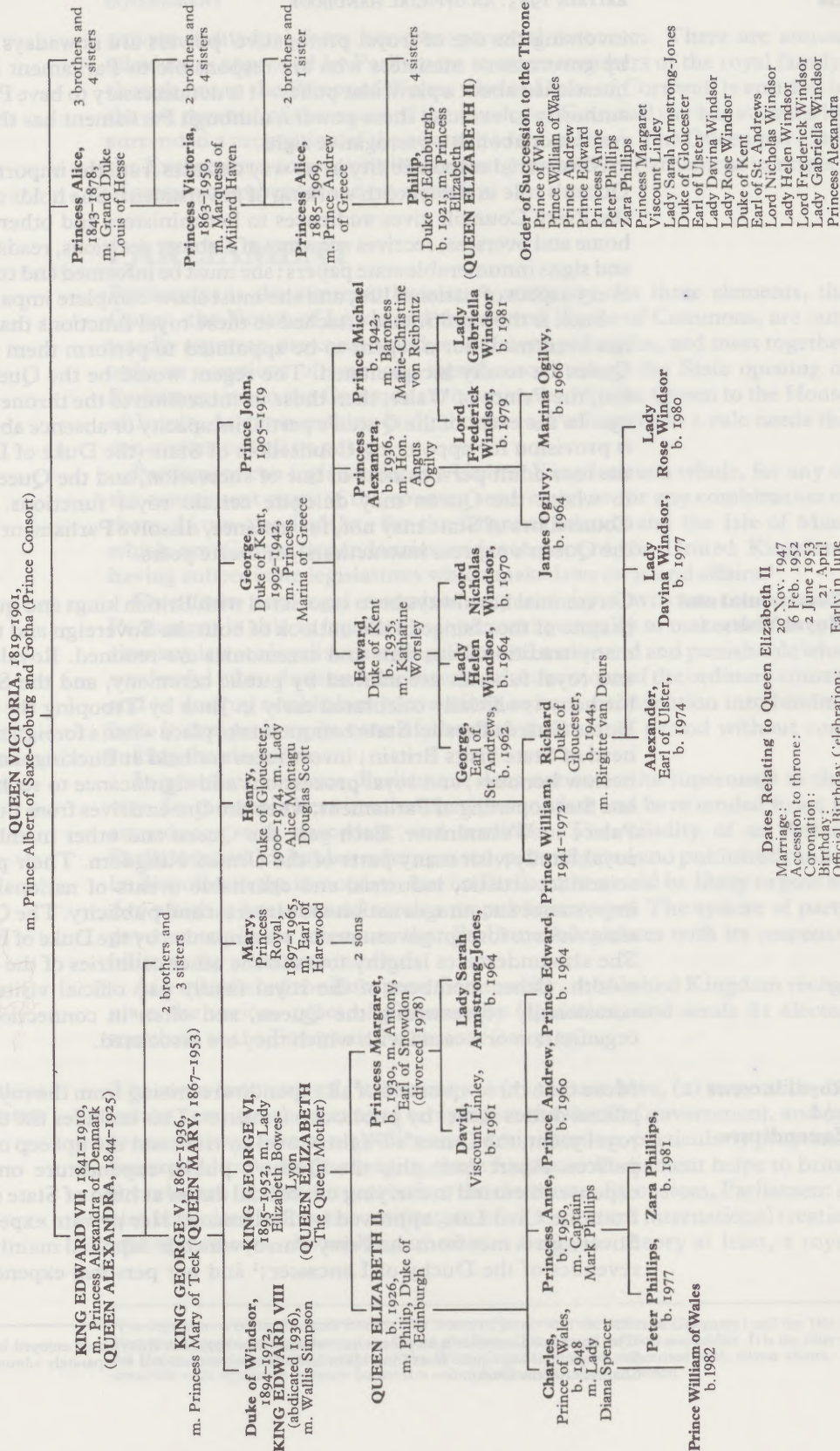
Within this framework, and in spite of a trend during the past hundred years towards assigning powers directly to ministers, there are still important acts of government which require the participation of the Queen. These include summoning, proroguing (discontinuing until the next session without dissolution) and dissolving Parliament; giving royal assent to Bills passed by both Houses of Parliament; appointing many important office holders, including government ministers, judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, diplomats and bishops and some other senior clergy of the Church of England; conferring peerages, knighthoods and other honours;¹ and remitting all or part of the penalty imposed on a person convicted of a crime. An important function is appointing the Prime Minister and by convention the Queen invites the leader of the political party which commands a majority in the House of Commons to form a government. In international affairs, the Queen as head of State has the power to declare war and make peace, to recognise foreign states and governments, to conclude treaties and to annexe or cede territory.

With rare exceptions (as when appointing the Prime Minister), acts

¹Although most honours are conferred by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minister, a few are conferred on her personal selection—the Order of the Garter, the Order of the Thistle, the Order of Merit and the Royal Victorian Order.

The Royal Family

From the reign of Queen Victoria up to September 1982



involving the use of 'royal prerogative' powers are nowadays performed by government ministers who are responsible to Parliament and can be questioned about a particular policy. It is not necessary to have Parliament's authority to exercise these powers, although Parliament has the power to restrict or abolish a prerogative right.

Ministerial responsibility in no way detracts from the importance of the Queen's role in the smooth working of government. She holds meetings of the Privy Council, gives audiences to her ministers and other officials at home and overseas, receives accounts of Cabinet decisions, reads dispatches and signs innumerable state papers; she must be informed and consulted on every aspect of national life; and she must show complete impartiality.

Such is the significance attached to these royal functions that provision has been made for a regent to be appointed to perform them should the Queen be totally incapacitated. The regent would be the Queen's eldest son, the Prince of Wales, then those in succession to the throne who are of age. In the event of the Queen's partial incapacity or absence abroad, there is provision for appointing Counsellors of State (the Duke of Edinburgh, the four adult persons next in line of succession, and the Queen Mother) to whom the Queen may delegate certain royal functions. However, Counsellors of State may not, for instance, dissolve Parliament (except on the Queen's express instructions), or create peers.

Ceremonial and Royal Visits

Ceremonial has always been associated with British kings and queens, and, in spite of the change in the outlook of both the Sovereign and the people, many traditional customs and ceremonies are retained. Royal marriages and royal funerals are marked by public ceremony, and the Sovereign's birthday is officially celebrated early in June by Trooping the Colour on Horse Guards Parade. State banquets take place when a foreign monarch or head of State visits Britain; investitures are held at Buckingham Palace to bestow honours; and royal processions add significance to such occasions as a State opening of Parliament, when the Queen drives from Buckingham Palace to Westminster. Each year the Queen and other members of the royal family visit many parts of the United Kingdom. Their presence at scientific, artistic, industrial and charitable events of national and local importance encourages nationwide interest and publicity. The Queen pays state visits to foreign governments, accompanied by the Duke of Edinburgh. She also undertakes lengthy tours in the other countries of the Commonwealth. Other members of the royal family pay official visits overseas, occasionally representing the Queen, and often in connection with an organisation or a cause with which they are associated.

Royal Income and Expenditure

More than three-quarters of all expenditure arising from the royal family's official duties is met by public departments. This includes the costs of the royal yacht, the Queen's Flight, travel by train and the upkeep of the royal palaces. Apart from this the Queen's public expenditure on staff and expenses incurred in carrying out official duties as head of State is financed from the Civil List, approved by Parliament. Her private expenditure as Sovereign is met from the Privy Purse, which is supplied mainly from the revenues of the Duchy of Lancaster;¹ and her personal expenditure as a

¹The Duchy of Lancaster is an inheritance which, since 1399, has always been enjoyed by the reigning Sovereign; it is kept quite apart from his or her other possessions and is separately administered by the Chancellor of the Duchy.

private individual from her own personal resources. There are annual allowances approved by Parliament to other members of the royal family, though not to the Prince of Wales, who as Duke of Cornwall is entitled to the net revenue of the estate of the Duchy of Cornwall (he has voluntarily surrendered a proportion of the revenue to the nation). The Queen pays into the Exchequer a sum equivalent to that provided by Parliament in respect of certain members of the royal family.

PARLIAMENT

Parliament is the supreme legislative authority. Its three elements, the Queen, the House of Lords and the elected House of Commons, are outwardly separate, are constituted on different principles, and meet together only on occasions of symbolic significance such as the State opening of Parliament when the Commons are summoned by the Queen to the House of Lords. As a law-making body, however, Parliament as a rule needs the concurrence of all its parts.

Parliament can legislate for the United Kingdom as a whole, for any of the constituent parts of the country separately, or for any combination of them. It can also legislate for the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man, which are Crown dependencies and not part of the United Kingdom, having subordinate legislatures which make laws on island affairs.¹

Free from any legal restraints imposed by a written constitution, Parliament is able to legislate as it pleases: generally to make, unmake, or alter any law; to legalise past illegalities and make void and punishable what was lawful when done and thus reverse the decisions of the ordinary courts; and to destroy established conventions or turn a convention into binding law. It can prolong its own life beyond the normal period without consulting the electorate.

In practice, however, Parliament does not assert its supremacy in this way. Its members bear in mind the common law and have tended to act in accordance with precedent and tradition. The validity of an Act of Parliament which has been duly passed, promulgated and published cannot be disputed in the law courts, but no Parliament would be likely to pass an Act which it knew would receive no public support. The system of party government helps to ensure that Parliament legislates with its responsibility to the electorate in mind.

As a member of the European Community, the United Kingdom recognises the various types of Community legislation, and sends 81 elected members to the European Parliament (see p 73).

The Functions of Parliament

The main functions of Parliament are (1) to pass laws, (2) to provide, by voting taxation, the means of carrying on the work of government, and (3) to scrutinise government policy and administration, particularly proposals for expenditure. In discharging these functions Parliament helps to bring the relevant facts and issues before the electorate. By custom, Parliament is also consulted before the ratification of all important international treaties and agreements, the making of treaties being, in theory at least, a royal

¹The legislatures of the Channel Islands (the States of Jersey and the States of Guernsey) and the Isle of Man (the Tynwald Court) consist of the Queen, the Privy Council and the local assemblies. It is the duty of the Home Secretary, as the member of the Privy Council primarily concerned with island affairs, to scrutinise each legislative measure before it is submitted to the Queen in Council.

prerogative exercised on the advice of the Government and not subject to parliamentary approval.

The Meeting of Parliament

A Parliament has a maximum duration of five years, but is often dissolved and a general election held before the end of this term. The maximum life has been prolonged by legislation in such rare circumstances as the two world wars. Dissolution and writs for a general election are ordered by the Queen on the advice of the Prime Minister.

The life of a Parliament is divided into sessions. Each usually lasts for one year—beginning and ending most often in October or November and interspersed with ‘adjournments’ at night, at weekends, at Christmas, Easter and the late (English) Spring Bank Holiday and during a long summer recess starting in late July or early August. The average number of ‘sitting’ days in a session is about 175 in the House of Commons and about 150 in the House of Lords. At the start of each session the Queen’s speech to Parliament outlines the Government’s broad policies and proposed legislative programme. Each session is terminated by prorogation. Parliament then ‘stands prorogued’ until the new session opens (on rare occasions Parliament has been dissolved without prorogation). A short speech is made on behalf of the Queen summarising Parliament’s work during the past session. An adjournment does not affect uncompleted business, but prorogation terminates nearly all parliamentary business, so that all public Bills not completed lapse, and must be reintroduced in the next session unless they are to be abandoned.

The House of Lords

The House of Lords consists of the Lords Spiritual and the Lords Temporal. The Lords Spiritual are the Archbishops of Canterbury and York, the Bishops of London, Durham and Winchester, and the 21 senior diocesan bishops of the Church of England. The Lords Temporal consist of (1) all hereditary peers and peeresses of England, Scotland, Great Britain and the United Kingdom who have not disclaimed their peerages, (2) all life peers and peeresses, and (3) those Lords of Appeal (‘law lords’) created life peers to assist the House in its judicial duties. Hereditary peerages carry a right to sit in the House (subject to certain disqualifications), provided the holder is 21 years of age or over, but anyone succeeding to a peerage may, within 12 months of succession, disclaim that peerage for his or her lifetime. Disclaimants lose their right to sit in the House but gain the right to vote at parliamentary elections and to offer themselves for election to the House of Commons.

Temporal peerages, both hereditary and life, are conferred on the advice of the Prime Minister (although no hereditary peerage has been conferred since 1965). They are usually granted either in recognition of service in politics or other walks of life or because the Government of the day wishes to have the recipient in the House of Lords. The House also provides a place in Parliament for men and women whose advice is useful to the State, but who do not wish to be involved in party politics.

At the beginning of 1982 there were 1,178 members of the House of Lords, including the two archbishops and 24 bishops. In order of precedence the Lords Temporal consisted of three Peers of the Blood Royal, 25 Dukes, 28 Marquesses, 157 Earls and Countesses, 102 Viscounts and 837 Barons and Baronesses, of whom 349 were life peers. Of the 117 Irish peers 48 were entitled to sit in the House of Lords because they were holders of an English, Scottish or United Kingdom peerage. Other Irish peerages which

pre-date the union (see p 3) do not entitle their holders to membership of the House of Lords.

Not all peers with a right to sit in the House of Lords attend the sittings. Those who do not wish to attend apply for leave of absence for the duration of a Parliament.

Peers who frequently attend the House (the average daily attendance is about 290) include elder statesmen and others who have spent their lives in public service. They receive no salary for their parliamentary work, but can recover expenses incurred in attending the House and certain travelling expenses.

The House is presided over by the Lord Chancellor, who takes his place on the woolsack as *ex officio* Speaker of the House. In his absence his place may be taken by a deputy speaker, a deputy chairman or, if neither is present, by a speaker chosen by the Lords present. The first of the deputy speakers is the Lord Chairman of Committees, who is appointed at the beginning of each session and takes the chair in all committees, unless the House decides otherwise. The Lord Chairman and the Principal Deputy Chairman of Committees are salaried officers of the House.

The permanent officers include the Clerk of the Parliaments who is responsible for the records of proceedings including judgments and for the promulgation of Acts of Parliament; the other Clerks at the Table who, with the Clerk of the Parliaments and the other officers and officials of the House, are collectively known as the Parliament Office; the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, who is also Serjeant at Arms in attendance upon the Lord Chancellor and is responsible for security and for accommodation and services in the House of Lords' part of the Palace of Westminster; and the Yeoman Usher who is Deputy Serjeant at Arms and assists Black Rod in his duties.

The House of Commons

The House of Commons is elected by universal adult suffrage and consists of 635 members of Parliament (MPs), of whom 21 are women. Of the 635 seats, 516 are for England, 36 for Wales, 71 for Scotland, and 12 for Northern Ireland.¹

General elections are held after a Parliament has been dissolved and a new one summoned by the Queen. When an MP dies or resigns² or is given a peerage, a by-election takes place. Members are paid an annual salary of £14,510 and an allowance of £8,752 for secretarial and research expenses. They also have a number of other allowances, including travel allowances, a supplement for London members and, for provincial members, subsistence allowances. (For ministers' salaries, see p 49.)

The chief officer of the House of Commons is the Speaker, elected by MPs to preside over the House. Other officers are the Chairman of Ways and Means, and two deputy chairmen who act as Deputy Speakers, elected by the House on the nomination of the Government. They, like the Speaker, neither speak nor vote other than in their official capacity. The House is administered by a Commission chaired by the Speaker.

Permanent officers (who are not MPs) include the Clerk of the House of

¹ The number of Northern Ireland seats is to be increased from 12 to 17.

² An MP who wishes to resign from the House can do so only by using the technical device of applying for an office under the Crown (Bailliff of the Chiltern Hundreds or Steward of the Manor of Northstead), ancient offices which disqualify the holder from membership of the House but which carry no salary and have no responsibilities.

Commons, who is the principal adviser to the Speaker of the House on its privileges and procedures; his department has responsibilities relating to the conduct of the business of the House and its many committees. The Clerk is also accounting officer for the House. The Serjeant at Arms, who waits upon the Speaker, carries out certain orders of the House, is the official housekeeper of the Commons part of the building, and is responsible for its security.

Parliamentary Electoral System

For electoral purposes the United Kingdom is divided into constituencies, each of which returns one member to the House of Commons. To ensure equitable representation, four permanent Boundary Commissions for England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland make periodic reviews of constituencies and recommend any redistribution of seats that may seem necessary in the light of population movements or for some other reason.

Elections are by secret ballot. British subjects (including Commonwealth citizens) and citizens of the Irish Republic can vote provided they are aged 18 or over, resident in the United Kingdom, registered in the annual register of electors for the constituency and not subject to any disqualification. People not entitled to vote include members of the House of Lords, sentenced prisoners and people convicted within the previous five years of corrupt or illegal election practices. Service voters (members of the armed forces and their spouses, Crown servants and staff of the British Council employed overseas, together with their wives or husbands if accompanying them) may be registered for an address in a constituency where they would live but for their service.

Each elector may cast one vote, normally in person at a polling station. Service voters resident abroad and merchant seamen may vote by proxy or, if in the United Kingdom at the time of the election, by post. Electors who are physically incapacitated or unable to vote in person because of the nature of their employment are also entitled to vote by post.

Voting is not compulsory; nearly 76 per cent of a total electorate of almost 41 million people voted in the general election of May 1979. The candidate who polls the most votes in a constituency is elected.

British subjects and citizens of the Irish Republic can stand and be elected as MPs provided they are aged 21 or over and are not subject to any disqualification. Those disqualified include undischarged bankrupts, people sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment, clergy of the Church of England, Church of Scotland, Church of Ireland and Roman Catholic Church, peers, and holders of certain offices listed in the House of Commons Disqualification Act 1975. The latter include holders of judicial office, civil servants, some local government officers, members of the regular armed forces, members of the police forces and some members of public corporations and government commissions. A candidate's nomination for election must be supported by the signatures of a nominator, a seconder and eight assentors registered in the constituency. He or she does not require any party backing. A candidate must also deposit £150, which is forfeited if his or her votes do not exceed 12.5 per cent of those validly cast.

The maximum sum a candidate may spend on an election campaign is £2,700 plus 2.3 pence for each elector in a borough constituency or 3.1 pence for each elector in a county constituency. A candidate may post free of charge an election address to each elector in the constituency. All election expenses, except the candidate's personal expenses, are subject to the statutory limit.

A ROYAL FAMILY

The Prince and Princess of Wales with their son, Prince William, after his christening. The baby is second in succession to the throne.

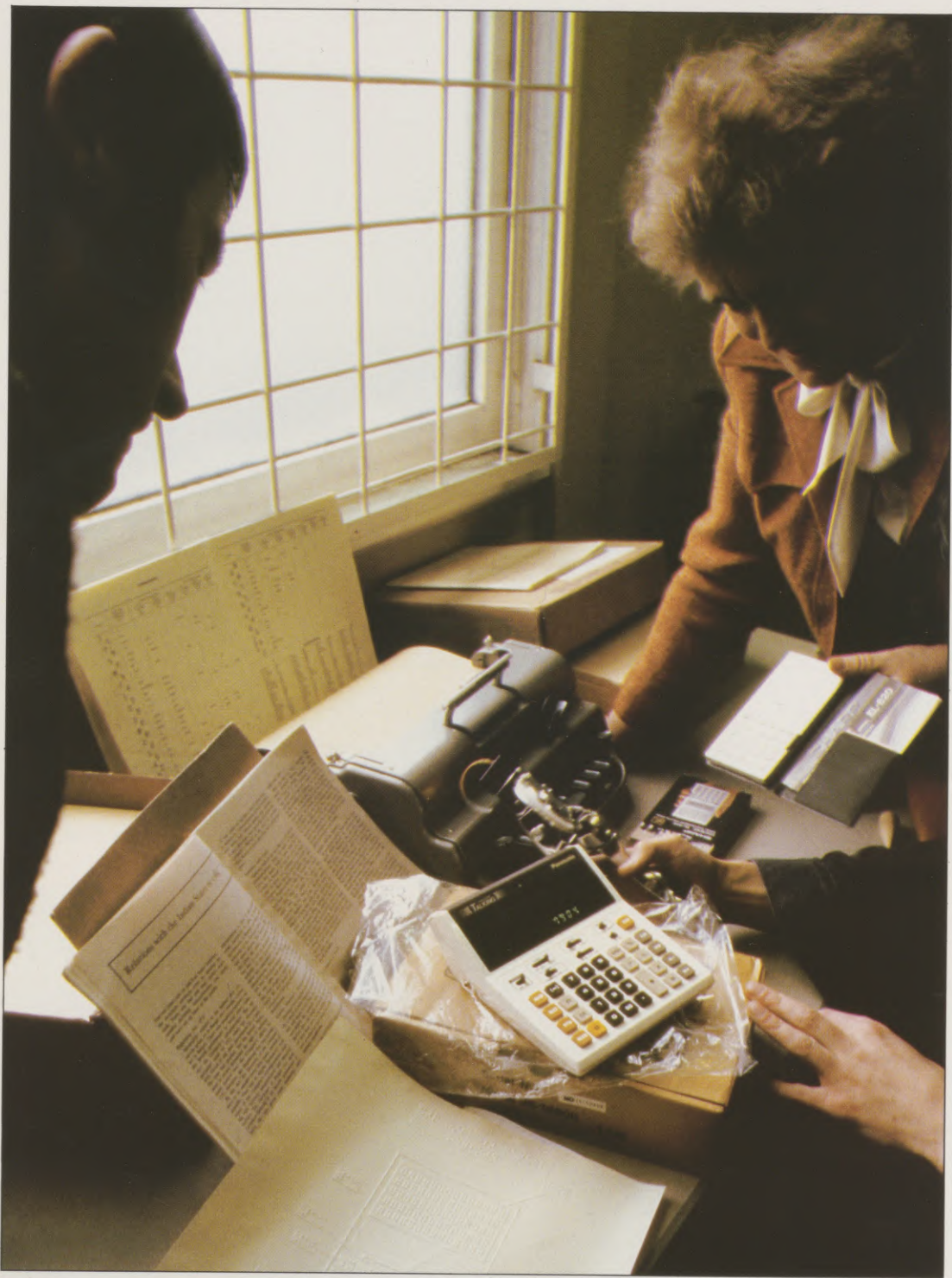




CASTLES

Left: Scotney Castle,
Kent, England.
Below left: Dunluce
Castle, County
Antrim, Northern
Ireland.
Right: Balmoral
Castle,
Aberdeenshire,
Scotland.
Below: Harlech
Castle, Gwynedd,
Wales.





PRISONERS AID THE BLIND

Long-term prisoners in the Braille Unit at Saughton Prison, Edinburgh, transcribe books into braille for blind people in Britain and overseas. Here they are producing a handbook for a new 'talking' electronic calculator, helped by staff from the Manpower Services Commission.

The Party System

The party system, existing in one form or another since the seventeenth century, is an essential element in the working of the constitution.

The present system relies heavily upon the existence of organised political parties, each laying policies before the electorate for approval. The parties are not registered or formally recognised in law, but in practice most candidates in elections, and almost all winning candidates, belong to one of the main political parties.

The percentages of votes cast for the main political parties in the general election of May 1979 and the resulting distribution of seats in the House of Commons are given in Table 3.

The party which wins most seats (although not necessarily the most votes) at a general election, or which has the support of a majority of members in the House of Commons, usually forms the Government. By tradition, the leader of the majority party is asked by the Sovereign to form a government; and about 100 of its members in the House of Commons and the House of Lords receive ministerial appointments (including appointment to the Cabinet—see p 49) on the advice of the Prime Minister. The largest minority party becomes the official Opposition with its own leader and own 'shadow Cabinet'; while members of other parties or any independents who have been elected support or oppose the Government according to their party or their own view of the policy being debated at any given time. Leaders of the Government and Opposition sit on the front benches of the Commons with their supporters (the back-benchers) sitting behind them. Similar arrangements for the parties also apply in the House

Table 3: Percentages of Votes Cast, and Members Elected, in the May 1979 General Election

Party	% of Votes Cast	Party	Members Elected
Conservative	43.9	Conservative	339
Labour	36.9	Labour	268
Liberal	13.8	Liberal	11
Others	5.4	Scottish National	2
		Plaid Cymru (Welsh Nationalist)	2
	100.0	Official Unionist (Northern Ireland)	5
		Democratic Unionist (Northern Ireland)	3
		United Ulster Unionist	1
		Ulster Unionist	1
		Social Democratic and Labour (Northern Ireland)	1
		Independent (Northern Ireland)	1
		Speaker	1

635

On 30 September 1982 the state of the parties (excluding the Speaker and his three deputies) was as follows: Conservative 333; Labour 236; Social Democratic 30 (a new party formed in 1981 whose members comprised 27 former Labour MPs, one former Conservative MP and 2 newly elected MPs); Liberal 12; Scottish Nationalist 2; Plaid Cymru (Welsh Nationalist) 2; Official Unionist (Northern Ireland) 5; Democratic Unionist (Northern Ireland) 3; United Ulster Unionist 1; Ulster Progressive Unionist—elected as Ulster Unionist 1; Independent Socialist (Northern Ireland)—elected as Social Democratic and Labour 1; Anti-H Block Proxy Prisoner (Northern Ireland) 1; Independent Labour 1; vacant 3.

of Lords; however, Lords who do not wish to be associated with either the Government or the Opposition may sit on the 'cross-benches'. The effectiveness of the party system in Parliament rests largely on the relationship between the Government and the opposition parties. Depending on the relative voting strengths of the parties in the House of Commons, the Opposition might seek to overthrow the Government by securing its defeat on a 'matter of confidence'. In general, however, its aims are to contribute to the formulation of policy and legislation by constructive criticism; to oppose government proposals that it considers objectionable; to secure concessions on government Bills; and to increase public support and enhance its chances of electoral success.

The detailed arrangements of government business are settled, under the direction of the Prime Minister and the Leaders of the two Houses, by the Chief Government Whips in consultation with the Chief Opposition Whips. The Chief Whips together constitute the 'usual channels' often referred to when the question of the possibility of finding time for debating some particular issue is discussed. The Leaders of the two Houses are primarily responsible for the direction of business and for providing facilities for the Houses to debate matters about which they are concerned.

Outside Parliament, party control is exercised by the national and local organisations. Inside Parliament, it is exercised by the Chief Whips and their assistants (chosen within the party) whose duties include keeping members informed of forthcoming parliamentary business, maintaining the party's voting strength by ensuring that members attend important debates, and conveying to the party leadership the opinions of back-bench members. The importance a party attaches to a vote on a particular issue is indicated to the MPs by the underlining (once, twice or three times) on the notice sent to them; failure to comply with a 'three-line whip' is usually seen as rebellion against the party's policy. Party discipline tends to be less strong in the Lords than in the Commons.

The Chief Government Whip in the Commons is Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury; of the other Government Whips, three (one of whom is deputy Chief Whip) are officers of the Royal Household, five hold titular posts as Lords Commissioners of the Treasury and five are Assistant Whips. Salaries are likewise paid to the Chief Opposition Whips in both Houses and to two of the Assistant Whips for the Opposition in the Commons. The Government Whips in the Lords hold offices in the Royal Household and act as government spokesmen.

Annual assistance from public funds helps opposition parties in Parliament to carry out their business. It is limited to parties which had at least two members elected at the last general election or one member elected and a minimum of 150,000 votes cast. The formula is: nearly £2,000 for every seat and nearly £2 for every 200 votes, up to a maximum of £290,000.

Since 1945 Conservative or Labour administrations have been in power in roughly equal proportions. There has recently been much speculation over the prospects of a centre alliance formed in 1981 between the Liberal Party and the new Social Democratic Party and its effect on the traditional two-party system.

Parliamentary Procedure

Parliamentary procedure is based on custom and precedent, partly formulated in standing orders governing details of practice in each House. The system of debate is much the same in the two Houses: the subject originates in the form of a motion (a proposal made by a member in order to elicit a

decision from the House). When a motion has been moved and seconded, the Speaker proposes the question as the subject of debate. Members speak from wherever they have been sitting. Questions are decided by a vote on a simple majority. The main difference between the two Houses is that in the Lords the office of Speaker carries with it no authority to check or curtail debate, such matters being decided by the general sense of the House, whereas in the Commons the Speaker has full authority to give effect, promptly and decisively, to the rules and orders of the House. The Speaker must guard against abuse of procedure or infringement of minority rights, and has discretion to allow or disallow a closure motion (to end discussion so that the matter may be put to the vote). The Speaker has powers to check irrelevance and repetition in debate, and to save time in other respects. In cases of grave disorder the House can be adjourned or the sitting suspended by the Speaker. Voting in the Commons is under the direction of the Speaker whose duty it is to pronounce the final result. In the event of a tied vote the Speaker gives the casting vote, but only in accordance with established conventions which preclude an expression of opinion on the merits of the question.

The voting procedure in the House of Lords is similar to that in the Commons, except that the Speaker or chairman has an original, but no casting, vote. Bills and subordinate legislation are in general allowed to proceed in the form before the House unless a majority votes to reject or amend them; on other motions the question is decided in the negative unless there is a majority in favour. When the House is sitting judicially (see pp 107 and 117) the judgment under appeal is not changed if the votes are equal.

The Commons has a public register of MPs' financial interests. Members with a relevant pecuniary interest in a matter before the House, direct or indirect, must declare it when taking part in a debate, though to operate as a disqualification from voting the interest must be direct, immediate and personal. In any other proceedings of the House or in transactions with other members or with ministers or civil servants, MPs must also disclose any relevant financial interest or benefit.

Proceedings of both Houses are public, except on extremely rare occasions; the minutes (in the Commons called Votes and Proceedings and in the Lords, Minutes of Proceedings) and the speeches (The Official Report of Parliamentary Debates, *Hansard*) are published daily. The records of the Lords from 1497 and of the Commons from 1547, together with the parliamentary and political papers of certain past members of the Houses, are available to the public in the House of Lords Record Office. Parliament is not televised,¹ but proceedings are recorded and sound transmissions of some are made on television and radio, either live or in recorded form. A Parliamentary Sound Archive has been established.

Legislative Proceedings

The law undergoes constant reform in the courts as established principles are interpreted, clarified or reapplied to meet new circumstances, but substantial changes are the responsibility of Parliament and the Government through the normal legislative process.

A draft law takes the form of a parliamentary Bill. Most Bills are public

¹Debates on televising proceedings have taken place on several occasions and in 1968 an internal television experiment took place in the Lords. In 1980 the Commons voted to allow the introduction of a private member's Bill to permit the televising of proceedings, but it progressed no further.

Bills involving measures relating to public policy, but there are also private Bills which deal solely with matters of individual, corporate or local interest. Public Bills can be introduced, in either House, by a government minister or by a private member. Most public legislation is in practice sponsored by the Government.

Before a Government Bill is finally drafted, there is normally considerable consultation with professional bodies, voluntary organisations and other agencies interested in the subject matter, such as major interest and 'pressure' groups which aim to promote a specific cause. Proposals for legislative changes are sometimes set out in Government 'White Papers' which may be debated in Parliament before a Bill is introduced. From time to time consultative documents, sometimes called 'Green Papers', set out for public discussion government proposals which are still at the formative stage.

Bills must, in principle, be passed by each House (see below). As a rule Government Bills likely to raise political controversy go through the Commons before the Lords, while those of an intricate but uncontroversial nature often pass through the Lords first. A Bill with a mainly financial purpose is nearly always introduced in the Commons, and a Bill involving taxation must be based on resolutions agreed by that House, often after debate, before it can be introduced. If the main object of a Bill is to create a public charge, it can only be introduced by a minister or, if brought from the Lords, be proceeded with in the Commons if taken up by a minister, which gives the Government considerable control over legislation.

At the beginning of each session private members of the Commons ballot for precedence in introducing a Bill on one of the Fridays specially allocated; the first 20 are successful. A private member may also present a Bill after question time (see p 45), or seek to introduce a Bill under the 'ten minute rule' which allows two speeches, one in favour of and one against the measure, after which the House decides whether to allow the Bill to be brought in. Private members' Bills do not often proceed very far, but a few become law each session. If one secures a second reading, the Government usually introduces any necessary money resolution. Private members' Bills may be introduced in the House of Lords at any time, but the time that can be given to them in the Commons is strictly limited.

The process of passing a public Bill is similar in both Houses. The Bill receives a formal first reading on introduction, it is printed, and after a while (between one day and several weeks depending on the nature of the Bill) is given a second reading after a debate on its general principles and merits. In the Commons a non-controversial Bill may be referred to a second reading committee to decide whether it should be read a second time. After a second reading in the Commons, a Bill is usually referred for detailed examination to a standing committee (see p 44). If the House so decides, the Bill may be referred to the whole House sitting in committee. The committee stage is followed by the report stage, during which further amendments may be considered. At the third reading a Bill is reviewed in its final form. In the Commons this stage is taken without a debate unless there is a motion in the name of six MPs that the question 'be not put forthwith'—a procedure frequently used. The House may vote to limit the time devoted to examining a Bill by passing a timetable motion, commonly referred to as a 'guillotine'. After the third reading a Commons Bill is sent to the Lords where it goes through broadly the same stages. In the Lords, after the second reading, a Bill is considered by a committee of the whole

House unless the House takes the rare decision to refer it to a Public Bill Committee. It is then considered and read a third time; at all these stages amendments may be made. A Bill which starts in the Lords and is passed by that House is then sent to the Commons for all the stages there. Amendments made by the second House generally must be agreed by the first, or a compromise reached, before a Bill can become law.

Most Government Bills introduced and passed in the Lords pass through the Commons without difficulty because of their non-controversial nature. However, if a non-governmental Lords Bill were unacceptable to the Commons it would generally not become law because no debating time would be allotted to it. The Lords, on the other hand, do not in general prevent a Bill insisted upon by the Commons from finally becoming law. Normally they either accept the Bill without changes, or amend and return it for consideration by the Commons, who frequently agree to the amendments made. In practice, the Lords pass without amendment Bills such as those authorising taxation or national expenditure. A Bill that deals only with taxation or expenditure must become law within one month of being sent to the Lords, whether or not they agree to it, unless the Commons direct otherwise. If no agreement is reached between the two Houses on a non-financial Commons Bill (or an amendment to it) the Lords can in practice delay the Bill (with certain exceptions) for about 13 months. At the end of this time it becomes law in the form originally passed by the Commons. A Bill to lengthen the life of a Parliament would require the full assent of both Houses in the normal way.

The limitations on the power of the Lords are based on the belief that the principal legislative function of the non-elected House nowadays is to act as a chamber of revision, complementing, not rivalling, the elected House.

When a Bill has passed through all its parliamentary stages, it is sent to the Queen for royal assent, after which it is part of the law of the land and known as an Act of Parliament. The royal assent has not been refused since 1707.

Private Bills, promoted by people or organisations outside Parliament, go through substantially the same procedure as public Bills, but most of the work is done in committee, where proceedings follow a semi-judicial pattern: the promoter must prove the need for the powers or privileges sought and the objections of opposing interests are heard. Both sides may be legally represented.

Delegated legislation, used to relieve pressure on parliamentary time, gives ministers and other authorities the power to regulate administrative details after a law has been passed. To minimise the risk that powers thus conferred on the executive might supersede or weaken parliamentary government, they are normally delegated to authorities directly responsible to Parliament. Moreover, the Acts of Parliament by which particular powers are delegated normally provide for some measure of parliamentary control over legislation made in the exercise of these powers, for instance, by reserving to Parliament the right to affirm or annul the orders themselves. Certain Acts also require direct consultation with organisations affected before rules and orders can be made.

A joint committee of both Houses reports on the technical propriety of these 'statutory instruments'. In order to save time, the Commons also uses standing committees to consider the merits of instruments, with any decisions reserved to the House.

Parliamentary Committees

Committees of the Whole House

Standing Committees

Either House may resolve itself into a committee (of the whole house) to consider Bills in detail after their second reading. A committee of the whole house is presided over by the Chairman of Ways and Means (the Chairman of Committees in the House of Lords) or a deputy chairman.

House of Commons standing committees include those which examine public Bills at the committee stage and, in certain cases, at the second reading and report stages; two Scottish standing committees; the Scottish Grand Committee; the Welsh Grand Committee; and the Northern Ireland standing committee. Ordinary standing committees have no distinctive names, being referred to simply as Standing Committee A, B, C, and so on, and are each appointed specially to consider a specific Bill. Each has between 16 and 50 members with a party balance reflecting as far as possible that in the House as a whole. The Scottish Grand Committee, which comprises all 71 Scottish members and 10 to 15 others, considers the principles of Scottish Bills referred to it at second reading stage, the Scottish estimates and other matters concerning only Scotland; arrangements may be made for it to sit in Edinburgh. The Welsh Grand Committee, with all 36 Welsh members and up to five others, considers Bills referred to it at second reading stage, and matters concerning only Wales. The Northern Ireland committee considers matters relating specifically to the province. A standing committee on regional affairs attended by any of the 516 members from the English constituencies is occasionally appointed to consider matters relating to the English regions. The Lords equivalent to a standing committee, a Public Bill Committee, is rarely used.

Select Committees

A new House of Commons select committee structure has been set up in an attempt to provide closer examination of government departments and policies, and of the way ministers discharge their responsibilities.

This was in response to a recognition that Parliament was probably less effective a check on the executive than it had been for much of the nineteenth century. With the growth of mass political parties, the individual independence of many MPs has tended to become subordinated to party interests, and with the great extension of the range and complexity of central government activities, and the parallel growth of bureaucracy, MPs have a more difficult task in checking the actions of ministers and their departments.

Some 14 committees examine the expenditure, administration and policy of the main government departments and related bodies. The Foreign Affairs Committee, for example, 'shadows' the work of the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, and there are select committees on Scottish and Welsh Affairs. The committees are constituted on a party basis, in approximate proportions to party strength in the House. Other regular committees include those on European Legislation, Public Accounts, Members' Interests, the Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration and Sound Broadcasting. The Committee of Selection and the Standing Orders Committee have duties relating to private Bills, and the Committee of Selection also chooses members to serve on standing and select committees. A Liaison Committee to consider general matters relating to select committees has been established. On rare occasions a parliamentary Bill is examined by a select committee (a procedure additional to the usual legislative process).

In their scrutiny of government policies, the committees question ministers, senior civil servants and interested bodies and individuals.

Through hearings and published reports, they bring before Parliament and the public a body of fact and informed opinion on many important issues, and build up considerable expertise in their subjects of inquiry.

In the House of Lords, besides the Appeal and Appellate Committees in which the bulk of the House's judicial work is transacted, there are select committees on the European Communities, Science and Technology, House of Lords Offices, Hybrid Instruments, Leave of Absence, Lords' Expenses, Personal Bills, Private Bills, Standing Orders, Privileges, Procedure, Selection and Sound Broadcasting.

Joint Committees

The two Houses may agree to set up joint select committees, and joint committees are also appointed in each session to deal with Consolidation Bills and delegated legislation.

Party Committees

In addition to the official committees of the two Houses there are several unofficial party organisations or committees. The Conservative and Unionist Members Committee (the 1922 Committee) consists of the back-bench membership of the party. The Parliamentary Labour Party is a corporate body comprising all members of the party in both Houses; when the Labour Party is in office a liaison committee acts as a channel of communication between the Government and its back-benchers in both Houses; when the party is in opposition the Parliamentary Labour Party is organised under the direction of a Parliamentary Committee often referred to as the 'shadow Cabinet'.

Other Forms of Parliamentary Control

The effectiveness of parliamentary control of the Government is a subject of continuing discussion, both inside and outside Parliament. Control is exercised finally by the ability of the House of Commons to force the Government to resign by passing a resolution of 'no confidence' or by rejecting a proposal which the Government considers so vital to its policy that it has made it a 'matter of confidence' or, ultimately, by refusing to vote the money required for the public service. In addition to the system of close scrutiny by select committees the House of Commons offers a number of opportunities for a searching examination of government policy by both the Opposition and the Government's own back-benchers.

These include:

1. Question time when for an hour on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday, ministers answer MPs' questions. Parliamentary questions are one means of eliciting information about the Government's intentions, as well as a way of airing, and possibly securing redress of, grievances brought to MPs' notice by constituents.
2. The right of MPs to use motions for the adjournment of the House to open discussions on constituency cases or matters of public concern. There is a half-hour adjournment period at the end of the business of the day; and immediately before the adjournment for the Christmas, Easter, spring and summer recesses a day is spent discussing matters raised by private members. Moreover, an MP wishing to discuss a 'specific and important matter that should have urgent consideration' may, at the end of question time, ask leave to move the adjournment of the House. If the Speaker accepts the terms of the motion, the MP asks the House for leave for the motion to be put forward. Leave can be given unanimously, or if 40 or more MPs support the motion, or if fewer than 40 but more than 10

support it and the House (on a vote) is in favour. Once leave has been given, the matter is debated for three hours, usually on the next day.

3. The 19 days¹ each session when the Opposition chooses subjects for debate.

Procedural opportunities for criticism of the Government also arise during the debate on the Queen's speech at the beginning of a session, during debates or motions of censure for which the Government gives up part of its own time, and during debates on the Government's legislative proposals.

Opportunities for criticism are also provided in the House of Lords at daily question time, during debates on specific motions and in questions (which can be debated) at the end of the day's business.

The involvement of Parliament, and more particularly the House of Commons, in the management of the revenues of the State and payments for the public service is described in Chapter 17.

To keep the two Houses informed of European Community developments, and to enable them to scrutinise and debate Community policies and proposals, there are two select committees (see above), and ministers make regular statements about Community business.

Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration

The Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration (the 'Parliamentary Ombudsman') investigates, independently, complaints of maladministration when asked to do so by MPs on behalf of members of the public. Powers of investigation extend to administrative actions by central government departments but not to policy decisions (which can be questioned in Parliament) nor to matters affecting relations with other countries. Complaints by British citizens arising from dealings with British posts overseas are open to investigation in some circumstances. The Commissioner has access to departmental papers and reports the findings to the MP who presented the complaint. The Commissioner is required to report annually to Parliament. In addition he publishes details of selected investigations at quarterly intervals and may submit other reports where necessary. A Commons select committee has responsibility for overseeing the Commissioner's work.

Parliamentary Privilege

Each House of Parliament has certain rights and immunities to protect it from unnecessary obstruction in carrying out its duties. The rights apply collectively to each House and individually to each member.

For the Commons the Speaker formally claims 'their ancient and undoubted rights and privileges' at the beginning of each Parliament. These include freedom of speech; freedom from arrest in civil actions; exemption from serving on juries, attending as witnesses or serving as sheriffs; and the right of access to the Crown, a collective privilege of the House. Further privileges include the rights of the House to control its own proceedings (so that it is able, for instance, to exclude 'strangers' if it wishes), to pronounce upon legal disqualifications for membership and to declare a seat vacant on such grounds; and to penalise for breach of its privileges and for contempt.

The privileges of the House of Lords closely resemble those of the House of Commons.

¹Formerly 29. Certain topics traditionally dealt with in Opposition time will, from the 1982-83 session, be taken in Government time, the balance remaining largely unchanged.

THE PRIVY COUNCIL

Until the eighteenth century, the Sovereign in Council, or Privy Council, was the chief source of executive power in the State. As the system of Cabinet government developed, however, the Privy Council became less prominent. Many powers were transferred to the Cabinet as an inner committee of the Council, and much of its work was handed over to newly created government departments, some of which were originally committees of the Privy Council.

Nowadays the main function of the Privy Council is to advise the Queen to approve Orders in Council (those made under prerogative powers, such as Orders approving the grant of royal charters of incorporation; and those made under statutory powers). Members of the Privy Council attending meetings at which Orders are made do not thereby become personally responsible for the policy upon which the Orders are based; this rests with the minister responsible for the subject matter of the Order in question, whether or not he or she was present at the meeting.

The Privy Council also advises the Crown on the issue of royal proclamations, some of the most important of which relate to prerogative acts (such as summoning or dissolving Parliament). The Council's own statutory responsibilities, which are independent of the powers of the Sovereign in Council, include powers of supervision over the registering bodies for the medical and allied professions.

Apart from Cabinet ministers, who must be Privy Counsellors and are sworn in on first assuming office, membership of the Council (retained for life) is accorded by the Sovereign on the recommendation of the Prime Minister to eminent people in independent monarchical countries of the Commonwealth. There are about 380 Privy Counsellors. A full Council is summoned only on the death of the Sovereign or when the Sovereign announces his or her intention to marry.

Committees of the Privy Council

There are a number of advisory Privy Council committees whose meetings differ from those of the Privy Council itself in that the Sovereign cannot constitutionally be present. These may be prerogative committees, such as those dealing with legislative matters submitted by the legislatures of the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man and with applications for charters of incorporation; or they may be provided for by statute as are those for the universities of Oxford and Cambridge and the Scottish universities.

The Judicial Committee of the Privy Council is the final court of appeal from the courts of the United Kingdom dependencies, courts of independent members of the Commonwealth which have not discontinued the appeal, courts of the Channel Islands and the Isle of Man, and certain other courts, some professional and disciplinary committees and church sources.

Administrative work is carried out in the Privy Council Office under the Lord President of the Council, a Cabinet minister.

HER MAJESTY'S GOVERNMENT

Her Majesty's Government is the body of ministers responsible for the administration of national affairs.

The Prime Minister is appointed by the Queen, and all other ministers are appointed by the Queen on the recommendation of the Prime Minister.

The majority of ministers are members of the Commons, although the

Government is also fully represented by ministers in the Lords. The Lord Chancellor is always a member of the House of Lords.

Composition

The composition of the Government can vary both in the number of ministers and in the titles of some offices. The creation of a paid ministerial office with entirely new functions, the abolition of an office, the transfer of functions from one minister to another, or a change in the designation of a minister may be effected by Order in Council.

Prime Minister

The Prime Minister is also, by tradition, First Lord of the Treasury and Minister for the Civil Service. The head of the Government became known as the Prime Minister during the eighteenth century. The Prime Minister's unique position of authority derives from majority support in Parliament and from the power to choose ministers and to obtain their resignation or dismissal individually. By modern convention, the Prime Minister always sits in the House of Commons.

The Prime Minister informs the Queen of the general business of the Government, presides over the Cabinet, and is responsible for the allocation of functions among ministers.

The Prime Minister's other responsibilities include recommending to the Queen a number of appointments. These include: Church of England archbishops, bishops and deans and some 200 other clergy in Crown 'livings'; high judicial offices, such as the Lord Chief Justice, Lords of Appeal in Ordinary, and the Lords Justices of Appeal; Privy Counsellors, Lords-Lieutenant and certain civil appointments, such as Lord High Commissioner to the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, Poet Laureate, Constable of the Tower, and some university posts; and appointments to various public boards and institutions, such as the British Broadcasting Corporation, as well as various royal and statutory commissions. Recommendations are likewise made for the award of many civil honours and distinctions and of Civil List pensions (to people who have achieved eminence in science and the arts and who are in some financial need). The Prime Minister also selects the trustees of certain national museums and institutions.

Departmental Ministers

Ministers in charge of government departments, who are usually in the Cabinet, are known as 'Secretary of State' or 'Minister', or may have a special title, as in the case of the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

Non-Departmental Ministers

The holders of various traditional offices, namely the Lord President of the Council, the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, the Lord Privy Seal, the Paymaster General (and from time to time Ministers without Portfolio), may have few or no departmental duties and are thus available to perform any special duties the Prime Minister may wish to give them. The Lord President of the Council, for example, is responsible for co-ordinating the presentation of information on government policies, and the Lord Privy Seal is responsible for the day-to-day administration of the Civil Service.

Lord Chancellor and Law Officers

The Lord Chancellor holds a special position, being a minister with departmental functions and also head of the judiciary in England and Wales. The four Law Officers of the Crown are: for England and Wales, the Attorney General and the Solicitor General; for Scotland, the Lord Advocate and the Solicitor General for Scotland.

Ministers of State Ministers of State usually work with ministers in charge of departments with responsibility for specific functions, and are sometimes given courtesy titles which reflect these particular functions. More than one may work in a department. A Minister of State can be given a seat in the Cabinet and paid accordingly.

Junior Ministers Junior Ministers (generally Parliamentary Under-Secretaries of State or, where the senior minister is not a Secretary of State, simply Parliamentary Secretaries) share in parliamentary and departmental duties. They may also be given responsibility, directly under the departmental minister, for specific aspects of the department's work. The Parliamentary Secretary to the Treasury and other Lords Commissioners of the Treasury are in a different category as Government Whips (see p 40).

Ministerial Salaries The salaries of ministers in the House of Commons range from £15,700 a year for junior ministers and £20,575 to £24,150 for more senior ministers to £28,950 for Cabinet ministers. The Prime Minister and the Lord Chancellor also receive £28,950.

Ministers in the Commons, including the Prime Minister, also have parliamentary salaries of £8,460 a year in recognition of their constituency responsibilities and are entitled to claim the other allowances which are paid to all MPs.¹

The Cabinet The Cabinet is composed of about 20 ministers chosen by the Prime Minister and may include departmental and non-departmental ministers. Its origins can be traced back to the informal conferences which the Sovereign held with leading ministers, independently of the Privy Council, during the seventeenth century. After the Sovereign's withdrawal from an active role in politics in the eighteenth century, and the development of organised political parties stimulated by successive extensions of the franchise from 1832 onwards, the Cabinet assumed its modern form.

The functions of the Cabinet are: the final determination of policies, the supreme control of government and the co-ordination of government departments. The exercise of these functions is vitally affected by the fact that the Cabinet is a group of party representatives, depending upon majority support in the House of Commons.

Cabinet Meetings The Cabinet meets in private and its proceedings are confidential. Its members are bound by their oath as Privy Counsellors not to disclose information about its proceedings. The Official Secrets Acts forbid the publication of Cabinet as well as other state papers (although after they have been in existence for 30 years they may be made available for inspection in the Public Record Office) and a resigning minister wishing to make a statement involving disclosure of Cabinet discussions should first obtain permission through the Prime Minister. Diaries published by several former ministers have given the public an insight into Cabinet procedures in recent times.

Normally the Cabinet meets for a few hours once or twice a week during parliamentary sittings, and rather less often when Parliament is not sitting. To keep the amount of work coming before the Cabinet within manageable

¹The Leader of the Opposition in the Commons receives a salary for the post, as well as a parliamentary salary; in the Lords the Leader of the Opposition receives a salary.

limits, a great deal of work is carried on through the committee system, which involves the reference of any issue either to a standing Cabinet committee or to an *ad hoc* committee composed of the ministers primarily concerned. The committee then considers the matter in detail and either disposes of it or reports upon it to the Cabinet with recommendations for action. The present Cabinet has four standing committees: a defence and overseas policy committee and an economic strategy committee both under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister; a home and social affairs committee under the chairmanship of the Home Secretary; and a legislation committee under the chairmanship of the Lord President of the Council. Sub-committees of the standing committees may be established. Membership and terms of reference of all Cabinet committees are confidential.

Non-Cabinet ministers may be invited to attend meetings on matters affecting their departments, and may be members of Cabinet committees. The Secretary of the Cabinet and other senior officials of the Cabinet Office also attend meetings of the Cabinet and its committees as appropriate.

The Cabinet Office

The Cabinet Office, headed by the Secretary of the Cabinet, under the direction of the Prime Minister, comprises the Cabinet Secretariat, the Central Policy Review Staff, the Central Statistical Office and the Historical Section.

The Cabinet Secretariat serves ministers collectively in the conduct of Cabinet business and operates as an instrument in the co-ordination of policy at the highest level.

The Central Policy Review Staff advises ministers collectively on major issues of policy.

The Central Statistical Office is concerned with the preparation and interpretation of the statistics necessary to support economic and social policies and management, and co-ordinates the statistical work of other departments.

The Historical Section of the Cabinet Office is in the process of completing the official histories of the second world war, and is responsible for the preparation of official histories of certain peacetime events.

Ministerial Responsibility

'Ministerial responsibility' refers both to the collective responsibility which ministers share for government policy and actions and to ministers' individual responsibility to Parliament for their departments' work.

The doctrine of collective responsibility means that the Cabinet acts unanimously even when Cabinet ministers do not all agree on a subject. The policy of departmental ministers must be consistent with the policy of the Government as a whole. Once the Government's policy on a matter has been decided, each minister is expected to support it or resign. On rare occasions, ministers have been allowed free votes in Parliament on government policies involving important issues of principle.

The individual responsibility of a minister for the work of his or her department means that, as political head of that department, he or she is answerable for all its acts and omissions and must bear the consequences of any defect of administration, any injustice to an individual or any aspect of policy which may be criticised in Parliament, whether personally responsible or not. Since most ministers are members of the House of Commons, they must answer questions and defend themselves against criticism in person. Departmental ministers in the House of Lords are represented in

the Commons by someone qualified to speak on their behalf, usually a junior minister.

Departmental ministers normally decide all matters within their responsibility, although on important political matters they usually consult their colleagues collectively, through the Cabinet or a Cabinet committee. A decision by a departmental minister binds the Government as a whole.

The responsibility of ministers for their departments is an effective way of keeping government under public control, for the knowledge that any departmental action may be reported to and examined in Parliament discourages the taking of arbitrary and ill-considered decisions.

On assuming office ministers must resign directorships in private and public companies, and must order their affairs so that there is no conflict between public duties and private interests.

GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

Government departments are the main instruments for giving effect to government policy when Parliament has passed the necessary legislation, and for advising ministers. They may, and frequently do, work with and through local authorities, statutory boards, and government-sponsored organisations operating under various degrees of government control.

A change of government does not necessarily affect the number or general functions of government departments, although a radical change in policy may be accompanied by some organisational change.

The work of some departments (for instance, the Ministry of Defence) covers the United Kingdom as a whole. Other departments (like the Department of Employment) cover England, Wales and Scotland, but not Northern Ireland. Others, such as the Department of the Environment, are mainly concerned with affairs in England. There are separate departments for Scotland, Northern Ireland and Wales.

Some departments, such as the Department of Trade, maintain a regional organisation, and some which have direct contact with the public throughout the country (for example, the Department of Employment) also have local offices.

Although departments are usually headed by a minister, some in which questions of policy do not normally arise are headed by a permanent official, and a minister with other duties is responsible for them to Parliament. For instance, ministers in the Treasury are responsible for the Central Office of Information, Her Majesty's Stationery Office, the Customs and Excise, the Inland Revenue and a number of small departments including the Treasury Solicitor's Department, the Royal Mint, and the National Debt Office. Departments generally receive their funds directly out of money provided by Parliament and are staffed by the Civil Service.

Non-Departmental Public Bodies

A number of bodies with a role in the process of government are neither government departments nor part of a department. Known as non-departmental public bodies, but often popularly described as 'quangos' (which is often taken to stand for 'quasi-autonomous non-governmental organisations', although there is no precise definition of the term), they are of three kinds: executive bodies, advisory bodies and tribunals. Executive bodies generally employ staff and spend money on their own account; advisory bodies and tribunals do not normally employ staff or spend money themselves, but their expenses are paid by government departments concerned.

Many of the more important executive bodies are mentioned in this Handbook; a note on advisory bodies is set out below; and the position of tribunals is dealt with on p 119.

As a result of a review of non-departmental public bodies undertaken by the Government in 1979, several hundred have been wound up, and others reduced in scale or scope; scrutiny of these bodies continues.

**Advisory
Bodies**

Many government departments are assisted by advisory councils or committees which undertake research and collect information, mainly to give ministers access to informed opinion before coming to a decision involving a legislative or executive act. In some cases a minister must consult a standing committee, but usually advisory bodies are appointed at the discretion of the minister because of the need for their advice.

The membership of the advisory councils and committees varies according to the nature of the work involved, and may include civil servants and representatives of varying interests and professions.

In addition to these standing advisory bodies, there are committees set up by the Government to examine and make recommendations on specific matters. For certain important inquiries Royal Commissions, whose members are chosen for their wide experience and diverse knowledge, may be appointed. Royal Commissions examine written and oral evidence from government departments, interested organisations and individuals, and submit recommendations. The Government may accept the recommendations in whole or in part, or may decide to take no further action or to delay action. Inquiries may also be undertaken by departmental committees.

**Distribution of
Functions**

An outline of the principal functions of the main government departments is given below. Departments are arranged in alphabetical order, except for the Scottish and Northern Ireland departments which are grouped at the end of the section. Further information on the work of some departments is given in later chapters under the relevant subject headings.

DEPARTMENT	<i>Main areas of responsibility</i>
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The work of many departments listed below covers the United Kingdom as a whole. Where this is not the case, the following abbreviations are used: (GB) for functions covering England, Wales and Scotland; (E, W & NI) for those covering England, Wales and Northern Ireland; (E & W) for those covering England and Wales; and (E) for those concerned only with England.

**Ministry of
Agriculture,
Fisheries and
Food**

Policies for agriculture, forestry, horticulture and fishing (E); food policies.

**Board of
Customs and
Excise**

Collecting and accounting for revenues of Customs and Excise, including value added tax; agency functions including controlling certain imports and exports and compiling overseas trade statistics.

**Ministry of
Defence**

Defence policy and control and administration of the armed services.

DEPARTMENT	<i>Main areas of responsibility</i>
Department of Education and Science	General promotion of education (E); arts (GB), libraries (E with advice to W and NI), national museums (E), public libraries and local museums, British Library, National Heritage (GB); the Government's relations with universities (GB); fostering civil science in Britain and internationally.
Department of Employment	Manpower policies; labour legislation; payment of unemployment benefit through local offices; issue of work permits to workers from overseas; Race Relations Employment Advisory Service (E); policy for the Careers Service (E); relations with International Labour Organisation and European Community.
Department of Energy	Policies in relation to all forms of energy, including its conservation and the development of new sources; the Government's relations with the nationalised energy industries, the Atomic Energy Authority and the British National Oil Corporation.
Department of the Environment	Planning; local government; new towns; housing; construction; inner city matters; environmental protection; water; the countryside; sport and recreation; conservation; historic buildings and ancient monuments. Property Services Agency (E).
Export Credits Guarantee Department	Provision of insurance for exporters against risk of not being paid for goods and services, and access to bank finance for exports.
Foreign and Commonwealth Office	Conduct of Britain's overseas relations.
Department of Health and Social Security	National Health Service, personal social services provided by local authorities, and certain aspects of public health, including hygiene (E & W); the social security system (GB).
Home Office	Administration of law and order including criminal justice, police service, and prisons. Responsibility for immigration and nationality; community relations; race relations; broadcasting and radio regulatory matters; conduct of elections; civil defence and fire services; sex discrimination policy; and regulation of firearms, dangerous drugs, and gaming and lotteries. Licensing laws. Approval of local authority by-laws (E & W).
Department of Industry	Industrial policy; financial assistance to industry other than through the tax system; sponsorship of private and state-owned manufacturing industries.
Central Office of Information	Provision of publicity material and of publicity and information services required by other government departments.
Board of Inland Revenue	Administration of the tax laws.

DEPARTMENT	<i>Main areas of responsibility</i>
The Law Officers' Department	Provision of advice to the Government on English law and representation of the Crown in appropriate domestic and international cases, both civil and criminal, by the Law Officers of the Crown for England and Wales—the Solicitor General and the Attorney General (E, W & NI).
The Lord Chancellor's Office	Administration of the courts and the law. (The Home Office has important responsibilities for the criminal law.) The Lord Chancellor is involved in most appointments to the magistracy and judiciary outside Scotland (E, W & NI).
Management and Personnel Office	Organisation, management and efficiency of the Civil Service.
Ordnance Survey	The surveying and mapping of Great Britain, including geodetic surveys and associated scientific work and topographic surveys (GB).
Overseas Development Administration	Administration of financial aid to, and technical co-operation in, developing countries.
Parliamentary Counsel Office	Drafting of Government Bills (except those related exclusively to Scotland); advising departments on parliamentary procedure (E, W & NI).
Paymaster General's Office	Provision of banking services for government departments other than the Boards of Inland Revenue and Customs and Excise, and the payment of public service pensions.
Office of Population Censuses and Surveys	Administration of the Marriage Acts and local registration of births, marriages and deaths; population estimates; compilation of health statistics; censuses (E & W); surveys for other government departments (GB).
Procurator General and Treasury Solicitor's Department	Provision of a common legal service for a large number of government departments. Duties include instructing Parliamentary Counsel on Bills and drafting subordinate legislation; providing litigation and conveyancing services; and giving general advice on the interpretation and application of the law (E & W).
Her Majesty's Stationery Office	Publication of parliamentary and government papers; procurement of office supplies.
Department of Trade	Overseas trade policy and commercial relations; export promotion; consumer protection and safety; competition policy; companies legislation; insolvency; the insurance industry; printing and publishing; patents, trade marks and copyright; civil aviation; marine and shipping policy; policies for tourism, films, and distributive and service trade industries.
Department of Transport	Policies for the main transport industries; responsibility for the planning and maintenance of motorways and trunk roads, for local transport, road and vehicle safety, and for vehicle and driver licensing (E).

DEPARTMENT *Main areas of responsibility*

Treasury	Broad economic strategy with particular responsibilities for public finance and expenditure, including control of manpower and pay in the Civil Service.
Welsh Office	Many aspects of Welsh affairs including health and personal social services; housing; local government; education (except universities); town and country planning; new towns; water and sewerage; roads; agriculture; forestry; tourism; national parks; ancient monuments and historic buildings; careers service and work in Wales of the Manpower Services Commission; certain responsibilities relating to the National Library and the National Museum, the Wales Tourist Board and Sports Council for Wales; and shared responsibility for the administration of urban grants to areas of acute social deprivation; selective financial assistance to industry; and general responsibility for economic development (Wales only).

SCOTLAND

Scotland has its own system of law and wide administrative autonomy. The Secretary of State for Scotland, a Cabinet minister, has responsibility in Scotland (with some exceptions) both for formulating and carrying out policy relating to agriculture and fisheries, education, law and order, local government and environmental services, social work, health, housing, roads and certain aspects of shipping and road transport services.

The Secretary of State also has a major role in the planning and development of the Scottish economy, and important functions related to industrial development, with responsibility for selective financial assistance to industry, for the Scottish Development Agency, and the Highlands and Islands Development Board and for the work of the Manpower Services Commission and the careers service. The Secretary of State plays a full part in determining energy policy, particularly in relation to responsibility for the electricity supply industry in Scotland.

The Secretary of State is responsible for legal services in Scotland, and other important functions are exercised by the two Scottish Law Officers: the Lord Advocate and the Solicitor General for Scotland (see p 121). On many domestic matters, the distinctively Scottish features and the different conditions and needs of the country and its people are reflected in separate legislation relating wholly to Scotland, or else in sections of special application to Scotland only inserted in Acts which otherwise apply to the United Kingdom generally. The Secretary of State is also responsible for the government interest in a range of other functions from fire services to sport and tourism.

The United Kingdom Government's administrative functions arising from these responsibilities are carried out principally by five Scottish departments supported by Central Services, based in Edinburgh (although with some staff dispersed over Scotland and with an office in London), known collectively as the Scottish Office. The Scottish Office Management Group, under the chairmanship of the Permanent Under-Secretary of State, with a membership consisting of the head of each of the departments and the Deputy Secretary, Central Services, advises the Secretary of State, particularly on questions such as the allocation of resources and forward

planning, with which more than one of the Scottish departments are concerned.

United Kingdom government departments with significant Scottish responsibilities have offices in Scotland with delegated powers and work closely with the Scottish Office.

An outline of the main functions of the Scottish departments is given below.

DEPARTMENT	<i>Functions</i>
Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland	Promotion of the agriculture and fishing industries.
Scottish Development Department	Town and country planning; housing; roads; building control; water supplies and sewerage; pollution control; general policy relating to local government organisation; ancient monuments and historic buildings; certain transport functions.
Scottish Economic Planning Department	Industrial and regional economic development matters; energy.
Scottish Education Department	Education (excluding universities); student awards; libraries; museums and galleries; sport and recreation; the arts; social work services.
Scottish Home and Health Department	Central administration of law and order (including police service, criminal justice, legal aid and penal institutions); the National Health Service; fire, home defence and civil emergency services.
Central Services	Services to the five Scottish departments. These include the Office of the Solicitor to the Secretary of State, the Scottish Information Office, and Finance Divisions.
Crown Office	Provision of legal advice to the Government on issues affecting Scotland and the principal representation of the Crown for litigation in Scotland by the Law Officers of the Crown for Scotland (the Lord Advocate and the Solicitor General for Scotland); control of all prosecution in Scotland.
Scottish Courts Administration	Organisation, administration and staffing of the courts and court offices; jurisdiction and procedure of civil courts; enforcement of judgments; and programme of Scottish Law Commission.
Other Administrative Departments	Department of the Registrar General for Scotland; Scottish Record Office; Department of the Registers of Scotland.

DEPARTMENT *Functions*

NORTHERN IRELAND

The Northern Ireland Office is the department of the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland, a Cabinet minister who has responsibility, and is answerable to Parliament, for the government of Northern Ireland. Through this Office the Secretary of State has responsibility for constitutional developments, law and order and security, and electoral matters.

The Northern Ireland departments are subject to the direction and control of the Secretary of State. Their principal functions are listed below. Under the arrangements for the partial or full devolution of powers to Northern Ireland (see p 17), the responsibility of the departments could pass in part or wholly to the devolved administration.

DEPARTMENT *Functions*

Department of Agriculture

Development of agricultural, forestry and fishing industries.

Department of Economic Development

Development of industry and commerce, and administration of schemes of assistance to industry, especially through the Industrial Development Board for Northern Ireland; administration of employment service and labour training scheme.

Department of Education

Central policy, co-ordination, legislation and financial control of the education and library service; recreation, culture and entertainment.

Department of the Environment

Road construction and maintenance; water supplies and sewerage, planning; public health; public transport, road traffic management, motor taxation; historic monuments and buildings; and certain controls over housing and local government.

Department of Finance and Personnel

Control of public expenditure; liaison with the United Kingdom Treasury and the Northern Ireland Office on financial matters, economic and social planning and research; general management and control of the Northern Ireland Civil Service; valuation.

Department of Health and Social Services

Health, personal social services and social security.

THE CIVIL SERVICE

The Civil Service is concerned with the conduct of the whole range of government activities as they affect the community, ranging from policy formulation to executing the day-to-day duties that public administration demands.

Civil servants are servants of the Crown. They are responsible to the minister in whose department they work for the execution of his or her

policies. Ministers alone are answerable to Parliament for their policies and the actions of their staff. A change of minister, for whatever reason, does not involve a change of staff. (Ministers sometimes appoint special policy advisers from outside the Civil Service; the advisers are paid from public funds, but their appointments come to an end when the Government's term of office finishes.)

Including part-time staff (two part-time officers being reckoned as equivalent to one full-time), there are about 666,000 civil servants (some 40 per cent of them women), roughly 328,000 of whom are engaged in the provision of public services, such as paying sickness benefits and pensions, collecting taxes and contributions, running employment services, staffing prisons, and providing services to industry and agriculture. About 217,000 are employed in the Ministry of Defence, including the Royal Ordnance factories and Royal Dockyards. The rest are divided between: central administrative and policy duties; service-wide support services, such as accommodation, printing and information; and largely financially self-supporting services, for instance, those provided by the Department for National Savings and the Royal Mint.

Over three-quarters of civil servants work outside London. As part of its policy of cutting public service manpower the Government plans to reduce the service to 630,000 by 1984, a total smaller than at any time since the end of the second world war.

The total number includes about 138,000 'industrial' civil servants, mainly manual workers in government industrial establishments, whose pay and conditions of service are on the whole separately administered from those of 'non-industrial' civil servants.

The Northern Ireland Civil Service

The Northern Ireland Civil Service is modelled on its counterpart in Great Britain, and has its own Civil Service Commission. Interchange of staff between the two Civil Services occurs to a minor extent only.

Structure

The structure of the Home Civil Service is designed to allow for a flexible deployment of staff so that talent can be used to the best advantage, with higher posts open to people of outstanding ability, whatever their specialist background or original method of entry into the Service. Although work requiring specialist skill is always done by appropriately qualified individuals, personnel management policies are designed to ensure that people with the necessary qualities gain suitable wide experience to fit them for higher posts.

At the top levels of the Home Civil Service there is an open and unified structure which, with very few exceptions, covers all posts whatever the nature of their duties. It comprises three grades—permanent secretary, deputy secretary and under-secretary.

At other levels the structure is based on a system of categories and occupational groups, which are the basic groupings of staff for the purposes of pay, recruitment and personnel management. These include the General Category (covering the Administration, Economist, Statistician, Information Officer and Librarian groups), the Science Category, the Professional and Technology Category (including architects, surveyors, electrical and mechanical engineers, graphics officers and marine services staff), and the Training, Legal, Police, Secretarial, Data Processing, Research Officer, Social Security, Security and Museum Categories. These 12 categories account for some 75 per cent of non-industrial staff.

The Diplomatic Service

The Diplomatic Service, a separate service of some 6,000 or so people, provides the staff for the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and at United Kingdom diplomatic missions and consular posts abroad. Its functions include advising on policy, negotiating with overseas governments and conducting business in international organisations; promoting British exports and trade generally, administering aid, presenting ideas, policies and objectives to the people of overseas countries; and protecting British interests abroad.

The Service has its own grade structure, linked for salary purposes with that of the Home Civil Service, and conditions of work are in many ways comparable while taking into account the special demands of the Service, particularly of postings overseas. Members of the Home Civil Service and the armed forces, and individuals from the private sector, may serve in the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and at overseas posts on loan or attachment.

Recruitment and Training

Recruitment of senior staff to the Home Civil Service and the Diplomatic Service is the responsibility of the Civil Service Commission which, in conjunction with departments, ensures that staff are selected solely on merit through fair and open competition. The choice of a successful candidate for a particular vacancy is made by the department concerned. The selection of junior staff, such as those engaged in clerical and manual work, is undertaken almost entirely by the departments themselves.

For the Administration Group, the central part of the Home Civil Service, entry is at three levels relating broadly to the academic achievements of: a second class honours degree, or better; GCE Advanced level; and GCE Ordinary level. The selection procedure for the highest of these levels (the Administration Trainee entry) comprises qualifying tests, followed by tests and interviews at the Civil Service Selection Board and an interview by the Final Selection Board. For the next level (the Executive Officer entry) selection involves qualifying tests for those possessing the necessary academic qualifications, followed by an interview. For the lower level (the clerical entry) selection is normally by interview of those holding the prescribed educational qualifications.

Entry to the professional and technical grades usually requires appropriate qualifications, and selection is on the basis of past record and by interview.

Most government departments employ full-time training officers and tutors to help identify staff training needs and to organise training by the most appropriate methods (for example, formal courses or self-instruction). The Civil Service College provides that training which is most efficiently undertaken centrally. Considerable use is also made of external institutions.

Civil servants under the age of 18 may continue their education by attending appropriate courses usually for one day a week ('day release' schemes). Adult staff may be entitled to financial assistance to undertake, mainly in their own time, private studies leading to recognised educational or professional qualifications in approved subjects. There are also opportunities for civil servants in mid-career to obtain fellowships or to go on sabbatical leave to undertake research in areas of interest to themselves and their departments.

Promotion and Conditions of Service

Promotions are made partly through centrally conducted competitions and partly by the departments themselves. Normally promotion is from grade to grade, but there can be accelerated promotion for staff who show

exceptional promise. Promotion or appointment to deputy secretary posts and above and all transfers between departments at these levels are approved by the Prime Minister, advised by the secretary of the Cabinet and official joint head of the Home Civil Service.

Civil servants are encouraged to join the trade union which represents the grade to which they belong. The National Whitley Council, consisting of senior officials (the Official Side) and representatives of the unions (the Trade Union Side), discusses conditions of service of staff and provides a forum for consultation. There are Whitley committees in all government departments. Pay negotiations are conducted directly with the individual unions or with the Trade Union Side representing all the unions.

An independent inquiry (the Megaw Inquiry) into future arrangements for the determination of non-industrial civil service pay reported in mid-1982. Its recommendations are being considered.

Political and Private Activities

Civil servants are expected to serve loyally the Government of the day, regardless of its political composition. To maintain their reputation for political impartiality, some restrictions are placed on their freedom to participate in political activities. No civil servant may be a member of Parliament, or (with certain exceptions corresponding to the 'politically free' group shown below) be adopted as a parliamentary candidate.

Civil Service rules place staff in three groups for the purpose of political activities: (1) the 'politically free' group, consisting of industrial and non-office grades, who are free to engage in any political activity including standing for Parliament (although they would have to resign from the Service if elected); (2) the 'politically restricted' group, consisting of all staff above Executive Officer level, together with those Executive Officers and certain related grades such as Information Officers, who are debarred from national political activities but may apply for permission to take part in local political activities; and (3) the 'intermediate' group, comprising all other staff—mainly clerical and typing grades—who may apply for permission to take part in national or local political activity apart from adoption as a parliamentary candidate.

Where required, permission is granted to the maximum extent consistent with the reputation of the Civil Service for political impartiality and the avoidance of any conflict with official duties. It is granted subject to a code of discretion requiring moderation and the avoidance of embarrassment to ministers.

Generally, there are no restrictions on the private activities of civil servants, provided that these do not bring discredit on the Civil Service, and that there is no possibility of conflict with official duties. For instance, a civil servant is required to seek permission before taking part in any outside activity which involves the use of official experience, or before accepting a directorship in any company holding a contract with his or her department.

Security

As a general rule the political views of civil servants are not a matter of official concern. However, no one whose loyalty is in doubt may be employed on work vital to the security of the State. For this reason certain posts are not open to anyone known to be a member of a Communist or Fascist organisation, or associated with such an organisation in a way that raises legitimate doubts about his or her reliability, or to anyone whose reliability may be in doubt for any other reason.

Each department is responsible for its own internal security, advised as

necessary by the Security Service. The Security Commission, if requested to do so by the Prime Minister after consultation with the Leader of the Opposition, may investigate any report on breaches of security in the public service and advise on changes in security procedure.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT

A wide range of public services is provided by democratically elected local authorities throughout the United Kingdom. The gradual expansion of local authority services, particularly in the period between the late 1940s and mid-1970s, has inevitably led to a steady rise in local government expenditure and in its support from central funds. In recent years central government has sought to check this growth as part of a general policy of reducing public expenditure, and at local level sections of the electorate have protested at having to meet considerable annual increases in 'rates' (local property taxes—see p 66). The Government has emphasised the need to achieve substantial reductions in public expenditure in order to redress the balance between the public and private sectors of the national economy and has asked local authorities to reduce their expenditure in line with reductions being made in its own spending. In particular, since manpower forms such a significant part of expenditure, they have been urged to reduce staff levels.

The specific powers and duties of local authorities are conferred on them by Parliament, or by measures made under its authority. The actual administration, and the exercise of discretion within statutory limits, are the responsibility of the local authority. In the case of certain services, however, ministers have powers to secure a measure of national uniformity in the standard of a service provided, to safeguard public health, or to protect the rights of individual citizens. For some services the minister concerned has wide powers of supervision; for others there are strictly limited powers.

The main links between local authorities and the central government are: in England, the Department of the Environment, although other departments are concerned with various local government functions; in Scotland, the Scottish Office; in Wales, the Welsh Office; and in Northern Ireland, the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland.

Principal Types of Local Authority

England and Wales (outside Greater London) is divided into 53 large county authorities, within which there are 369 smaller district authorities. Both types of authority have independent, locally elected councils, and have separate functions to perform. County authorities normally provide the large-scale local government services, while the districts are responsible for the more local ones (see pp 63–4). However, in six of the English counties, which are heavily populated and known as 'metropolitan' counties, responsibility for some large-scale services rests with the district authorities. The local government system in Wales closely resembles that in non-metropolitan areas in England. English parish councils or meetings serve as focuses for local opinion as bodies with limited powers of local interest. In Wales community councils have similar functions.

Greater London—an administrative area of about 1,580 square km (610 square miles) and a population of some 7 million—is administered by the Greater London Council, the councils of 32 London boroughs and the Corporation of the City of London.

On the mainland of Scotland local government is on a two-tier basis: nine regions are divided into 53 districts, each area having its own elected council. There are three virtually all-purpose authorities for Orkney, Shetland and the Western Isles. Provision is made for local community councils to be formed, although these councils have no statutory functions and are not local authorities.

The areas and electoral arrangements of local authorities are kept under review by the Local Government Boundary Commissions for England, Wales and Scotland.

In Northern Ireland 26 district councils are responsible for local environmental and certain other services. Statutory bodies and local offices, responsible to central departments, administer major services such as roads, water, education, health, and housing.

Election of Councils

Local authority councils consist of a number of elected unpaid councillors presided over by a chairman. They can claim a flat-rate attendance allowance or a financial loss allowance for performing council business; they are also entitled to travelling and subsistence allowances. Parish and community councillors cannot claim expenses for duties within their own areas.

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland each council annually elects a chairman and vice-chairman. Some districts have the ceremonial title of borough, or city, both granted by royal authority (in Northern Ireland by the Secretary of State). In boroughs and cities the chairman is normally known as the Mayor (in the City of London and certain other large cities, he or she is known as the Lord Mayor). In Scotland the chairman of the district council of each of the four cities is called the Lord Provost. No specific title is laid down for the chairmen of other councils, but some are known as conveners, while others continue to use the old title of 'provost'.

Elections for any form of local government normally take place every four years. Metropolitan district elections are held for a third of the seats in each year when there is no county council election. Non-metropolitan district councils may adopt the same procedure or opt for whole council elections every four years.

Anyone is entitled to vote at a local government election in Great Britain provided that he or she is aged 18 years or over, is a British subject (including those with Commonwealth citizenship), or a citizen of the Irish Republic, is not subject to any legal incapacity and is registered as a local government elector for the area for which the election is held. To qualify for registration a person must be resident in the council area on the qualifying date. In Northern Ireland there are slightly different requirements.

A candidate for election as councillor normally stands as a representative of one of the national political parties, or of some local interest, or as an independent. Candidates must be British subjects or citizens of the Irish Republic and aged 21 or over. In addition, they must be registered as a local elector in the area of the local authority to which they seek election; or have resided or occupied (as owner or tenant) land or other premises in that area during the whole of the 12 months preceding the day on which they are nominated as candidates or, in that 12 months, have had their principal or only place of work there. Candidates are also subject to a number of statutory disqualifications.

Local authority areas are generally divided into electoral areas for local council elections. Administrative counties in England and Wales are divided into electoral divisions. Districts in England, Wales and Northern

Ireland are divided into electoral 'wards', returning one councillor or more. In Scotland in the regions and islands areas the electoral areas are called electoral divisions, each returning a single member; the districts are divided into wards, similarly returning a single member. For parish or community council elections in England and Wales, each parish or community, or ward of a parish or community (or, in some cases, a combination of parishes or communities), forms an electoral area which returns one member or more. For elections to the Greater London Council, Greater London is divided into electoral divisions, each returning one councillor.

The procedure for local government voting in Great Britain is similar to that for parliamentary elections, although postal voting is more restricted. There is no postal voting for parish or community council elections. In Northern Ireland local government elections are held on the basis of proportional representation and electoral wards are grouped into district electoral areas.

Functions and Services

Local authorities' functions are far reaching. Some are primarily duties, others purely permissive.

Broadly speaking, functions in England and Wales are divided between county and district councils on the basis that county councils are responsible for matters requiring planning and administration over wide areas or requiring the support of substantial resources. Within the metropolitan areas district councils are responsible for functions needing substantial resources because they have populations large enough to give such support. District councils as a whole administer functions of more local significance. In London the division of functions is slightly different.

English county councils are generally responsible for strategic planning, transport planning, highways, traffic regulation, consumer protection, refuse disposal, police and the fire service. Education, libraries and the personal social services are functions of county councils in non-metropolitan areas and of district councils in metropolitan areas. All district councils are responsible, for instance, for environmental health, housing, decisions on most planning applications, and refuse collection. They may also provide off-street car parks subject to the consent of the county council. Powers to operate some functions—such as the provision of museums, art galleries and parks—are available at both levels; arrangements depend on local agreement.

In Greater London the boroughs and the City Corporation are responsible for the same range of functions as district councils in metropolitan areas (with the addition of consumer protection). The Greater London Council (GLC) deals only with services which require unified administration and control over the whole area. In inner London education is administered by the Inner London Education Authority, an autonomous committee of the GLC. Responsibility for highways in London is divided according to the type of road; the main strategic road network is a matter for the GLC, while the boroughs look after other roads. The boroughs have prime responsibility for the provision of housing. The GLC has transferred its housing stock to the boroughs and surrounding districts and concentrates on its strategic role focusing attention on areas of particular housing need. London's police force is directly responsible to the Home Secretary.

In Wales the division of functions between county and district councils is much the same as that between county and district councils in non-metropolitan areas of England.

Local authorities in England and Wales may arrange for any of their functions to be carried out on their behalf by another local authority, other than functions relating to education, police, the personal social services and national parks.

In Scotland the regional and district authorities discharge local government functions in a way broadly similar to that of authorities in England and Wales. Orkney, Shetland and the Western Isles, because of their isolation from the mainland, have single, virtually all-purpose authorities.

In Northern Ireland, local environmental and certain other services are administered by the district councils, but responsibility for planning, roads, water supply and sewerage services is exercised in each district by a local office of the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland working closely with the district council and its staff. Area boards, responsible to central departments, administer locally education, public libraries and the health and personal social services. The Northern Ireland Housing Executive, responsible to the Department of the Environment, administers housing.

Internal Organisation of Local Authorities

Local authorities have considerable freedom to make internal arrangements for carrying out their duties. Most use the committee system, whereby policy and principle are decided in full council, and committees administer the various services. Parish and community councils in England and Wales are often able to do their work efficiently in full session although they appoint committees from time to time as necessary. Some councils have policy advisory or co-ordinating committees with powers to originate policy, subject to the approval of the full council. The powers and duties of local authority committees (which may be advisory or executive) are usually laid down in the appointing council's standing orders.

A council is free to delegate all its powers to committees, except those in connection with raising loans, levying rates (see p 66), or making financial demands on other authorities liable to contribute; these are legally reserved to the council as a whole.

Local authorities can co-operate or share among themselves the discharge of their functions.

The public and the press are admitted to all council and committee meetings but may be excluded while a particular item is considered if the council or committee decides that publicity would not be in the public interest.

Officers and Employees

The execution of council policy rests with salaried officers and employees, of whom there are over 2 million in Great Britain. These include administrative, professional and technical staff, teachers and manual workers. Nearly half of all local government workers are employed in the education service.

Although a few appointments must be made by all the authorities responsible for the functions concerned, councils are individually responsible within national policy requirements for determining the size, composition and deployment of their workforces. An authority must not, however, employ one of its own councillors. In Northern Ireland, each council must by law appoint a clerk of the council as its chief officer.

As a general rule, employees are of three kinds: heads of departments or chief officers; administrative, professional, clerical and technical staff; and manual workers. Senior staff appointments are usually made on the recom-

mendation of the committee or committees particularly concerned; most junior appointments are made by heads of departments, who are also responsible for engaging manual workers. Appointments and engagements always conform to the council's set establishment, and committees are informed of appointments which they have not made themselves.

Pay and conditions of service for local authority staff are a matter for each council, although there are recommended scales.

Local Government Finance

Local authority expenditure in the United Kingdom (on both current and capital accounts) was about £35,000 million in 1981. A clear distinction is made between capital and current expenditure. Capital expenditure (just under a quarter of the total) is financed partly from the current account surplus (about half), partly from borrowing (two-fifths) and the remainder from grants and other income. Housing, the major element, accounted for over half the total in 1981. Current expenditure by local authorities accounts for just over a quarter of total current account spending by central and local government. The education service represents over a third of this expenditure, followed by the police, personal social services, roads (including lighting), public health and debt interest. Current expenditure is financed mainly from central government grants (about three-fifths) and from local rates (about one-third). Each local authority is responsible for its own finance, although in a few cases several authorities combine to provide a specialist service which it would be uneconomic for each to provide on its own.

Government Grants

Government 'rate support grants' to local authorities are paid in aid of revenues generally. Grants are also paid towards the cost of specific services—either towards current expenditure, such as on the police, or towards capital expenditure, such as on the acquisition and clearance of derelict land. (In Wales and Scotland approved schemes for acquiring and clearing derelict land are financed by the Welsh and Scottish Development Agencies.) Annual subsidies are paid for local authority housing.

Grants are also made towards the cost of rate rebates for people with low incomes.

A new system for the distribution of rate support grant in England and Wales took effect in 1981–82. This consists of a single block grant together with prescribed ceilings for the level of total local authority capital expenditure. Authorities receive annual capital amounts for housing, education, social services, transport and other services, but are free to determine their own spending priorities by the transfer of resources from one category to another. One of the effects of the new system is to ensure that high-spending authorities do not pre-empt even larger shares of government money, reducing the amount available to those which observe national financial guidelines.

In Scotland the old system has been retained, the grant being distributed in three parts: the 'needs' element, designed to give most help to authorities whose spending needs are greatest; the 'resources' element, used to supplement the rate income of authorities whose rateable value per head of population falls below a standard figure, prescribed for each year; and the 'domestic' element, which compensates authorities for loss of rate income from reductions in rate poundage which they are required to give to householders. Excessive and unreasonable expenditure levels by local authorities, however, are discouraged by central government which can

make selective grant reductions. Local authority capital expenditure has been subject to central government control since 1975.

In Northern Ireland district councils receive certain specific grants (for example, for the acquisition of open space) and grants to compensate them for loss of rate income arising from the partial derating of industrial premises. In addition, councils whose rating resources are below a standard level receive a resources grant to bring them up to that level.

Rates

Rates are local taxes paid by the occupiers of land and property (with certain exceptions, see below) to meet part of the cost of local services. Each occupier's payment is calculated annually by the rating authority by multiplying the rateable value of a property (broadly equivalent to its annual rental value) by the rate poundage—an amount per £ of rateable value fixed by the authority according to its projected financial needs. Rateable values are assessed periodically, and there is a system of appeals for disputed assessments. Crown (government) property is not rateable but payments are made, based on values assessed by the Treasury Valuer, in lieu of rates.

Government grants reduce domestic rates below the levels paid by commercial concerns, and provide rebates for people with low incomes. Rating relief is available in certain circumstances on premises adapted for the use of the disabled. Agricultural land and buildings (apart from living accommodation) and places of religious worship are exempted from rates. Charities pay half the full rate on premises occupied for charitable purposes and may be given further relief by rating authorities, who can also reduce or remit the rates for a wide range of non-profit-making bodies. Rates may be levied on empty properties at any percentage up to the full amount and in the case of empty commercial property a surcharge may be payable.

In Scotland industrial (including freight transport) premises are rated at a half of net annual value. There is empty property rating but no empty property surcharge.

In Northern Ireland industrial (including freight transport) premises are rated at a quarter of net annual value. Empty properties are not rated.

Loans

Local authorities may raise loans to finance capital expenditure under general powers. For items of expenditure in key sectors (such as education, housing and roads) those in England and Wales must seek prior central government approval. For other capital expenditure, each authority receives an annual loan authorisation within which it determines the sums to borrow and the projects to undertake. The GLC applies annually for parliamentary sanction to raise the money needed for capital expenditure while the City of London has ancient charter powers to cover its borrowings. In Northern Ireland long-term borrowing by district councils is subject to central approval; in Scotland central approval is given to capital expenditure, not to loans.

Local authorities may raise long-term loans by means of private mortgages, issuing stock upon The Stock Exchange and bonds which may or may not be quoted on The Stock Exchange. Local authorities also have right of access to the Public Works Loan Board, financed by the Exchequer, or, in Northern Ireland, to the Government Loans Fund, for long-term borrowing to finance a proportion of their reckonable capital payments, and may borrow temporarily for a limited proportion of their current outstanding loan debt.

Control of Finance

Local councils normally have a finance committee to keep their financial policy under constant review. They must have their accounts audited.

**Local
Government
Complaints
System**

A complaints system for local government in England and Wales involves independent statutory Commissions for Local Administration comprising local commissioners (local government Ombudsmen). The English Commission consists of three local commissioners and the Welsh of one. In Scotland the statute provides for a single commissioner. All commissioners are responsible in their particular area for investigating citizens' complaints of maladministration by local authorities. The commissioners help local authority councillors to protect the interests of constituents.

In Northern Ireland a Commissioner for Complaints deals with complaints alleging injustices suffered as a result of maladministration by district councils and certain other public bodies.

THE FIRE SERVICES

Every part of Britain is covered by a local fire service, which is subject to a measure of central control. Other than in Northern Ireland, the cost is borne by local authorities aided by central government through the rate support grant.

Each of the 64 fire authorities must by law make provision for fire-fighting, and maintain a brigade of sufficient strength to meet all normal requirements (in some parts of Scotland, authorities combine to provide fire cover). Other fire-fighting organisations are maintained, for instance, by the Army and Air Force Departments of the Ministry of Defence; by the Department of Industry at certain establishments; and by some large industrial and commercial concerns.

The Home Secretary and the Secretary of State for Scotland have central responsibility in England and Wales and in Scotland respectively. Central control is directed mainly towards ensuring the operational efficiency of brigades. Ministers have statutory powers to make regulations on such matters as appointments and promotions, standards of training and equipment, pensions and disciplinary matters. Their approval is also required for reductions in the operational establishments of fire brigades. Each minister is advised by a Central Fire Brigades Advisory Council, consisting of officers of the respective home departments, representatives of local authorities and of the associations representing members of fire brigades and other people with special qualifications, appointed by the minister concerned. Inspectorates of fire services advise on operational and technical matters. Most fire brigades include part-time personnel to augment and support the full-time strength in return for a retaining fee and call-out and attendance fee. Fire authorities also employ people for duties in controls communications and mobilising and staff duties. There are about 39,000 full-time and 18,500 part-time operational members of fire brigades in Britain.

Every fire authority must buy appliances and equipment to meet all normal fire-fighting requirements in its area. Certain equipment is standardised so that there is complete interchangeability when a fire is attended by more than one brigade. The principal types of fire-fighting appliances are bought by fire authorities to specifications approved by central government on the advice of the Central Fire Brigades Advisory Councils. The specifications ensure that minimum standards are main-

tained, and allow sufficient freedom of design to meet special circumstances and encourage further developments.

Each fire authority must appoint a Chief Fire Officer (Firemaster in Scotland) who exercises central control from brigade headquarters. Divisional officers in charge of the geographical divisions into which most brigade areas are divided are responsible for mobilising forces to deal with outbreaks of fire. Constant communication is maintained between divisional and brigade headquarters and, if a fire should be beyond the capabilities of a division, help is sent from one or more neighbouring divisions, or even from another fire authority. The nearest available force is sent to a fire, regardless of area boundaries.

Fire Prevention

Fire authorities are concerned in some way with fire precautions in most buildings used by the public and have major responsibility for enforcing legislation concerning fire precautions. They must also make efficient arrangements for giving advice on fire prevention, restricting the spread of fires, and means of escape. Courses in fire prevention are held at the Fire Service Technical College for fire brigade officers. In addition to their enforcement and advisory duties, brigades are also involved in education and publicity to promote fire safety, particularly in the home. The Government is advised on prevention by the Joint Fire Prevention Committee of the Central Fire Brigades Advisory Councils, representing the fire service and central and local authorities.

Research

Research into health hazards to firemen, fire brigade organisation and fire-fighting equipment is conducted by the Home Office with the help of the fire service under the auspices of the Joint Committee on Fire Research of the Central Fire Brigades Advisory Councils. Individual research projects are undertaken by the Home Office Scientific Research and Development Branch or, under contract to the Home Office, by other government agencies, notably the Fire Research Station, which is part of the Building Research Establishment of the Department of the Environment, or by private consultants. The Fire Research Station is the main organisation studying and investigating technical aspects of fire.

Special Services

Fire authorities have discretion to use their brigades and equipment, free of charge, in a variety of non-fire emergencies (such as rail, road and aircraft accidents, collapse of buildings, flooding of premises, leakage of harmful gas or liquids and the rescue of people or animals from dangerous situations).

Fire Losses

The direct cost of damage to buildings and goods destroyed by fires in Great Britain in 1981 amounted to an estimated £356 million (consequential losses from the interruption of business are not included in this total). Most fires involving heavy losses occur when the premises are unattended; and fires are more likely to start in storage areas than in production departments. Industries which suffer most severely include engineering and electrical firms, textiles, food, drink and tobacco, warehousing, chemical and allied industries, paper, printing and publishing firms, and retailing.

Fire Casualties

About 1,000 people, particularly the elderly and young children, die in fires every year (most of them at home) and a further 9,000 or so suffer injuries. Among the chief causes of fatal fires are ignition of upholstery, bedding and clothing by smokers' materials and heaters.

3 OVERSEAS RELATIONS

Britain's overseas relations reflect both its traditional position as a major trading and maritime power whose people have settled throughout the world, and its present concern to help to maintain peace and to secure world-wide economic and social progress through international co-operation. It has diplomatic relations with some 150 countries, and with about 20 of these has common security arrangements, principally through the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation. Commercial activities have helped Britain to maintain its position as a world financial centre. It has considerable overseas investments and its international trading pattern reflects its dependence on imports for nearly half of its food and more than half of its raw material requirements and the relatively high proportion of its gross national product accounted for by exports (over a third); for details of trade and payments, see Chapter 19. British development assistance is provided to over 120 countries.

In an increasingly interdependent world, the attainment of overseas objectives and the ability to exert influence in support of them are seen as best achieved through co-operation with other nations on a regional or global basis. Britain is now a member of some 120 international organisations ranging from the world-wide United Nations concerned with problems of world peace, international economic co-operation and social issues to regionally based and technically orientated bodies. In particular, it is a member of the European Community whose policies it helps to determine, and is increasingly co-ordinating its overseas policies through the Community's political co-operation mechanism (see p 74). As a member of the Commonwealth, Britain is a part of a representative cross-section of the international community, which has evolved from the British Empire (since 1945 Britain has progressively, and largely peacefully, dismantled its Empire and prepared nearly 50 countries for independence) and whose 47 members share a common language, common technical standards, similar systems of law and close professional, academic and commercial links.

Britain has strong ties, also, with the United States, including a common language and many common political and cultural traditions.

A long involvement in world affairs has given Britain both a vital interest and a firm belief in the maintenance of international order governed by respect for a generally accepted system of law. As a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council it makes support for the United Nations a central feature of its foreign policy.

Administration

Although responsibilities of many government departments have a significant overseas dimension, the general conduct of overseas relations is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Foreign and Commonwealth Affairs acting through the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and British diplomatic posts overseas. The latter comprise embassies and high commissions in nearly 130 countries, together with subordinate consulates general and consulates, and missions at eight multilateral organisations.

These posts, like the Foreign and Commonwealth Office, are staffed by members of the Diplomatic Service and locally engaged staff. Excluding supporting administrative and communications services, about a quarter of the staff are employed on political and economic work, nearly a third on export promotion and other commercial matters, a quarter on consular and immigration work, and the remainder on aid administration and information and cultural work. Other departments which have a primary concern with overseas relations include the Ministry of Defence, the Department of Trade, the Treasury and the Overseas Development Administration which is part of the Foreign and Commonwealth Office; but the involvement of most has increased in recent years with the growing dependence of domestic economic policy on international decisions and with Britain's membership of the European Community.

Where questions of overseas policy involve matters within the responsibility of other departments, the Foreign and Commonwealth Office formulates policy in consultation with the departments concerned. The balance of responsibilities is a matter of constant adjustment, and the department with the predominant functional interest, even though it may be primarily domestic, takes the lead. This is particularly so in policy concerning the European Community and international monetary matters. In the case of policy towards the Community, the Foreign and Commonwealth Office exercises its co-ordinating role at official level through the machinery of the Cabinet Office.

Other bodies whose work has an overseas dimension include the British Overseas Trade Board and the Export Credits Guarantee Department which provide export services for industry; the Crown Agents for Oversea Governments and Administrations which helps to arrange purchases from British aid funds and appointments under technical co-operation programmes; and the British Council.

The British Council

The British Council was founded in 1934 to promote a wider knowledge of Britain and the English language abroad and to develop closer cultural relations between Britain and other countries. (For Britain's international scientific relations, see p 362.) The activities of the Council, which has staff in over 80 countries, include the teaching of English and the recruitment of British teachers for posts overseas, administering the Government's educational assistance and technical co-operation training programmes; fostering personal contacts between British and overseas people, especially in the educational, professional and scientific areas; running, or helping to maintain, libraries of British books and periodicals overseas and providing information through touring exhibitions and bibliographical services; and presenting overseas the best of British arts. In Britain, the Council is concerned mainly with arranging programmes for professional visitors and with the placing, administration and welfare of overseas students. A basic principle is that the Council's work should be of benefit both to Britain and to the receiving country.

About 78 per cent of the Council's budget, which totalled some £142.1 million in 1982-83, is provided by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office (including funds from the Overseas Development Administration) and on its behalf the Council is responsible for the implementation of more than 30 cultural agreements with other countries. Overseas it acts as education adviser to Britain's diplomatic missions and is responsible for educational assistance in developing countries in which it is represented. Increasingly,

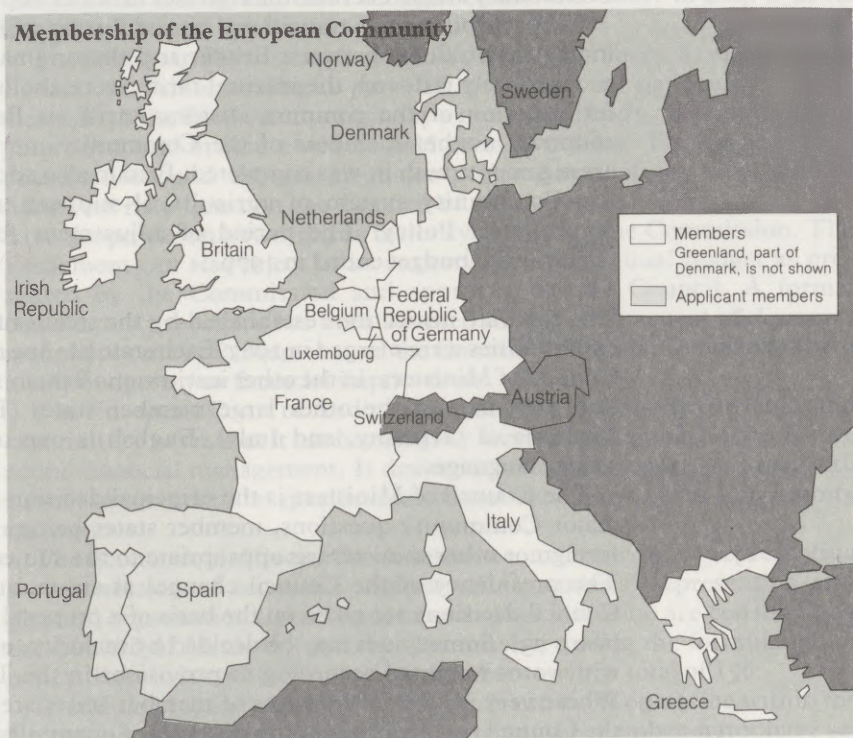
the Council is undertaking education projects paid for by overseas clients and is providing English classes abroad; these activities are expected to produce about 22 per cent (some £31 million) of its income in 1982-83.

The Council's role in Britain's educational aid programme has increased considerably in recent years and in 1980-81 it assumed responsibility for all links and exchanges in higher education which require official support.

MEMBERSHIP OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

Britain joined the European Community on 1 January 1973 and its membership was endorsed in a national referendum in 1975. The other members are Belgium, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and the Netherlands, the original six members; Denmark and the Irish Republic which joined with Britain in 1973; and Greece which became a member in 1981. With its partners, Britain seeks to develop the Community in the interests of all its members. It supports the membership applications of Portugal and Spain, seeing enlargement as a means of strengthening democracy in Europe.

The European Community consists of three communities set up by separate treaties—the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC), the European Economic Community (EEC) and the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom). The Community is the world's largest trading block, accounting for about a third of world trade. Designed to lay the foundations for a closer union between the peoples of Europe and to promote economic expansion by means of a common market and the



gradual approximation of member states' economic policies, the Community has moved towards these objectives by abolishing internal tariffs and certain other trade barriers, establishing a common customs tariff, and making provision for the free movement of labour, capital and services. Over 40 per cent of British exports go to the other member states. There is also a common policy for agriculture. Overseas countries having special links with Community member states are accorded preferential treatment in aid and the development of trade.

A common market for coal and steel is designed to ensure an orderly supply of these commodities to member states. The Coal and Steel Community's funds are raised by a levy on production, and investment grants are given to encourage the modernisation of the industries, for research, and for social measures to help to re-deploy coal and steel workers. Loans are also raised which promote workers' housing and aid capital investment.

One of the Community's aims is to co-ordinate member states' nuclear energy industries and their other peaceful nuclear activities. Since 1959 there has been a common market for all nuclear materials and a common control system prevents their diversion to purposes other than those declared. There is also a co-ordinated research programme in the peaceful uses of nuclear energy.

Britain's Accession

By the Treaty of Accession, signed in January 1972, Britain became a party to the two treaties of Rome establishing the EEC and Euratom. Accession to the ECSC was effected by a decision of the Council of Ministers. The European Communities Act 1972 made the legislative changes necessary for Britain to comply with the obligations entailed by membership of the Community and to exercise the rights of membership.

In 1977, following a transitional period during which tariffs on trade in industrial products between Britain and the original six members were progressively reduced, the internal tariffs were abolished and the phased introduction of the common customs tariff on British imports from countries neither members of the Community, nor having any special arrangements with it, was completed. Britain also adopted, progressively, the Community system of agricultural support under the Common Agricultural Policy. The period of adjustment for payments to the Community budget ended in 1979.

Community Institutions

The separate institutions established by the treaties for each of the three communities were merged in 1967. Each state has one representative on the Council of Ministers; in the other institutions Britain's representation is in line with that of the other large member states (France, the Federal Republic of Germany, and Italy). English is one of the Community's official languages.

The Council of Ministers is the principal decision-making body for all major Community questions, member states being represented on it by foreign or other ministers as appropriate to the subject under discussion. The presidency of the Council changes at six-monthly intervals. Most Council decisions are taken on the basis of a proposal by the Commission (see p 73). Some issues may be decided by majority, or qualified majority, with votes weighted according to provisions in the Treaty of Accession. Where very important interests of member states are involved, however, the Council usually proceeds on the basis of unanimity. The Committee of

Permanent Representatives (COREPER), composed of member states' ambassadors to the Community, assists the Council by preparing its meetings and co-ordinating the work of other subordinate bodies and groups.

The Commission formulates detailed policy proposals for submission to the Council of Ministers, promotes the Community interest, attempts to reconcile national viewpoints and implements the provisions of the treaties and Community measures. Limited powers of decision relating mainly to the detailed administration of agriculture are delegated to it. It is composed of 14 commissioners nominated by member governments; two are from Britain. The President of the Commission is its representative and is responsible for its general administration. Each of the other commissioners is responsible for one or more of the main Community activities. The Commission is pledged to act independently of national or sectional interests and to formulate its proposals and administer policy in the interests of the Community as a whole. Its proposals are made only after extensive consultation with officials of the national governments and with producers, trade unions, employers' associations and many others.

The Court of Justice interprets and adjudicates on the meaning of the treaties and of any measures taken by the Council of Ministers and Commission under them, hears complaints and appeals brought by or against Community institutions, member states or individuals and gives preliminary rulings on questions referred to it by courts in the member states. As a court of final appeal, its procedure in such cases is broadly similar to that of the highest courts in member states; its rulings are binding on member countries, Community institutions and individuals. The Court consists of 11 judges assisted by five advocates-general who make reasoned submissions concerning cases brought before the Court to help it in its interpretation and application of Community law.

The European Parliament is composed of 434 members, 81 elected from Britain, who sit according to party affiliation and not nationality. Direct elections to the Parliament, originally a nominated body, were first held in June 1979, and in future will be held every five years. The Parliament is consulted on and debates all major policy issues of the Community. Members may question the Council of Ministers and Commission, and have the power on a two-thirds majority to dismiss the Commission. The Parliament can also reject in its entirety the draft annual budget as presented by the Commission and approved by the Council. A formal conciliation procedure has been adopted for use in the event of disagreement between the Parliament and the Council of Ministers on matters with major budgetary or financial implications.

The European Court of Auditors examines all Community revenue and expenditure to see that it has been legally received and spent, and to ensure sound financial management. It draws up an annual report, and may also submit observations on specific questions at the request of the Community institutions.

The Economic and Social Committee is a consultative body representing a cross-section of economic interests. Its members (representing employers' organisations, trade unions and other interests) are consulted by the Council of Ministers and the Commission during the formulation of policy. Britain is entitled to send 24 members out of a total of 156.

In addition to, and separately from, the institutions operating within the Community framework established by treaty, the member states have set

up machinery under which they consult each other before taking up final positions on important questions of foreign policy. Known as political co-operation, these consultations include regular meetings of foreign ministers, monthly meetings of senior officials, and contacts at working level among those concerned with particular questions. In addition, the ten foreign ministries are linked by a secure communications system. Representatives of member states serving in other countries and international organisations maintain regular contact.

The Community's heads of State or of Government meet at least three times a year as the European Council which operates outside the treaty framework and considers both Community matters and those arising in the context of political co-operation. It discusses issues unresolved in the Council of Ministers as well as general Community problems and lays down guidelines and political direction for future work.

Community policies are implemented by regulations, which are legally binding and directly applicable in all member countries; directives, which are binding, as to the result to be achieved, on member states to which they are addressed but allow national authorities to decide on means of implementation; decisions, which are binding on those to whom they are addressed (for example, member states, firms, or individuals); and recommendations and opinions, which have no binding force. The Council can also indicate a general policy direction through resolutions.

Community Policies¹

External Relations

The member governments discuss a wide range of foreign policy issues and, where possible, reach common positions. At the United Nations their policies are closely co-ordinated, and they have voted together on a large number of issues. They adopted a common strategy at the 1975 Helsinki Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe and have continued to work closely at both the Belgrade (1977–78) and Madrid (1980–82) review conferences. The Community condemned the 1981 imposition of martial law in Poland and the suppression of the independent trade union, Solidarity, as a violation of the principles agreed upon at Helsinki, and instituted a number of economic sanctions against Poland and the Soviet Union. Following the European Council's Venice Declaration in June 1980, which set out the Community's views on the principles on which a comprehensive settlement of the Arab–Israeli conflict should be based, Community representatives have visited the area to discuss their ideas with the parties concerned. Four Community members are participating in a peacekeeping force in Sinai following the 1982 withdrawal from the area by Israel. The Community has adopted a code of conduct on employment practices for member states' companies operating in South Africa, and supported efforts to promote an internationally acceptable solution to the problem of Namibia. Following a British initiative, the Community has proposed an international conference, to meet in two stages, with a view to ending Soviet intervention in Afghanistan and restoring that country's independence and non-aligned status.

On international trade matters the Council of Ministers agree a common position in advance of negotiations and the Commission speaks on behalf of the Community. Commercial co-operation agreements have been concluded with a number of countries in the Mediterranean area, the South

¹Some details of Community policies as they affect British domestic affairs will be found in the appropriate chapters.

Asian sub-continent, Latin America and other areas, and with the Association of South East Asian Nations. Discussions covering trade and other matters have taken place with regional groupings of Latin American, Arab and South-East Asian countries.

The Community has also improved progressively its generalised scheme of preferences, which covers manufactures and semi-manufactures exported by developing countries, with the aim in particular of benefiting the poorest of them (see p 348). A new scheme started in January 1981 and will run for ten years.

The second Lomé Convention, which governs aid, trade and co-operation between the Community and over 60 developing countries in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific (ACP), came into operation in 1981; over half the ACP countries are members of the Commonwealth. The Convention provides for increased aid and European Investment Bank lending of nearly £3,000 million, industrial and agricultural co-operation, an extension of the scheme designed to stabilise the commodity export earnings of the ACP countries, assistance for ACP mineral producers whose production and income suffer from temporary disruptions beyond their control, and duty-free access to the Community for ACP countries' exports of all industrial and most agricultural goods, including improved access for exports such as rum and beef. All British dependent territories (with the exception of Bermuda, Gibraltar and Hong Kong), together with the overseas territories of other Community members, are formally associated with the Community as a whole under conditions parallel to those in the Lomé Convention and have similar aid and trade benefits.

Britain has played a leading part in urging the Community to adopt a new aid and development policy based on the criterion of need and applicable on a world-wide basis, thereby encompassing those developing countries (many of which are among the world's poorest) not covered by the Lomé Convention or having any other special relationship with the Community. Although it is still small, the aid programme for these non-associated states has grown steadily since 1976. The Community also has a large food aid programme, worth about £300 million in 1982. (See also North-South Dialogue at the end of this chapter.)

Internal Policies

All member countries contribute to a common budget which provides funds for specific Community policies. This is largely financed by an 'own resources' system of levies on agricultural imports, customs duties and a proportion, not exceeding 1 per cent, of the proceeds of the value added tax collected on an agreed range of goods and services.

In the late 1970s Britain's budgetary contributions were out of balance, resulting in its being one of the largest net contributors despite its relatively low gross domestic product per head. This problem was foreseen during the accession negotiations, and Britain was given an assurance that, if unacceptable situations arose, the very survival of the Community would demand that the institutions find equitable solutions. In May 1980 the Community agreed on proposals providing for more equitable net budgetary contributions by Britain for the years 1980 and 1981. It also agreed to review the development of Community policies and to make structural changes with a view to preventing the recurrence of such 'unacceptable situations' to any Community member. Since this was not achieved in time, arrangements were made to reduce Britain's net contribution in 1982 to £390 million. In Britain's view, the Common Agricultural Policy (see

Chapter 14) absorbs too large a share of the budget in comparison with other sectors such as industrial, regional, social and urban policies. (Expenditure on the Policy accounts for over 62 per cent of the total budget, while regional policy takes 4.9 per cent, social policy 4.1 per cent, aid to developing countries 3.7 per cent and projects concerned with research, energy, industry and transport 1.9 per cent.) This situation, Britain believes, is detrimental to the fundamental Community objectives of strengthening the economies of the member states and, by reducing regional differences, ensuring their harmonious development.

The European Monetary System was established in 1979 to promote monetary stability in Europe. Britain does not participate in the exchange rate mechanism of the scheme, but it is taking part in other aspects such as the development of the European currency unit¹ and of the European Monetary Co-operation Fund.

The European Social Fund finances schemes for training and retraining young people, migrant workers, workers in textile and clothing industries, the handicapped and workers leaving agriculture. The European Regional Development Fund (see p 207) provides grants for industrial and infrastructure projects in the less developed or industrially declining regions of the Community with the aim of reducing existing imbalances or preventing the creation of new ones. Britain has received substantial grants from the two Funds, together with grants and loans from the European Coal and Steel Community, the European Investment Bank (see p 207) and the guidance section of the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund (see p 273).

Community industrial policy includes measures designed to deal with the collapse of demand for steel; temporary mandatory production quotas have been introduced in order to cut back production to the level of demand, thereby allowing economic price levels to be obtained. Efforts are also being made to restructure and modernise the industry so that it can become profitable without governmental aid.

Other areas of action include energy, environment and transport policies.

THE COMMONWEALTH

The Commonwealth is a voluntary association of 47 independent states with a combined population of over 1,000 million, about a quarter of the world total. Britain participates fully in all its activities and values it as a means of consulting and co-operating with peoples of widely differing cultures, thereby contributing to the promotion of international understanding and peace.

Commonwealth members are a representative cross-section of mankind in all stages of political and economic development. Their peoples are drawn from practically all the world's main races and from all continents. As some of its members are very rich and others very poor, the Commonwealth acts as a bridge between rich and poor nations.

The members are Antigua and Barbuda, Australia, the Bahamas, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Botswana, Britain, Canada, Cyprus, Dominica, Fiji, The Gambia, Ghana, Grenada, Guyana, India, Jamaica,

¹The European currency unit (ecu) is defined as a 'basket' of all Community currencies and is used within the Community for budgetary and other purposes.

Kenya, Kiribati, Lesotho, Malawi, Malaysia, Maldives, Malta, Mauritius, Nauru, New Zealand, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Tanzania, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Tuvalu, Uganda, Vanuatu, Western Samoa, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Maldives, Nauru, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, and Tuvalu are special members entitled to take part in all functional Commonwealth meetings and activities but not meetings of heads of Government. The Queen is recognised as head of the Commonwealth; she is also head of State in 17 countries (see p 31).

The origin of the Commonwealth lies in the gradual granting of self-government to the older-established British colonies (later known as the Dominions) in Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa¹ where European settlement had occurred on a large scale. Their fully independent status in relation to Britain was legally formulated in the Statute of Westminster of 1931. The main expansion in Commonwealth membership, however, took place after the second world war following Britain's decision to guide its dependent territories towards self-government and independence. This process began in 1947 with the independence of India and Pakistan,² and in 1957 Ghana became the first African dependency to become independent. By the end of the 1960s nearly all the British dependencies in Africa had gained their independence as had many in the Caribbean and in Asia. The most recent Commonwealth members are Antigua and Barbuda and Belize, both of which attained their independence in 1981, and the Maldives, independent since 1965, joined in 1982.

Consultation

As a member of the Commonwealth, Britain participates in a system of mutual consultation and co-operation. The Commonwealth does not formulate central policies on, say, economic or foreign affairs. Nevertheless the considerable consultation and co-operation is of benefit to member countries and contributes to international understanding. It led, for instance, to the Commonwealth playing a significant role in the events leading to Zimbabwe's independence in April 1980, and to Commonwealth involvement in Uganda when a team observed the 1980 elections and when a military training team was sent there in 1982.

Consultation takes place through diplomatic representatives known as High Commissioners, meetings of heads of Government, specialised conferences of other ministers and officials, expert groups, and discussions at international conferences and the United Nations. Trade and cultural exhibitions and conferences of professional and unofficial medical, cultural, educational and economic organisations are other ways in which frequent contacts are made.

Heads of Government usually meet every two years, most recently in Melbourne in 1981; the next meeting will be in New Delhi in 1983. Proceedings are normally in private which facilitates a frank and informal exchange of views. On international affairs no formal decisions are taken and no attempt is made to formulate specifically Commonwealth policies, although, on occasion, common views on matters of major international concern are formulated and reflected in the communiqués issued at the end of the meetings. Occasionally separate declarations are made on particular

¹South Africa ceased to be a member of the Commonwealth in 1961.

²Pakistan left the Commonwealth in 1972.

issues, for instance, the 1971 declaration of Commonwealth principles, the 1977 statement which commits member governments to take every practical step to discourage sporting contacts with South Africa, the 1979 Lusaka declaration on racism and racial prejudice, and the 1981 Melbourne declaration on the economic and other problems facing developing countries. One of the most important Commonwealth activities is consultation and co-operation in economic affairs, and finance ministers meet annually to discuss world economic problems. In recent years, they have paid particular attention to the problems of development and the establishment of a fairer international economic order. Other ministerial meetings include those of agriculture, education, health and law ministers which take place every two or three years.

The Commonwealth Secretariat

The Commonwealth Secretariat provides the central organisation for consultation and co-operation among member states. Established in London in 1965, headed by a Secretary-General appointed by the heads of Government, and financed by member governments, the Secretariat is responsible to Commonwealth governments collectively.

As the main agency for multilateral communication between governments, the Secretariat promotes consultation, disseminates information on matters of common concern, and organises meetings and conferences, including those of heads of Government and of ministers. It co-ordinates many Commonwealth activities, its main areas of operation being international affairs, the role of women in development, youth activities, and applied studies in government. It also administers the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation.

Because of its neutral position the Secretariat has been able to make its good offices available in cases of dispute, and has carried out, on request, special assignments requiring demonstrable impartiality.

Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation

Britain plays an active part in the work of the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation established within the Commonwealth Secretariat to provide technical co-operation for economic and social development in Commonwealth developing countries. The Fund is financed by contributions from both developed and developing states, Britain contributing about 30 per cent of its income.

The Fund provides experts to undertake advisory assignments or fill specific posts and uses consultancy firms to make studies for governments. Its education and training programme is of particular help in raising levels of technical and managerial skill, and makes wide use of training facilities within developing member countries for the benefit of other developing countries. It has a special programme to help countries develop their exports, another on food production and rural development and a small technical assistance group to give advice in key areas. An industrial development unit, the main executive agency of the Commonwealth Action Programme of Industrial Co-operation established in 1979, investigates the feasibility of establishing new industries in developing countries and helps to prepare agreed projects.

Other Technical Co-operation

Expenditure by Britain on technical co-operation with Commonwealth developing countries in 1981 was nearly £106 million, the greater part being spent on financing staff for service for Commonwealth governments and in financing training places in Britain for people from Commonwealth

countries; volunteers are also sent from Britain to serve overseas. Other help includes consultancy services, the supply of training and research equipment, and the provision of advice by British scientific and technical institutions.

Britain is a major contributor to the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan, a system of awards for people of high intellectual promise to study in Commonwealth countries other than their own, and provides 650 awards annually out of a total of over 1,000 within the scheme. Under the Aid for the Commonwealth Teaching of Science Scheme, Britain sends out experts to serve in curriculum development units, institutes of education and the inspectorates of ministries of education.

Financial disbursement of official development assistance to Commonwealth developing countries totalled some £363 million in 1981. In addition, some received investment finance from the Commonwealth Development Corporation.

Other Organisations

A large number of organisations are concerned with the Commonwealth. The Commonwealth Institute, financed largely by the British Government, promotes knowledge about the Commonwealth through films, library services, lecture tours by members of the staff and study conferences for students; its headquarters in London has a permanent public exhibition depicting the life of member states, each country financing its own stand. The Commonwealth Foundation, established in 1965 and financed by member governments, administers a fund for increasing co-operation between professional organisations; it has assisted in the creation of 21 Commonwealth-wide professional associations, helped in the creation and growth of many national ones, and has created 16 multidisciplinary professional centres. The Royal Commonwealth Society, which is over 100 years old, is a centre for study and discussion, its library in London having one of the largest collections on the Commonwealth. The Society has branches, affiliated organisations and representatives in many countries.

In keeping with the fact that the Commonwealth is an association of peoples as well as governments, many unofficial organisations, professional bodies and voluntary societies provide machinery for co-operation. Professional bodies include associations of architects, doctors, engineers, lawyers, librarians, magistrates, museum curators, nurses, pharmacists, planners, surveyors and veterinary surgeons. Other organisations include the Commonwealth Parliamentary Association which organises an annual conference of parliamentarians, the Commonwealth Press Union, the Commonwealth Broadcasting Association, the Commonwealth Youth Exchange Council, the Commonwealth Games Federation and the Commonwealth Arts Association.

DEPEN- DENCIES AND ASSOCIATED STATES

There are 13 remaining British dependent territories: Anguilla, Bermuda, British Antarctic Territory, British Indian Ocean Territory, British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Falkland Islands and Dependencies, Gibraltar, Hong Kong, Montserrat, Pitcairn Island, St Helena and Dependencies, and the Turks and Caicos Islands. They have a combined population of 5.2 million, of which some 5 million live in Hong Kong. Few are rich in natural resources, and some are scattered groups of islands. There are no permanent inhabitants in the British Antarctic Territory or British Indian Ocean Territory.

Most dependencies have considerable self-government with their own

legislature and civil service. Britain is generally responsible, through a Governor, for defence, internal security and foreign affairs.

British policy is to give independence to those dependencies that want it, and not to force it on those which do not. The Falkland Islands and Gibraltar are the subject of territorial claims by Argentina and Spain respectively. In both cases the inhabitants wish to retain the link with Britain, which refuses to accept that British sovereignty is in doubt. The Government is therefore pledged not to support any transfer of sovereignty against their wishes since this would be contrary to the principle of self-determination. It was in fulfilment of this responsibility that Britain, after diplomatic efforts had failed, resorted to military force to restore British administration in the Falkland Islands and Dependencies following their illegal invasion and occupation by Argentina in April 1982.

St Kitts-Nevis, situated in the Caribbean with an estimated population of 50,000, is not a dependency but an Associated State. This status, which gives the country complete control of its own internal affairs with Britain retaining responsibility for external relations and defence, can be terminated at any time by either party; five former Associated States are now independent.

INTERNATIONAL PEACE AND SECURITY

One of Britain's primary concerns is to protect its territorial integrity and political independence, as well as the interests of its dependencies and of its allies. These objectives are pursued through a national security policy in which defence is coupled with strenuous efforts towards both removing or alleviating the causes of international tension and achieving balanced and verifiable international arms control and disarmament agreements.

British defence policy (see Chapter 4) is based on the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO)¹ which member countries regard as their guarantor of security, freedom and well-being, and as an important contribution to international peace and stability. NATO's twin aims are defence and the reduction of East-West tension. It pursues a strategy of deterrence, designed to convince any potential aggressor that the use of force, or the threat of it, carries risks far outweighing any likely advantage. In pursuit of this NATO countries are engaged in a number of negotiations aimed at reducing the level of nuclear and conventional forces.

Outside Europe, Britain is committed to joint consultation with Australia, New Zealand, Malaysia and Singapore under the Five Power Defence arrangement and is responsible for the security of its overseas dependencies, the Associated State of St Kitts-Nevis and Brunei, with which it has a special treaty relationship. Britain also supports the UN peacekeeping efforts in various parts of the world.

Détente

Britain favours genuine improvements in East-West relations based on undiminished security and a process of dialogue. The basic prerequisite is that both sides should avoid policies which risk provoking confrontation, aiming instead for mutual accommodation and co-operation while exercising restraint in the conduct of international relations both in Europe and

¹NATO's 16 member countries are Belgium, Britain, Canada, Denmark, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Turkey and the United States. France does not participate fully in NATO's integrated military structure.

the rest of the world. This is explicitly recognised in the Final Act of the 1975 Helsinki Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe which states that European security has to be considered in the broader context of world security and that the pursuit of security should extend to other parts of the world.

The Soviet Union's invasion of Afghanistan in December 1979, and its occupation of that country since then, have seriously damaged East-West relations. The NATO countries have urged the Soviet Union to take positive action, including a withdrawal from Afghanistan, to help to restore mutual confidence. As a step in this direction, the European Community, on Britain's initiative, proposed in 1981 a two-stage international conference to reach agreement on Soviet withdrawal and a restoration of Afghanistan's non-aligned status. The Soviet Union has not agreed to the proposal, however, and since then the prospects for improved East-West relations have been further undermined by developments in Poland (see below).

Britain attaches great importance to the full and balanced implementation by all participants of the provisions of the 1975 Helsinki Final Act for increased stability in Europe and improved co-operation between the 35 European and North American signatory states. While not a legally binding document, the Final Act is a charter and code of conduct of behaviour for what the participants hope will in time become a more normal and open relationship between both governments and peoples in East and West. To this end it contains undertakings about security, human rights, and co-operation in economic, humanitarian and other matters. At the 1977-78 Belgrade follow-up meeting Britain participated fully in the thorough exchanges of views on the implementation of the Final Act, and has done the same at the second follow-up meeting which opened in Madrid in November 1980. Britain, along with other members of NATO, has also supported France's proposal for a conference on disarmament in Europe, the first task of which would be to negotiate more thorough-going confidence- and security-building measures (for example, by developing existing arrangements for prior notification of major troop movements and military manoeuvres and the presence of observers at the latter) which would be militarily significant, binding, verifiable and applicable to the whole of Europe from the Atlantic to the Urals; agreement in principle has been reached on the first three of these criteria.

Hopes that the Madrid meeting would, through securing greater respect in practice for the Helsinki principles, restore a secure political foundation for the peaceful and co-operative management of East-West relations were adversely affected by the imposition of martial law in Poland in December 1981. Both this, and the sustained campaign of Soviet pressure on the Polish authorities which preceded it, have been condemned by Britain and its allies as incompatible with the Final Act's principles, particularly those on respect for human rights and freedom, non-intervention in another state's affairs and freedom of communication; and as damaging to the process of peaceful change towards greater openness, tolerance and humanity which the Act symbolises. Because of events in Poland the Madrid meeting adjourned in early 1982 but it will reconvene in November 1982.

Together with France, the United States and the Soviet Union, Britain is a signatory to the 1972 Quadripartite Agreement on Berlin which reaffirms the four countries' rights and responsibilities in Berlin, and provides for

greatly improved travel and communications facilities between Berlin and both the Federal Republic of Germany and the German Democratic Republic, and for the maintenance and development of the ties between West Berlin and the Federal Republic.

Arms Control and Disarma- ment

Britain has played a prominent part in all the major multilateral disarmament negotiations and is a party to all, and a depository government for most, of the treaties concluded as a result. It participates in the Committee on Disarmament and in the arms control and disarmament work of the United Nations. Britain played an active part in preparations for the 1982 United Nations Special Session on Disarmament, emphasising the need for a realistic approach to arms control and for agreements to include adequate verification provisions if they are to enhance security and build up confidence between states. Britain also considers regional agreements to be particularly useful.

A nuclear weapon state, Britain is committed to negotiating in good faith to halt the nuclear arms race and to move towards nuclear disarmament. The negotiation of a comprehensive test ban treaty, which in Britain's view would help curb the development of new types of nuclear weapons, is a British goal, and Britain has supported the establishment of a subgroup of the United Nations Committee on Disarmament to examine the verification and compliance problems relating to a comprehensive ban.

Britain has supported the United States in strategic arms limitation talks with the Soviet Union and welcomed the United States proposal to the Soviet Union in May 1982 for negotiations aimed at achieving significant reductions in strategic nuclear weapons. Britain has also played an active role in NATO consultations leading up to the negotiations between the United States and the Soviet Union on intermediate range nuclear forces (INF) which began in November 1981. It supports the United States proposal that all longer range INF missiles should be eliminated (the so-called 'zero option').

Believing that it is possible to improve international access to the benefits of peaceful uses of nuclear energy while minimising the risk of the spread of nuclear weapons technology, Britain has played a leading part in strengthening the regime of non-proliferation through the International Atomic Energy Agency and other organisations. A party to the 1968 Non-Proliferation Treaty, which is designed to curb the nuclear arms race and provide an assurance, through international safeguards, that civil nuclear activities of non-nuclear-weapon states will not be diverted to making such weapons, Britain reaffirmed its full support for the Treaty at a review conference in 1980. It has undertaken not to use nuclear weapons against non-nuclear-weapon states which have internationally binding commitments not to manufacture or acquire nuclear explosive devices (except in the case of an attack on British interests by such a state in association with a nuclear-weapon state). Britain believes that limiting the security assurances to these states provides further support for nuclear non-proliferation.

The establishment of nuclear-weapon-free zones in different parts of the world can contribute to non-proliferation and regional security, and Britain supports proposals for such zones where nuclear weapons do not play a part in existing security arrangements. It was the first nuclear-weapon state to ratify the protocols to the 1967 Treaty for the Prohibition of Nuclear Weapons in Latin America (the Treaty of Tlatelolco).

As a result of a British initiative, another category of weapons of mass

destruction, biological weapons, is the subject of the 1972 Convention on Prohibition of the Development, Production and Stockpiling of Bacteriological (Biological) and Toxin Weapons and on their Destruction. Britain took an active part in a conference in 1980 which reviewed the operation of the Convention. Britain has also encouraged efforts to agree on a ban on chemical weapons, and in 1976 put forward a draft convention on the prohibition of their development, production and stock-piling which has served as a focus of discussion. More recently, in February 1982, Britain tabled a working paper on verification.

Conventional weapons are by far the largest component of national armouries, and Britain has suggested a study by the United Nations on ways to halt the world-wide build-up which it believes increases regional tension. In particular it believes in the value of regional agreements as a means of facilitating this. In the talks on Mutual and Balanced Force Reductions, Britain, together with its NATO allies, is working for an agreement with the Warsaw Pact participants which would contribute to a more stable relationship and strengthen peace and security in Europe. This requires an approximate parity between NATO and Warsaw Pact forces in central Europe where the Warsaw Pact currently outnumbered NATO by over 150,000 troops. The Western participants have also proposed associated confidence-building measures designed to facilitate verification of an agreement. In June they put forward a new proposal for a single agreement (in place of the previous two-phase approach) designed to break the deadlock in the negotiations.

Britain played a key role in securing agreement in 1980 on a UN Convention establishing a legal framework for prohibitions and restrictions on the use of particularly inhumane and injurious weapons together with protocols restricting the use of mines, booby traps and incendiary weapons and prohibiting the use of weapons which cause injury by fragments not detectable by X-ray. Britain was among the first to sign the Convention when it opened for signature in April 1981.

Concerned about the rising scale of military expenditure in the world, Britain has supported proposals at the United Nations for a multilateral, balanced and verifiable reduction of military budgets, and called for a standard method of reporting military expenditure to be adopted. British experts have taken part in United Nations studies on the relationship between disarmament and development and on disarmament initiatives.

BRITAIN AND THE UNITED NATIONS

Support for the United Nations (UN) and the purposes and principles of its Charter has been a cornerstone of British policy since 1945, for Britain sees a strong and effective United Nations as the best framework of pursuing and achieving many of its foreign policy objectives (the peaceful resolution of disputes, disarmament and arms control, the protection of human rights, the promotion of the rule of law) designed to contribute both to its own well-being and security and to the development of a more harmonious international community.

The United Nations and its various agencies also provide an important framework for discussing such issues as disaster relief, the seabed, terrorism, the world environment, energy, development and world resources.

Keeping the Peace

The maintenance of international peace and security was the primary purpose envisaged for the United Nations at the time of its establishment. Britain believes that it is appropriate for the United Nations, as the only forum in which almost the whole international community is represented, to seek to resolve disputes which threaten peace and stability whether on a regional or world scale. With other members, it has worked to strengthen and make more effective the machinery of the Security Council, the organ with primary responsibility for the maintenance of international peace and for preventing and settling disputes. As a permanent member of the Security Council, Britain has a particular interest in and responsibility for questions of international peace and security, and plays an active role in the Council's work. It has sought to develop and improve the United Nations' role in the peaceful settlement of disputes.

Another British concern is that the United Nations should have an effective peacekeeping capacity. It contributes to the UN force in Cyprus and provides logistic support for the UN Interim Force in Lebanon.

Human Rights

Britain has supported the UN's Universal Declaration of Human Rights since its adoption by the General Assembly in 1948. While not legally binding, the Declaration has inspired many other international instruments designed to secure the observance of its provisions. These include the two international covenants adopted by the General Assembly in 1966 which do impose legal obligations on those who ratify them—the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Both came into force, and were ratified by Britain, in 1976. Under the latter Britain also recognises the competence of the UN Human Rights Committee (set up by the Covenant to monitor the implementation of the human rights protected by it) to receive and consider state-to-state complaints.

Britain is also a party to conventions aimed at implementing particular rights contained in the Universal Declaration, including those on the elimination of racial discrimination and of discrimination against women, on the status of refugees and stateless persons and on slavery.

The adoption of conventions and covenants in itself is insufficient to secure the protection of human rights, and Britain believes it is necessary to develop effective procedures to ensure the implementation of standards which such arrangements contain. It also believes that UN members, through voluntary acceptance of the Universal Declaration and the international covenants, have accepted that human rights are a legitimate object of international concern.

The Economic and Social Council has general responsibility within the United Nations for human rights activities. The bodies directly concerned are the Commission on Human Rights, its Sub-Commission on Prevention of Discrimination and Protection of Minorities, and the Commission on the Status of Women. Britain is represented on all these bodies and is active in their work.

Economic and Social Affairs

The Charter states that 'the promotion of the economic and social advancement of all peoples' is one of the principal aims of the United Nations, and an estimated 90 per cent of the organisation's efforts, in terms of resources and personnel, is now employed to this end. With the growing concern for the problems of development, the main emphasis has become increasingly the provision of direct assistance for member states. The UN

system is now the largest single source of technical assistance for developing countries, as well as providing considerable emergency and relief aid and assistance for refugees. (The provision of capital assistance has been generally confined to the World Bank group and regional development banks whose operations are generally considered separately from those of the rest of the UN system.)

Successive British governments have affirmed their support for the functional and developmental work of the United Nations. Britain is the sixth largest contributor to the UN's regular budget, providing some £11.5 million, 4.46 per cent of the total, in 1981. In addition, it contributed some £4.9 million to the World Health Organisation, £1.9 million to the International Labour Organisation, £3.6 million to the Food and Agriculture Organisation and £4.3 million to the UN Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation. Britain provides a considerably larger proportion of the UN's voluntary funds, donating some £41 million in 1981 including £17.5 million for the UN Development Programme, £5.2 million for the UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestinian Refugees, £6 million for the UN Children's Fund, £2.3 million for the UN Fund for Population Activities, about £5.4 million for the UN High Commissioner for Refugees, and £2.5 million for the World Food Programme.

In the deliberations of the governing bodies of the various agencies and programmes, Britain encourages the deployment of resources towards the poorest countries and the poorest communities in the developing world. It also seeks to promote the most efficient use of UN development resources and improvements in the co-ordination, control and effectiveness of the system, in order to avoid unnecessary duplication by the various agencies.

The United Nations is central to the North-South dialogue (see later, this chapter), not only through the involvement of its agencies in development and other international economic problems, but also as the forum within which the dialogue is reviewed. In the General Assembly's Committee of the Whole, set up in 1978 to monitor developments in the dialogue, and at its special session on global economic issues in 1980, Britain played an active role in the discussions which led to the adoption of a new international development strategy for the 1980s.

OTHER INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

Britain is a member of many other international organisations, including those concerned with the management of the world economy. It is a founder member of the International Monetary Fund, established in 1944 (along with the World Bank—see p 89) to regulate the international financial system and to provide a source of credit for states facing balance of payments problems, and has welcomed the creation by the Fund of facilities to provide special assistance to developing countries experiencing financial or trading difficulties. It is a strong supporter of efforts under the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade to liberalise further and promote the growth of world trade, and to improve the developing countries' participation in it (see pp 71 and 347).

Britain is also a member of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). An instrument for intergovernmental co-operation among 24 industrialised countries, the OECD's aims are

to promote policies designed to achieve the highest sustainable economic growth and employment, and a rising standard of living in member countries while maintaining financial stability, and thus to contribute to the development of the world economy; to assist developing countries; and to contribute to the expansion of world trade on a multilateral, non-discriminatory basis in accordance with international obligations.

Other organisations to which Britain belongs or extends support are more restricted in their operations and include the regional development banks in Africa, the Americas and Asia and specialist technical, agricultural and medical institutions.

With 20 other nations Britain is a member of the Council of Europe which aims to provide the widest possible European forum for the discussion of political, economic, social and scientific issues with a view to achieving a greater unity between its members. Membership is open to any European parliamentary democracy which accepts the principles of the rule of law and the protection of human rights. The Council was responsible for the adoption in 1950 of the European Convention on Human Rights, to which Britain is a party.

DEVELOPMENT CO-OPERATION

The basic objective of Britain's aid programme is to help developing countries' efforts to raise their living standards, the emphasis being on assisting the poorest countries and the poorest communities within them. It is these countries which find it most difficult to generate investment funds domestically or attract external private flows. Britain's ability to support development overseas is dependent on the state of its own economy, and alongside development objectives, due weight is given to political, commercial and industrial considerations in the deployment of aid resources. Increasingly, the aid programme is being used in ways which will benefit both the developing countries and Britain.

Official aid is only one aspect of Britain's support for overseas development. Private investment is a much larger component and one which has benefited from the abolition of exchange controls in 1979. Britain is the world's second largest overseas investor, with over a fifth of its overseas assets located in developing countries. Similarly, trade is important, developing countries providing nearly a fifth of Britain's imports in 1981. Aid is also provided by private voluntary societies which concentrate their activities in the poorest countries.

In 1981 official aid flows amounted to some £1,605 million, of which £1,174 million represented official development assistance¹ and £431 million other official flows. Of the former, bilateral aid accounted for £747 million including technical co-operation funds of £217 million; some £427 million was provided through multilateral agencies. Repayments of capital and payments of interest on loans came to £92 million and £32 million respectively; another £27 million of capital repayments and £6 million of interest were cancelled.

Aid performance is commonly measured as a proportion of gross national product (GNP), particularly with reference to the two United Nations

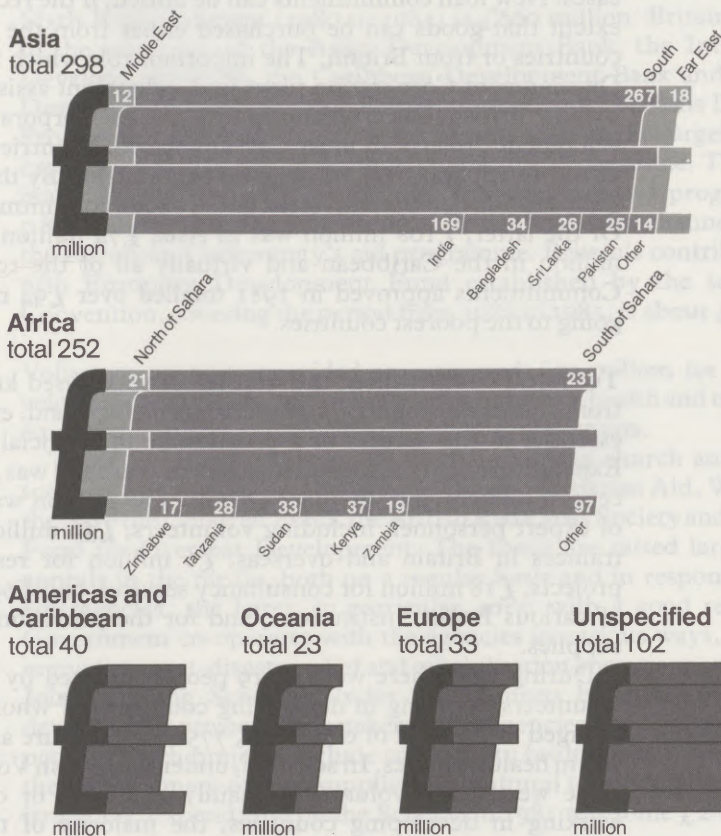
¹Official development assistance, the international basis for reporting on aid performances, is defined as official flows for development purposes with a grant (concessional) element of 25 per cent or more.

targets for resource transfers to developing countries; that net official development assistance equals 0.7 per cent of GNP and that combined private and official flows equal 1 per cent of GNP. Britain accepts in principle the first of these but is not committed to a timetable for reaching it. Successive governments have made it clear that progress must depend on Britain's economic condition and upon other calls on its resources. In 1981 net official development assistance amounted to £1,082 million, 0.43 per cent of GNP. The average for donor countries belonging to the Development Assistance Committee of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development was 0.35 per cent. The 1 per cent target has never received the publicity accorded to the 0.7 per cent target. For many years, however, Britain has far exceeded it, and in 1981 total net financial flows from Britain to developing countries amounted to £4,980 million, nearly 2 per cent of GNP.

Bilateral Aid

Britain's aid programme began as part of the discharge of its responsibilities towards dependent territories, and the main emphasis remains on the Commonwealth which includes among its members some of the world's poorest countries. In 1981, £469 million (69 per cent) of direct bilateral official development assistance allocated went to Commonwealth countries. Of this, £19 million went to Britain's remaining dependencies, which are a first charge on the aid programme. The regional disbursement pattern is shown below.

Regional Distribution of Bilateral Aid 1981



The country receiving the largest amount (£169 million) was India. Other major recipients included Bangladesh, Sudan, Kenya, Tanzania, Sri Lanka, Turkey and Pakistan.

In line with the policy of concentrating aid on the poorest countries, £431 million (58 per cent) of net bilateral aid went to countries with a 1980 per capita income of \$370 or less.

Financial Aid

Bilateral financial aid in 1981 totalled £531 million; over 84 per cent was in grants and the rest in concessionary loans. Budgetary aid, over £7 million, is provided in the form of grants. Most development aid, and all provided to the poorest countries (which include India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and many African countries), is in grant form only. In 1981 loan commitments, excluding investments by the Commonwealth Development Corporation (see below), totalled £59 million. Where loans bear interest it is at fixed concessionary rates ranging from 2 per cent to 6 per cent, and nearly all loans carry from three to seven years' grace periods for repayments of capital. The average maturity of loans is 25 years. Britain has more than fulfilled the 1972 and 1978 recommendations of the OECD's Development Assistance Committee on easing the terms of financial aid. Since 1978 Britain has concluded agreements to remove the burden of past aid loans worth £900 million from 18 of the poorest countries.

Loans and grants are normally tied to the purchase of goods, equipment and services from Britain, although there may be an element for local costs and a foreign content in contracts financed from tied aid in appropriate cases. New loan commitments can be untied, if the recipient agrees, to the extent that goods can be purchased either from the poorest developing countries or from Britain. The important role which the Commonwealth Development Corporation plays in development assistance was endorsed by the British Government in 1981. The Corporation invests in development projects in most Commonwealth countries, and, with British Government approval, in some other countries. By the end of 1981 some £409 million had been invested out of a total commitment of £596 million. Of the latter, £108 million was in Asia, £74 million in the Pacific, £84 million in the Caribbean and virtually all of the remainder in Africa. Commitments approved in 1981 totalled over £94 million, 74 per cent going to the poorest countries.

Technical Co-operation

Technical co-operation, the transfer of specialised knowledge and skills from country to country, complements financial aid, expertise often being essential to the success of a programme of financial aid or investment. Expenditure on it has increased in recent years and was £217 million, 29 per cent of bilateral aid, in 1981. Of this, £88 million was for the provision of expert personnel, including volunteers, £36 million for students and trainees in Britain and overseas, £6 million for research services and projects, £18 million for consultancy services, and £69 million in support of various British institutions, and for the provision of equipment and supplies.

During 1981 there were 5,319 people financed by Britain (other than volunteers) working in developing countries, of whom some 2,279 were engaged in the field of education, 775 in agriculture and allied fields, and 342 in health services. In addition, under the British Volunteer Programme there were 1,193 volunteers, mainly graduates or otherwise qualified, working in developing countries, the majority of them teaching. Re-

cruitment, training and placing overseas is undertaken by four voluntary bodies (Catholic Institute for International Relations, International Voluntary Service, United Nations Association International Service and Voluntary Service Overseas), 90 per cent of their costs being met by the British Government.

Britain receives large numbers of students and trainees from developing countries. Over 13,451 were financed in Britain in 1981 under regional programmes of technical co-operation, by awards under the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan, and under British Council schemes.

To support development overseas, the Government maintains four specialist scientific organisations (the Directorate of Overseas Surveys, the Land Resources Development Centre, the Tropical Products Institute and the Centre for Overseas Pest Research) and provides support for many others. The latter includes overseas units/divisions of the government-financed Transport and Road Research Laboratory, the Building Research Establishment, the Hydraulics Research Station Limited and the Institute of Geological Sciences. These organisations provide specialist information, advice and experts for service overseas, and undertake field and laboratory research investigations.

Multilateral Aid

Britain is the second largest subscriber to the World Bank group of institutions—the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the International Development Association (IDA) and the International Finance Corporation. The British commitment to the IDA's Sixth Replenishment (1980 to 1984) is £660 million. Britain contributes to the resources of the Asian Development Bank, the Inter-American Development Bank, the Caribbean Development Bank and the African Development Bank. Its contribution to the United Nations Development Programme for 1981 was £17.5 million, and it is the largest source for expertise and fellowships provided under the Programme. There is also a major British contribution to other UN agencies and programmes (see p 85) and an increasing proportion of British aid is now channelled through the European Community's aid programme. Britain's contribution to the fifth European Development Fund established by the second Lomé Convention, covering the period from 1980 to 1985, is about £470 million.

Voluntary Agencies

Voluntary agencies provided an estimated £50 million for work in developing countries in 1981, mainly on agriculture, health and nutrition, and education projects and on emergency relief operations.

There are about 200 agencies in all, including church and missionary societies; among the best known are Oxfam, Christian Aid, War on Want, the Save the Children Fund, the British Red Cross Society and the Catholic Fund for Overseas Development. The funds are raised largely through appeals in the media, both on a regular basis and in response to specific emergencies; the latter, in particular, meet with a good response. The Government co-operates with the agencies in various ways, especially in immediate post-disaster relief and rehabilitation operations and through its Joint Funding Scheme. Under this it meets half the cost of selected development projects undertaken by the agencies and aimed at helping the poorest. Such projects include community health, non-formal education, the improvement of food supplies, agricultural training, water supply and irrigation. Expenditure on the Scheme in 1981 was some £2.8 million.

Voluntary agencies' work on behalf of refugees overseas also receives official support. The Government finances about half the budget of the United Kingdom Standing Conference on Refugees, a consultative body for agencies engaged in assisting refugees, and in 1977 introduced a scheme for financing voluntary projects for refugees overseas. Some £132,000 was spent under the scheme in 1980, the projects being concerned mainly with improving health and general well-being of the refugees.

THE NORTH-SOUTH DIALOGUE

The North-South dialogue, which embraces questions of development, transfer of resources, raw materials, trade and international monetary issues, is being conducted between the industrialised nations and the developing countries with a view to furthering the equitable evolution of the world economy. Britain attaches importance to securing progress in the dialogue, and, in its approach to the discussions involved, works in close association with its partners in the European Community.

During the latter part of 1981, when Britain held the Presidency of the Community, the Government took an active part in the preparations for global negotiations and the United Nations conference on new and renewable sources of energy held in Nairobi.

Britain recognises that the interests of developing and industrialised countries are mutual and that all will benefit if the problems of the world economy can be effectively tackled. Despite the recession Britain seeks to defend the open trading system. Although domestic priorities have obliged the Government to adopt restrictive measures in certain highly sensitive areas, it is conscious of their exceptional character. Moreover, a substantial aid programme has been maintained and Britain shares the priority the international community attaches to providing special assistance to the poorest developing countries. In addition, direct investment and private financial flows to the developing world have been encouraged.

Britain favours the continuing evolution of the existing world economic system with its free flow of trade and capital, and has defended the independence of efficient international institutions like the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. As previously constituted these institutions serve the vital interests of all nations and their work reflects the growing interdependence of developed and developing countries.

Britain also supports the important role of the International Monetary Fund in providing financial assistance, the level of which has recently been substantially increased, to help developing countries to carry out adjustment measures to overcome balance of payments difficulties.

Britain has long recognised the importance of commodities to the economies of many developing countries and has played a full part, in company with other European Community member states, in negotiating the commodities agreements called for by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development in its 1976 resolution establishing the Integrated Programme for Commodities (IPC). It is a member of agreements covering tin, rubber, cocoa and coffee, the purpose of which is to stabilise prices and supplies at levels fair and remunerative both to producers and consumers. As a member of the Community Britain belongs to agreements covering wheat and olive oil designed to improve market conditions by consultations between producers and consumers, and has consistently urged Community membership of the International Sugar Organisation. It has also ratified the Common Fund for Commodities, a key element of

the IPC, and has agreed to contribute to the voluntary as well as to the obligatory part of its work. A substantial British contribution is made to the Stabex scheme operated by the Community which compensates commodity producing Lomé Convention countries (see p 75) for shortfalls in commodity revenue.

In 1964 Britain was the first major developed country to support the idea of extending tariff preferences to all developing countries on a non-reciprocal and non-discriminatory basis. This led to a generalised system of preferences operated by the European Community and the other developed countries. It also strongly supported the objectives of the last round of multilateral trade negotiations. Set out in the 1973 Tokyo Declaration, these were the further liberalisation of world trade through the progressive dismantling of tariff and non-tariff barriers, and within this, the provision of special and more favourable treatment for the developing countries where possible.

Community trade arrangements are among the most liberal applied by industrial nations, and Britain has played a significant role in determining their nature. It took a major part in the negotiations for the first Lomé Convention, both to safeguard the trading interests of Commonwealth developing countries and to ensure that reciprocal preferences would not be demanded from the developing countries, as had been the case with previous Community arrangements. Britain also contributed to the successful conclusion of the second Lomé Convention. In addition, Britain has supported improvements to the Community's Generalised System of Preferences scheme, especially with regard to more liberal access into the Community for imports of manufactured and processed agricultural products and in its application to the poorest developed countries, particularly those in South Asia. Before entering the Community, Britain secured a commitment to expand and reinforce Community trade relations with the Commonwealth countries of Asia, and this has led to the conclusion of commercial co-operation agreements with India, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh.

Britain's defence policy is based on the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO—see also pp 80–83) whose collective defence provides each of its members with far greater security than any could achieve alone. Britain is fully committed to NATO and its strategy of deterrence and, in assigning the greater part of its military forces to it, makes a major contribution to the full range of the North Atlantic Alliance's deterrent capabilities, the only European nation to do so.¹ It also plays a full part in the Alliance's efforts, complementary to its defence preparations, to negotiate balanced and verifiable arms control agreements and to reduce tension so as to achieve a more just and lasting peaceful order in Europe.

Despite its economic difficulties, Britain is determined to play its full part in meeting NATO's requirements, and, using the most economical means available, is increasing its defence efforts to the level required to provide the best possible guarantee of safety. Britain is firmly committed to the NATO target of securing real increases in defence spending in the region of 3 per cent annually. The defence budget for 1982–83, an estimated £14,091 million, makes provision for such an increase, and further increases of 3 per cent are planned for each of the years to 1985–86, implementing in full the NATO target. In 1981 Britain contributed 4.9 per cent of its gross domestic product to defence spending, third in NATO after the United States and Greece; the average for NATO's European members was 3.7 per cent. Britain has consistently spent a higher proportion of its defence budget on new equipment than any other NATO member.

In 1981 the Government reviewed Britain's defence programme in order to establish how best to exploit the substantial planned increases in defence expenditure and to ensure that these resources would be spent most effectively in pursuit of its commitment to the North Atlantic Alliance and to Western security.² In the light of rising equipment costs and advancing technology, the review identified the need for, and ways of achieving, a better balance between the various elements of the defence forces which would improve the combat effectiveness of the front line forces, thus enhancing Britain's already major contribution to NATO, and, within the NATO framework, be sufficiently balanced and flexible to enable Britain to respond to challenges to its interests at home and overseas. Britain's response to the Argentine invasion of the Falkland Islands in April 1982 shows that the force structure is sufficiently adaptable to permit such an effective response. The Government is examining the Falklands operations to see what adjustments may be required in the defence programme, though the main threat to Britain's security, which the defence programme is designed to meet, remains the nuclear and conventional forces of the Warsaw Pact.

NATO's Strategy

NATO's strategy is based on the principle that peace and stability can be maintained only if a potential aggressor is convinced that it would lose far more than it could ever hope to gain by the use of force. NATO neither needs nor intends to match the Warsaw Pact weapon for weapon, but seeks

¹ France, which also has nuclear forces, does not participate fully in NATO's integrated military structure.

² *The United Kingdom Defence Programme: The Way Forward*. Cmnd 8288, HMSO.

to deter aggression by having enough forces to respond effectively to an attack at any level and, if necessary, to raise the level of conflict to make clear the Alliance's ability and determination to go on resisting. For this it needs a wide range of conventional and nuclear forces, these being closely linked to provide a chain of options from which to choose the appropriate method of countering aggression. This concept of flexible response is complemented by that of forward defence, the stationing of members' forces well forward in Europe to emphasise their collective determination and commitment to defend the whole of NATO territory.

It is to maintain the Alliance's defence and deterrent capacity in the face of the build-up in Warsaw Pact military strength that NATO members are co-operating in the Long Term Defence Programme (adopted in 1978 and designed to effect improvements in key areas and to make the most effective use of Alliance resources), and have agreed to aim to secure real increases in defence expenditure in the region of 3 per cent annually. NATO's intermediate theatre nuclear forces are also being modernised. Britain is actively involved in these measures, and is also updating its own strategic nuclear capability. In addition, in the Eurogroup, Britain and 10 other European members are working to improve the effectiveness of their contribution to the Alliance and to achieve better co-ordination, thereby making the best possible use of the available resources.

NATO is concerned to deter Soviet exploitation of instability outside Europe, and to demonstrate its resolve to defend essential interests, but, at the same time, to recognise the rights and views of regional countries and their primary responsibility for their own defence. In Britain's view these requirements can be best reconciled through the provision of military aid, including the sale of arms, the periodic deployment of NATO forces in strategically important areas, and the maintenance of a capability to intervene militarily where necessary. With these measures in mind, Britain has welcomed the United States plans for a rapid deployment force, and has promised to support them where possible.

Britain's NATO Contribution

Britain's contribution to NATO is concentrated in areas where it can best help to maintain Alliance security, principally NATO's strategic nuclear deterrent and the defence of the Central Region of Europe, the Eastern Atlantic and English Channel, and the British 'home' base and its immediate approaches.

Britain's Polaris strategic force (to be replaced by a Trident force in the 1990s—see p 96) represents a unique European contribution to NATO's nuclear deterrent, providing a second and independent centre of decision-making within the Alliance. At a time of strategic parity, this provides an important assurance against any Soviet misconception that the United States would not be prepared to use its nuclear forces in Europe's defence. Britain's theatre nuclear systems are also committed to NATO, and it has agreed to provide bases for 160 of the 464 ground-launched cruise missiles which, with 108 Pershing II missiles, the United States is to deploy in Europe to modernise NATO's intermediate nuclear forces.

Britain's decision in 1980 to update its strategic deterrent has led to increased calls from some groups within the country for unilateral nuclear disarmament, both on the grounds of cost and as an example to others. While the Government understands the widespread concern regarding nuclear war, it believes such apprehensions to be misplaced so long as the policy of nuclear deterrence and efforts to relax East-West tensions,

including the pursuit of arms control, which have helped to maintain the peace for over 30 years, are maintained. It also believes that unilateral disarmament by Britain would not significantly alter the views of other states which maintain, or may think of acquiring, nuclear weapons, and that such action would weaken NATO's ability to deter aggression in the face of the continuing nuclear and conventional threat.

Virtually all of the Royal Navy, the largest NATO navy in Western Europe, is earmarked for assignment to the Alliance and permanent contributions are made to its two standing naval forces, in the Atlantic and the Channel, and to its Mediterranean force when activated. The British Army of the Rhine (BAOR) and Royal Air Force (RAF) Germany are stationed in the Federal Republic of Germany. (Britain's Field Force in Berlin is not committed to NATO.) BAOR's combat element is being reorganised into three stronger divisions, two comprising three armoured brigades each and a third made up of two armoured brigades and an infantry brigade. A reserve division, comprising one regular and two Territorial Army brigades, will be located in Britain. On mobilisation, BAOR's peacetime strength of around 55,000 would be more than doubled by reinforcements from Britain and up to 70 per cent of the Army would be in Central Europe in wartime. Nearly all the RAF's combat and support aircraft are assigned to NATO. RAF Germany's 12 squadrons (one of helicopters) are equipped for strike/attack, reconnaissance, close support and air defence roles, while RAF Strike Command, based in Britain, provides forces for these and for the maritime patrol, anti-submarine warfare and transport roles.

Britain also provides important elements to NATO's specialist reinforcement forces, including ground and air units for the United Kingdom Mobile Force and for its contribution to the Allied Command Europe Mobile Force, four squadrons for NATO's Strategic Air Reserve, and naval and marine units for a British-Netherlands amphibious force.

Forces from all three Services are stationed at Gibraltar, which, positioned at the western entry to the Mediterranean, is an important base for NATO.

Non-NATO Responsibilities

In support of other defence commitments, and with a view to playing its part in collective Western responses to threats to its world-wide interests, Britain is improving its ability to operate outside the NATO area without diminishing its central commitment to the Alliance. Britain's ability to deploy forces world wide, both quickly and effectively, was shown when, after diplomatic efforts had failed, Britain sent a task force to expel Argentine forces and restore British administration to the Falkland Islands in May-June 1982 (see p 80). It also provides military aid to friendly countries and deploys its forces on visits and exercises in important areas.

In Cyprus British forces provide for the security of Britain's Sovereign Bases Areas and contribute the largest component of the United Nations force there. All three Services contribute to the garrison in Hong Kong, while that in Belize is provided by the Army and the RAF with the Royal Navy deploying a warship in the Caribbean as a guardship. A Gurkha battalion is stationed in Brunei and substantial forces are being maintained in the Falkland Islands following their recapture. Britain is also participating in the multinational force and observers deployed

along the Israel–Egypt border following Israel's withdrawal from Sinai in 1982.

Northern Ireland

The armed services assist the civil authorities in Northern Ireland in maintaining law and order and in countering terrorism (see p 16).

THE ARMED FORCES

Personnel

The total strength of the armed forces, all volunteers, was about 327,900 on 1 April 1982: 73,100 in the Royal Navy and the Royal Marines, 163,100 in the Army and 91,700 in the Royal Air Force. To maintain force strengths and improve their standards, and to overcome shortages of skilled personnel, service conditions are being improved and pay has been restored to comparability with civilian levels. An average of 230,200 civilians are expected to be employed by the Ministry of Defence during 1982–83.

The three women's Services, with a combined strength of 15,600, are integral parts of the armed forces, and servicewomen serve alongside servicemen in Britain and overseas, mainly in support roles. Their importance is increasing, however, and some are trained to bear arms for defensive purposes.

Engagements for non-commissioned ranks range from 3 to 22 years, with a wide freedom of choice on the length and terms of service. Subject to a minimum period of service (varying from three to nine years, excluding training), entrants may leave at any time, at 18 months' notice. Discharge may also be granted on compassionate grounds, by purchase, or on grounds of conscience. Commissions, either by promotion from the ranks or by direct entry based on educational and other qualifications, are granted for short, medium and long terms. All three Services have schemes for school and university/college sponsorships.

Non-commissioned personnel receive basic training supplemented by further and specialist training throughout their careers. Study for educational qualifications is encouraged and Service trade and technical training, highly valued by industry, leads to nationally recognised qualifications for large numbers of Service personnel.

Commissioned ranks receive initial training at the Britannia Royal Naval College, Dartmouth, the Royal Military Academy, Sandhurst, or the Royal Air Force College, Cranwell. This is followed by specialist training, often including degree courses at university or Service establishments. Higher or advanced training for officers is provided by the Royal Naval College, Greenwich, the Army Staff College at Camberley, and the Royal Air Force Staff College at Bracknell. Selected senior officers and civilian officials from Britain and other countries attend the Royal College of Defence Studies, London, which provides the wider background necessary for those destined to fill higher appointments.

Operational training includes joint-Service and inter-allied exercises. Training is provided for the armed forces of allied, Commonwealth and other countries.

Reserve Forces

Reserve and auxiliary forces are an integral part of the armed forces. In addition to supplementing the regular forces on mobilisation with trained personnel able immediately to take their places either as formed units or as individual reinforcements, they form an important link between the Services and the civil community. Some have a reserve liability following a period of regular service (regular reserve); others are volunteers who train in their spare time. The latter include the Territorial Army whose role is to reinforce the ground forces committed to NATO and help to maintain a

secure home base in the United Kingdom; its strength is being increased to 86,000 over the remainder of the decade. A Home Service Force, linked to the Territorial Army and with a strength of up to 4,500, is being established to assist in guarding important civilian and military installations when necessary. Other volunteer forces include the Royal Naval Reserve, the Royal Marines Reserve, the Royal Auxiliary Air Force and the Royal Air Force Volunteer Reserve. There is also the Ulster Defence Regiment which is a locally recruited and largely part-time force which supports the police and the Army in Northern Ireland. On 1 January 1982 regular reserves totalled 197,200, and volunteer reserves and auxiliary forces 84,600. Cadet forces, which make a significant contribution to recruitment to the regular forces, totalled 144,200.

COMBAT FORCES

Strategic Nuclear Forces

The Royal Navy's Polaris force comprises four nuclear submarines, each of which can remain on underwater patrol for long periods and is equipped with 16 nuclear-armed Polaris missiles. Improved ('Chevaline') Polaris missiles, designed to maintain the force's effectiveness until its replacement in the 1990s by a Trident nuclear submarine force, are planned to enter service soon. The Trident development programme is expected to cost some £7,500 million (at September 1981 prices) which, over 15 years, will average some 3 per cent of total defence expenditure, reaching perhaps 5 per cent at its peak.

Royal Navy General Purpose Combat Forces

Britain's naval forces, while capable of operating throughout the world when required, are concentrated in the Eastern Atlantic and English Channel where they constitute the majority of forces immediately available to NATO. They include three anti-submarine warfare carriers (including two of the new *Invincible* class) equipped with the Sea King anti-submarine helicopters and the Sea Harrier maritime vertical short take-off and landing (V/STOL) aircraft for air defence and anti-surface ship operations; 12 nuclear-powered attack submarines, soon to be equipped with the anti-ship missile Sub-Harpoon, and 15 diesel-powered submarines; 11 guided missile destroyers; and 41 general purpose and anti-submarine warfare frigates. Most of the destroyers and frigates carry weapon-carrying helicopters (the Lynx, Wasp or Wessex), and armaments installed include the Exocet surface-to-surface, Sea Wolf point air defence and Sea Dart area air defence missile systems, and the Ikara anti-submarine guided weapons system. There is also an amphibious capability comprising two assault ships, *Fearless* and *Intrepid*, and the Royal Marines Commando Forces, while the anti-submarine warfare carrier *Hermes* (to be phased out when the third *Invincible* class carrier enters service) retains a secondary role as a commando ship. Other ships include over 30 mine counter-measures vessels and a new class of offshore patrol vessels for protecting fishing interests and offshore oil and gas installations.

In coming years Britain's contribution to NATO's maritime defence will be based increasingly on an enhanced anti-submarine warfare element made up principally of nuclear-powered attack submarines whose numbers are planned to build up to 17, a newly designed general purpose frigate with a strong anti-submarine warfare capability, the Type 23, and Nimrod maritime patrol aircraft. These apart, the surface fleet is being renewed through a major construction programme involving the third *Invincible* class carrier, 5 Type 42 destroyers (which are being increased to 14), 4 Type 22 frigates, and 6 Hunt class mine counter-measures vessels. The

destroyer/frigate element committed to NATO will be reduced to about 50 ships by the mid-1980s as older and more manpower intensive ships are disposed of. Major new weapon programmes include the Sting Ray lightweight torpedo for ships, aircraft and helicopters, a new heavyweight torpedo for submarines (Spearfish), and the Sea Eagle anti-ship missile.

Most of the Army's combat forces, consisting of BAOR and the forces stationed in Britain, have primary roles in support of NATO. Others are stationed overseas in support of treaty commitments.

Armoured regiments in BAOR are equipped with the Chieftain main battle tank, mounting a fully stabilised 120-mm gun, which will be joined in the mid-1980s by Challenger, a new tank fitted with Chobham armour, which provides greater protection than conventional steel or aluminium armour, and a more powerful diesel engine. Enough Challengers are being bought to equip four regiments. Tracked combat reconnaissance vehicles include Scorpion, a light tank with a 76-mm gun, Scimitar, a reconnaissance vehicle with a 30-mm cannon, and Striker which mounts the Swingfire long-range anti-tank missile. The primary tracked armoured personnel carrier for mechanised infantry units is the FV432, but steps to improve the mobility of both mechanised and non-mechanised infantry are being examined, one of which will be the introduction of the MCV80 from the mid-1980s. The crew-portable Milan anti-tank missile system is widely deployed with BAOR infantry units and will be joined in a few years by the man-portable light anti-tank weapon, LAW80. Lynx helicopters are being fitted with the TOW long-range anti-tank weapon. Artillery units have been strengthened by the introduction of the towed howitzer, FH70, and the purchase of additional M109 self-propelled guns, both of which fire 155-mm ammunition. Another 155-mm gun, the SP70, will enter service later in the decade, as will the Multiple Launch Rocket System. Tactical nuclear support is provided by the Lance missile and dual capable artillery. Integral air defence is based on the Rapier missile system, a tracked version of which is being introduced, and the Blowpipe man-portable missile. Both systems are undergoing qualitative improvement.

The Royal Air Force contains aircraft equipped for all modern operational roles, together with the RAF Regiment field squadrons for anti-aircraft and ground defence.

Phantom and Lightning aircraft, together with Rapier and Bloodhound surface-to-air missiles, are employed in air defence. Radar warning is provided by Shackleton airborne early warning aircraft and by the ground radars and control and reporting centres of the United Kingdom Air Defence Ground Environment system. Tornado GR1s (which began replacing Vulcans in mid-1982), Jaguars and Buccaneers operate in the strike/attack role; Jaguars and Canberras are employed for reconnaissance; Jaguars and the Harrier V/STOL aircraft provide ground support (with the Harrier also having a tactical reconnaissance capability); and Nimrods are used for long-range maritime patrol and anti-submarine warfare and for off-shore surveillance and fishery protection duties. Land-based air defence of the fleet is provided by Phantoms, while Buccaneers are deployed in the anti-ship role. Victor tankers are used for in-flight refuelling, and transport support is provided by Hercules aircraft for medium ranges and by Wessex, Puma and Chinook helicopters for short-range tasks. Weapons in or being introduced into service include the Skyflash, Sidewinder and AIM9L air-to-air missiles.

Army Combat Forces

Royal Air Force General Purpose Forces

The Royal Air Force is undergoing a comprehensive re-equipment programme. Improvements to Britain's air defences include the replacement from the mid-1980s of the Lightning and most of the Phantom squadrons with the air defence version of the Tornado (which will number 70 in all); the entry into service in 1983 of specially equipped Nimrods which will form Britain's contribution to NATO's integrated airborne early warning force; and the equipping, with air-to-air missiles, of 72 Hawk trainer aircraft for local air defence. An increased air-to-air refuelling capability, with the completion of the VC10 tanker conversion programme and the introduction of some Vulcans and Hercules in this role, will multiply the patrol time and range of air defence aircraft; it will also enable Britain to project its power further afield when necessary. At the same time, the Tornado GR1 (of which 220 have been ordered) will continue to be introduced into the strike/attack role in place of some Buccaneers as well as of the Vulcans, and will replace the Canberra in the reconnaissance role; while 60 improved Harriers, the Anglo-American AV8B, are to be procured for ground support duties. The Nimrod maritime patrol aircraft, some now equipped for in-flight refuelling, are being extensively modernised and will carry the Sting Ray lightweight torpedo and the Harpoon anti-ship weapon, while another anti-ship missile, the Sea Eagle, is to be fitted to the Buccaneer.

CIVIL DEFENCE

Civil defence arrangements are based on the extended and adapted use of the peacetime resources of government departments, local authorities, the emergency services and nationalised industries, supplemented by the efforts of voluntary organisations and individual volunteers.

Following a review of existing arrangements by the Home Office in 1980, an additional £45 million is being spent on civil defence in the years to 1983-84, when annual expenditure will total £45 million. This is being used to improve the quality and readiness of central and local government planning; increase training opportunities arranged by the Home Office on staff college lines at the Home Defence College, Easingwold; help local authorities to plan for better community involvement in civil defence; and improve the emergency system for decentralised government control and communications. Improvements are also being made in the communications, equipment and administrative facilities of the United Kingdom Warning and Monitoring Organisation. This includes the civilian Royal Observer Corps, which is organised to provide public warning of an attack, of the location and strength of nuclear explosions, and of the distribution and level of radioactive fall-out.

DEFENCE PROCUREMENT

Responsibility for the planning of research, development and production of defence equipment lies with the Ministry of Defence's Procurement Executive. The Executive works with the Service users and industry to achieve cost-effectiveness in equipment procurement.

Research and Development

Most research is undertaken by the Ministry's research and development establishments, which have a very wide technological capability, but in addition the Ministry sponsors a substantial amount of research by in-

dustry and the universities. The establishments also monitor contractors' progress during the development stages and help with testing programmes and solving technical problems.

The development of modern defence equipment requires a high initial investment; the cost of British equipment research and development in 1982-83 is estimated at over £1,841 million. The search for a more efficient use of resources has encouraged Allied collaboration, one of the principal aims of the NATO Conference of National Armaments Directors in which Britain plays a full part. Nevertheless, the importance of maintaining a sound national industrial base for defence procurement is recognised, and there is close consultation between government and industry both in the National Defence Industries Council and through other specialised bodies.

Collaboration between Britain and its European allies is encouraged through the work of the independent European Programme Group which, consisting of all NATO's European members except Iceland, promotes co-operation in defence equipment procurement. Successful projects involving European countries include the Anglo-French Jaguar aircraft, Martel air-to-surface missile, and Lynx, Puma and Gazelle helicopters, and the Anglo-Belgian family of armoured combat reconnaissance vehicles. Britain is co-operating with the Federal Republic of Germany and Italy, in the production and development of the Tornado multi-role combat aircraft and of medium artillery equipment, the FH70 and SP70, and with Italy in the development of a successor for the Sea King helicopter. Britain also favours increased transatlantic co-operation, and, with other European countries, is collaborating with the United States in the procurement of a multiple launch rocket system and the possible joint development of a new generation of air-to-air missiles.

National projects in all the main categories of equipment are under development. The main ones already mentioned include the air defence variant of the Tornado; a light man-portable anti-armour weapon (LAW80); a lightweight torpedo (Sting Ray) equipped with advanced homing devices for anti-submarine warfare; and a new heavyweight torpedo (Spearfish). Work is also in progress on a new airfield attack weapon, the JP233. An airborne early warning (AEW) version of the Nimrod is being developed with an advanced AEW radar.

Production

Equipment is manufactured by private industry or by the Royal Ordnance Factories and Royal Dockyards. Alternatively, procurement may be undertaken on a collaborative basis or by purchase from overseas.

Defence Sales

Sales of British defence equipment enable allies and friendly governments to take advantage of Britain's extensive research and development programmes to improve their own defensive capabilities. The Defence Sales Organisation of the Ministry of Defence provides advice and assistance on equipment procurement and defence infrastructure. It also formulates assistance packages containing equipment, construction work, training, support and other services and involving contributions from government and from industry. These are often handled by International Military Services Ltd, the Organisation's commercial arm.

5 JUSTICE AND THE LAW

THE LAW

Although the United Kingdom is a unitary state, England and Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland each have their own legal systems and law courts. There is substantial similarity on many points, but considerable differences remain in law, organisation and practice. In Northern Ireland procedure closely resembles that of England and Wales but there are often differences in enacted law. However, a large volume of modern legislation applies throughout the United Kingdom and there is a common distinction between criminal law concerned with wrongful acts harmful to the community and civil law concerned with individuals' rights, duties and obligations towards one another.

The main sources of law are legislation, common law and European Community law. Legislation consists of Acts of Parliament, orders (rules and regulations made by ministers under the authority of an Act of Parliament) and by-laws made by local government or other authorities exercising powers conferred by Parliament. Common law, the ancient law of the land deduced from custom and interpreted in court cases by the judges, has never been precisely defined or codified but forms the basis of the law except when superseded by legislation. European Community law is confined mainly to economic and social matters; in certain circumstances it takes precedence over domestic law. It is normally applied by the domestic courts, but the most authoritative rulings are given by the European Court of Justice (see p 73).

CRIMINAL JUSTICE

There are four distinct stages in British criminal justice: making laws which define prohibited acts and provide for the treatment of offenders; preventing crime and enforcing the law—largely matters for the police; determining in the courts the guilt or innocence of people accused of crimes, and sentencing the guilty; and dealing with convicted offenders.

The Royal Commission on Criminal Procedure, which reported in 1981, made recommendations for placing on a consistent and statutory footing the powers of the police in England and Wales, the rights of suspects and the arrangements for prosecuting offenders, which are being considered by the Government. A similar review in Scotland led to recommendations which have been largely implemented by recent legislation.

With continuing concern in Britain, as in many other countries, over rising crime rates, public expenditure on the law and order programme reflects the special priority given by the Government to these services. Recent increases have been made to cover, in particular, greater police manpower and extra spending on prison building. More than two-thirds of total expenditure is initially incurred by local authorities (with the help of central government grants), mainly on the police service.

The Criminal Law

The criminal law, like the law generally, undergoes constant reform in the courts but substantial changes are matters for Parliament. In practice most legislation affecting criminal law is government-sponsored, but there is usually consultation between government departments and the legal profession, the police, the probation and prison services, and voluntary bodies.

Crime Statistics

Chief constables in England and Wales must supply statistics relating to offences, offenders, criminal proceedings and the state of crime in their areas. Crime statistics are published annually by the Home Office and further information about crime trends (as well as about police matters) is contained in the annual reports of Her Majesty's Chief Inspector of Constabulary and (for London) the Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis. Similar arrangements operate in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

The differences in the legal systems of the United Kingdom make it impracticable to analyse in detail trends in crime for the country as a whole. In considering these it has to be remembered that the number of offences recorded by the police may be affected by the level of police manning and by the number of crimes that remain undetected or unreported. Nevertheless it is clear that, as in Western Europe generally, there has been an upsurge in crime since the early 1950s.

Table 4 shows the rate of serious offences recorded by the police in 1981 in England and Wales.

Table 4: Serious Offences Recorded by the Police, per 100,000 Population (England and Wales) 1981

Offence Group	1981
Homicide	1
Violence against the person (excluding homicide)	202
Sexual offences	39
Burglary	1,465
Robbery	41
Theft and handling stolen goods	3,248
Fraud and forgery	216
Criminal damage	784
Other offences	8
TOTAL	6,005

Source: *Home Office*

The difference between the total and the sum of the component parts is due to rounding.

The number of serious offences recorded by the police in England and Wales in 1981 was 2,964,000. The number cleared up was 1,056,000, nearly 38 per cent of the total recorded by the police.

Criminological Research

A wide range of research into criminal and social policies is carried out by the Home Office and the Scottish Home and Health Department. Research is also carried out in university departments, much of it financed by the Government. The principal university criminological research establishment is the Institute of Criminology at Cambridge.



Criminal Injuries Compensation Scheme

The Criminal Injuries Compensation Scheme provides *ex gratia* compensation to victims of violent crimes, including violence within the family, and to people hurt in attempting to arrest offenders and prevent offences. Compensation is assessed on the basis of common law damages and usually takes the form of a lump sum payment. In 1980–81 over 20,000 awards were made at a total cost of nearly £21.5 million.

In Northern Ireland there is separate, statutory provision in certain circumstances for compensation from public funds for criminal injuries, and for malicious damage to property including losses of profits arising from the damage.

Measures to Combat Terrorism

Various temporary measures to deal with terrorism in Northern Ireland have affected some aspects of British criminal justice. The emergency powers include: the right to search, arrest and detain suspected terrorists; the proscription of organisations engaged in terrorism connected with Northern Ireland affairs and occurring in the United Kingdom; and the exclusion from Great Britain and Northern Ireland of people involved in terrorism. There are also controls at ports on passengers travelling between Great Britain and Ireland.

Trials in Northern Ireland criminal courts of terrorist offences are heard by a judge without a jury to obviate the danger of intimidation of jurors.

The emergency laws are temporary and must be renewed regularly; they have also been subject to independent examination and a review of the provisions began in 1982. Although conferring special powers on ministers, they have been used sparingly. No one can be imprisoned for political beliefs; all prisoners except those awaiting trial have been found guilty in court of criminal offences.

The security forces in Northern Ireland are subject to the law and can be prosecuted for criminal offences. Procedures for handling complaints against the police involve two independent elements: the Director of Public Prosecutions where allegations of criminal conduct are made; and the Police Complaints Board for Northern Ireland where complaints relate only to disciplinary offences.

The Criminal Jurisdiction Act 1975 makes it possible to try in the Province a person accused of certain offences committed in the Irish Republic. It also enables evidence to be obtained in Northern Ireland for the trial of offences in the Irish Republic. Reciprocal legislation is in force in the Irish Republic.

THE POLICE SERVICE

British police action in enforcing the law rests mainly upon common consent, for there are only a small number of officers in relation to the population (roughly one officer to every 400 or so people). Officers do not normally carry firearms (their only weapon is a truncheon) and there are strict limitations on police powers.

Forces

Each of Britain's 52 police forces is responsible for law enforcement in its area, but there is constant co-operation among them.

Outside London most counties (regions or islands in Scotland) have their own police forces, though in the interests of efficiency several have combined forces. The policing of London is in the hands of the Metropolitan Police Force, with headquarters at New Scotland Yard, and the City of London force. As part of the Government's commitment to the law and order services, the strength of the regular police force in Great Britain

has continued to grow, and is almost 131,500 (including nearly 11,500 policewomen); in Northern Ireland the strength is about 7,500. The size of individual police forces depends on the area and population served. The strength of the Metropolitan Police Force, some 25,400, is at its highest ever.

Police Authorities and Chief Constables

Each regular police force is maintained by a police authority, a committee of local councillors and, in England and Wales, magistrates. The police authority for the Metropolitan Police Force is the Home Secretary. In Northern Ireland the police authority is appointed by the Secretary of State.

The police authority's primary duty is to provide an efficient police force for its area. Its functions, some subject to ministerial approval, include appointing the chief constable, deputy chief constable and assistant chief constables; fixing the maximum permitted strength of the force; and providing buildings and equipment. In the Metropolitan Police area the commissioner of police and his immediate subordinates are appointed on the recommendation of the Home Secretary. The police authorities are financed by central and local government.

Chief constables are responsible for the direction and control of police forces and for the appointment, promotion and discipline of all ranks below assistant chief constable. They are generally answerable to the police authorities on matters of efficiency, and must submit a report every year.

Central Authorities

The Home Secretary and the Secretaries of State for Scotland and Northern Ireland are concerned with the organisation, administration and operation of the police service. They approve the appointment of chief constables, and may require a police authority to retire a chief constable in the interests of efficiency, call for a report from a chief constable on matters relating to local policing or institute a local inquiry. They can make regulations covering such matters as police ranks; qualifications for appointment, promotion and retirement; discipline; hours of duty, leave, pay and allowances; and uniform. Some of these regulations are first negotiable on the Police Negotiating Board, which has an independent chairman and representatives of the police authorities, police staff associations and the home departments. Matters of a non-negotiable kind and general questions are discussed by the Police Advisory Boards.

All police forces (except the Metropolitan Police for which the Home Secretary is responsible) are subject to inspection by inspectors of constabulary reporting to the Home Secretary, the Secretary of State for Scotland or the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland. Inspectors also maintain close touch with forces under their responsibility, and have advisory functions.

Status and Duties

A British police officer is an agent of the law of the land, not of the police authority nor of the Government, and may be sued or prosecuted for any wrongful act committed in carrying out duties. Strict procedures, normally including an independent element, govern the way in which complaints are handled.

Members of the police service may not belong to a trade union nor may they withdraw their labour in furtherance of a trade dispute. All ranks, however, have their own staff associations to represent their interests.

Police work ranges from the protection of people and property, road or

street patrolling (the trend in many places is increasingly away from the car patrol and back to 'community' policing on foot) and traffic control to crime prevention, criminal investigation and arresting offenders. In urban areas, particularly, police officers have to deal with social problems and may bring in other social agencies and expert help. The importance of consultation with local communities is recognised, especially in areas with ethnic minorities, and efforts are being made to encourage members of the minorities to join the forces. In England and Wales (but not in Scotland) the police also prosecute accused people and may decide whether to grant bail before the court proceedings (see p 105). The main departments in all forces are the uniform department, criminal investigation department, traffic department and specialised departments, including river or marine police, mounted police, and dog handlers.

In order to release as many uniformed police officers as possible for operational duties, police authorities employ over 37,800 civilians on administrative and technical duties in England and Wales. The number of civilian support staff has been growing as forces secure economies by replacing police officers with civilians where posts do not require police powers and training. Traffic wardens (of whom there are 4,460) carry out specified duties concerned with traffic and parking. Wardens are under the control of the chief constable.

Each force has an attachment of volunteer special constables who perform police duties in their spare time, without pay. In England and Wales they act as auxiliaries to the regular force. In Scotland they are retained mainly for emergency use. In Northern Ireland there is a part-time and full-time paid reserve.

Common Services

A number of common services are provided by central government departments and by arrangements between forces. The most important are: training services; a Forensic Science Service in England and Wales (the Metropolitan Police maintains its own laboratory); telecommunications services which provide police radio equipment; and central and provincial criminal records available to all forces. Regional crime squad teams of detectives from several forces investigate major crimes involving inquiries in more than one police area. The Scottish Crime Squad assists forces in the investigation and prevention of crime.

Certain special services such as liaison with the International Criminal Police Organisation (Interpol) are provided for other British forces by the Metropolitan Police. They are available to other police forces in England and Wales as are the services of the Fraud Squad run jointly by the Metropolitan Police and City of London Police to investigate company frauds.

In all areas of police work the use of scientific aids is widespread. A national police computer helps to rationalise records and speed up the dissemination of information.

Powers of Arrest

In England and Wales arrest may be made with or without a warrant issued by a magistrate. An arrested person is entitled to ask the police to notify a named person, such as a relative or a solicitor, about the arrest. The police may delay notification in the interests of the investigation, prevention of crime or apprehension of offenders and may question an arrested person in custody, so long as he or she has not been charged with the offence or informed that he or she may be prosecuted for it. Answers to such questions

are admissible as evidence in any subsequent proceedings, provided that they have been given voluntarily.

Guidance on the questioning of arrested persons is contained in the Judges' Rules and Administrative Directions to the Police; although these do not have the force of law, the police are required to comply with them.

The Judges' Rules also require the police to caution an arrested person before charging him or her. Once a person has been charged with an offence, the police may not ask further questions, except in exceptional circumstances, to prevent or minimise harm or loss to some other person or to the public or to clear up an ambiguity in a previous answer or statement.

If the police decide not to charge the arrested person (for example, because of insufficient evidence) he or she may be released immediately. Alternatively, the police may decide to release the person and proceed by way of summons, or to issue a caution (reprimand). If the police need to make further inquiries they may release the arrested person on bail to return to the police station, where he or she may be charged on re-appearance.

Anyone arrested without a warrant must be released by the police on bail if he or she cannot be brought before a magistrates' court within 24 hours, unless the alleged offence is serious. If detained in custody, the defendant must be brought before a magistrates' court as soon as practicable. On appearance before a magistrates' court, a defendant charged with an imprisonable offence may be refused bail in certain specified circumstances only, the most important being substantial grounds for believing that he or she might abscond, commit further offences or otherwise interfere with the course of justice. If bail is refused, the defendant can apply to a judge of the High Court and, if committed to the Crown Court, may apply for bail to that court. The majority of people remanded by magistrates are given bail.

A person who thinks that the grounds for detention are unlawful¹ may apply to the High Court for a writ of habeas corpus against the person who detained him or her, requiring the person to appear before the court to justify the detention. An application for this writ is normally made by the person detained or by someone acting on his or her behalf. Similar procedures apply in Northern Ireland.

In Scotland police have powers of arrest similar to those in England and Wales but an arrest must be accompanied by a criminal charge. Once a person has been charged there is little scope for questioning and only voluntary statements will normally be allowed in evidence at the trial. The court will reject statements unless satisfied that they have been fairly obtained. The Criminal Justice (Scotland) Act 1980 introduced a new pre-arrest power of detention which enables the police to detain and question a suspected person for a period of up to six hours. Thereafter the person must either be released or charged. Anyone arrested must be brought before a court with the least possible delay. Where a prosecution on indictment is intended, the accused is brought before a judge for judicial examination and may then be committed for trial or for further examination. Eight days may elapse between commitment for further examination and commitment for trial. Anyone accused of a crime, even murder or treason, is entitled to apply for release on bail. Money bail has virtually been abolished and the courts, or the Lord Advocate, may release an accused person on conditions.

¹Detention is lawful in pursuance of criminal justice, for contempt of court or of either House of Parliament and when expressly authorised by Parliament. It is also sometimes lawful in the case of the mentally disordered.

Breach of any of the conditions without reasonable excuse is a separate offence. There is a right of appeal to the High Court by the accused person against the refusal of bail, or by the prosecutor against the granting of bail, or by either party against the conditions imposed. The writ of habeas corpus does not apply in Scotland but if a person has been arrested with a view to being prosecuted on indictment, the trial must begin within 110 days of the date of full committal. The trial of a person charged with a summary offence must begin within 40 days.

CRIMINAL COURTS

Prosecution

England and Wales

The decision to prosecute normally rests, in England and Wales, with the police and in Scotland with public prosecutors. In Northern Ireland there is a Director of Public Prosecutions (see below). In England and Wales (and exceptionally in Scotland) a private person may institute criminal proceedings. Police may issue cautions (warnings in Scotland) instead of prosecuting.

In England and Wales some offences can be prosecuted only with the consent of the Attorney General, others only with his consent or by, or with the consent of, the Director of Public Prosecutions, who acts under his superintendence. Such crimes as bribery and corruption of officials, and the use and possession of explosives, are offences requiring the Attorney General's consent; in the case of incest, for example, the Director's consent is sufficient. The Director always prosecutes crimes such as treason and murder. The police must report to the Director's office a further list of offences, including serious offences against the person, sedition, criminal offences by police officers, and offences relating to obscene or indecent publications. The Director does not necessarily prosecute all such cases but may do so in any that appear to be important or where intervention is thought necessary; otherwise proceedings are conducted by solicitors employed by the police. The Director also considers whether proceedings should be taken in cases reported by government departments, and advises the police and others concerned with administration of the criminal law.

When cases go for trial, barristers in private practice appear on the Director's behalf; at the Central Criminal Court in London they are drawn from a panel of 'Treasury Counsel' appointed by the Attorney General.

Scotland

The prosecution process in Scotland is different from that in the rest of the United Kingdom. The Lord Advocate (see p 121) is responsible for the prosecution of all crimes but delegates most of the work to the Solicitor General (see p 121), to ten advocates depute and to procurators fiscal. The permanent adviser to the Lord Advocate on prosecution matters is the Crown Agent who is head of the procurator fiscal service and is assisted by a staff of civil servants known as the Crown Office. Prosecutions in the High Court of Justiciary are prepared by the Crown Office while crimes tried before the sheriff and district courts are prosecuted by the procurators fiscal who are lawyers and full-time civil servants. The police investigate offences and report to the procurator fiscal who decides whether to prosecute, subject to the discretion of the Crown Office.

Northern Ireland

The Director of Public Prosecutions for Northern Ireland, who is responsible to the Attorney General, prosecutes all offences tried on indictment, and may do so in summary cases of a serious nature. Other summary offences are prosecuted by the police.

Courts in England and Wales

Magistrates' courts deal with nearly all criminal cases in England and Wales, and conduct preliminary investigations into more serious offences. The Crown Court, situated in a number of towns and cities, takes all criminal work above the level of magistrates' courts and trials are held before a jury.

Magistrates' courts hear charges against people accused of 'summary offences', those that can be legally disposed of by magistrates sitting without a jury. There are some 700 courts and some 23,000 magistrates ('justices of the peace', JPs) who are advised on points of law and procedure by a clerk to the justices (or an assistant) who is normally legally qualified and is also in charge of the court's administrative arrangements. Each court normally consists of three unpaid lay magistrates who ascertain the facts of a case and apply the law to them. Magistrates are appointed by the Lord Chancellor. In inner London and other large urban areas where work is heavy, professional 'stipendiary' magistrates, full-time, salaried and legally qualified, usually preside alone.

Magistrates must as a rule sit in open court, but when they make preliminary inquiries into a serious case to see whether there is evidence to justify committal for trial in the Crown Court the proceedings must not be reported in the press at the time except at the defendant's request, unless the person is discharged. Magistrates cannot usually impose a sentence of more than six months' imprisonment or a fine exceeding £1,000. If an offence carries a higher maximum penalty, they may commit the offender for sentence at the Crown Court if they consider their own power inadequate.

Cases involving people under 17 are heard in juvenile courts, specially constituted magistrates' courts which sit apart from other courts, or at a different time; only limited publicity is allowed. If a young person under 17 is charged jointly with someone of 17 or over, the case is heard in the ordinary magistrates' court. If the young person is found guilty, the court may transfer the case to a juvenile court, unless it wishes to pass sentence itself.

The Crown Court deals with trials of the more serious cases, the sentencing of offenders committed for sentence by magistrates' courts, and appeals from magistrates' courts. It has about 90 centres and is presided over by High Court judges, full-time 'circuit judges' and part-time recorders. All contested trials take place before a jury. A High Court judge sits alone for the most serious cases. A circuit judge or recorder sits with between two and four magistrates for appeals and committals for sentence from magistrates' courts and may sit with magistrates to try the less important cases.

The Crown Court may impose a fine of any amount on a convicted offender and, within the maximum penalty determined for the offence by Parliament, any other custodial or non-custodial penalty.

Appeals

A person convicted by a magistrates' court may appeal to the Crown Court against the sentence and, if contesting a finding of guilt, against the conviction itself. Where the appeal is on a point of law, either the prosecutor or the defendant may appeal from the magistrates' court to the High Court, which sits in London and some regional centres (see pp 117-18). Appeals from the Crown Court, either against conviction or against sentence, are usually made to the Court of Appeal (Criminal Division). A further appeal from the Court of Appeal to the House of Lords

can be brought if the court certifies that a point of law of general public importance is involved and it appears to the court or the Lords that the point is one that ought to be considered by the House. A prosecutor or defendant may appeal to the Lords from a decision of the High Court in a criminal case.

The Attorney General may seek the opinion of the Court of Appeal on a point of law which has arisen in a case where a person tried on indictment is acquitted; the court has power to refer the point to the House of Lords if necessary. The acquittal in the original case is not affected, nor is the identity of the acquitted person revealed without his or her consent.

Scotland

In Scotland the High Court of Justiciary tries such crimes as murder, treason and rape; the sheriff court is concerned with less serious offences and the district court with minor offences. Criminal cases are heard either under solemn procedure, when proceedings are taken on indictment and the judge sits with a jury of 15 members, or under summary procedure, when the judge sits without a jury. All cases in the High Court and the more serious ones in sheriff courts are tried by a judge and jury. Summary procedure is used in the less serious cases in the sheriff courts, and in all cases in the district courts. District courts are the administrative responsibility of the district and islands local government authorities. The judges are lay justices of the peace including up to one-quarter of the elected members of the authorities appointed as *ex-officio* justices. In Glasgow there are three stipendiary magistrates who are full-time salaried lawyers. Children under 16 who have committed an offence or are considered to need compulsory care may be brought before an informal children's hearing comprising three members of the local community (see p 115).

Scotland's six sheriffdoms are further divided into sheriff court districts, each of which has a sheriff or sheriffs, who are the judges of the court.

The High Court of Justiciary, Scotland's supreme criminal court, is both a trial and an appeal court. Any of the following judges is entitled to try cases in the High Court: the Lord Justice General (the head of the court), the Lord Justice Clerk (the judge next in seniority) or one of the Lord Commissioners of Justiciary. The main seat of the court is in Edinburgh, although the High Court on circuit also tries cases in other towns.

All appeals are dealt with by the High Court in Edinburgh. In both solemn and summary procedure, an appeal may be brought against conviction, or sentence, or both. The Court may authorise a retrial if it sets aside a conviction. There is no further appeal to the House of Lords.

Northern Ireland

The structure of Northern Ireland courts is broadly similar to that of England and Wales. The day-to-day work of dealing summarily with minor cases is carried out by magistrates' courts presided over by a full-time, legally qualified resident magistrate. Young offenders under 17 and young people under 17 who need care, protection and control are dealt with by juvenile courts consisting of the resident magistrate and two lay members (at least one of whom must be a woman) specially qualified to deal with juveniles. Appeals from magistrates' courts are heard by the county court.

The Crown Court deals with criminal trials on indictment. It is served by High Court and county court judges. Proceedings are heard before a single judge, and all contested cases, other than those involving offences specified under emergency legislation, take place before a jury. Appeals from the Crown Court against conviction or sentence are heard by the Northern

Ireland Court of Appeal. Procedures for a further appeal to the House of Lords are similar to those in England and Wales.

Trial

Criminal trials in the United Kingdom take the form of a contest between the prosecution and the defence. Since the law presumes the innocence of an accused person until guilt has been proved, the prosecution is not granted any advantage, apparent or real, over the defence. A defendant has the right to employ a legal adviser and may be granted legal aid from public funds. If remanded in custody, the person may be visited by a legal adviser to ensure a properly prepared defence. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland during the preparation of the case, the prosecution usually tells the defence of relevant documents which it is not proposed to put in evidence and discloses them if asked to do so. The prosecution should also inform the defence of witnesses whose evidence may help the accused and whom the prosecution does not propose to call. The defence or prosecution may suggest that the defendant's mental state renders him or her unfit to be tried. If the jury decides that this is so, the defendant is admitted to a specified hospital.

Criminal trials are normally in open court and rules of evidence (concerned with the proof of facts) are rigorously applied. If evidence is illegally admitted, a conviction can be quashed on appeal. During the trial the defendant has the right to hear and cross-examine witnesses for the prosecution, normally through a lawyer; to call his or her own witnesses who, if they will not attend voluntarily may be legally compelled to attend; and to address the court in person or through a lawyer, the defence having the right to the last speech at the trial. The defendant cannot be questioned without consenting to be sworn as a witness in his or her own defence. When he or she does testify, cross-examination about character or other conduct may be made only in exceptional circumstances and generally the prosecution may not introduce evidence of such matters. Confessions made in the course of previous judicial proceedings are admissible as evidence only if they have been made on oath.

The Jury

In jury trials the judge decides questions of law, sums up the evidence for the jury, and discharges the accused or passes sentence. Only the jury decides whether the defendant is guilty or not guilty. If the jury cannot reach a unanimous verdict, the judge may direct it to bring in a majority verdict provided that, in the normal jury of 12 people, there are not more than two dissentients. If the jury returns a verdict of 'not guilty', the prosecution has no right of appeal and the defendant cannot be tried again for the same offence. If 'guilty' the defendant has a right of appeal to the appropriate court. A jury is completely independent of the judiciary. Once members are sworn in, they are protected from all interference. Both the prosecution and the defence can object to particular jurors. In England, Wales and Northern Ireland people whose names appear on the electoral register are liable for jury service and their names are chosen at random; in Scotland, where the minimum age for jurors is 21, not all those on the register are eligible to serve as the minimum voting age is 18.

Scotland

At summary trials in Scotland accused people are asked to plead to the charge at the first calling of the case and, if they plead guilty, the court may dispose of the case. Where the plea is 'not guilty', the court proceeds to trial at once or, more usually, appoints a later date.

In trials on indictment, the 'pleading' proceedings take place in the sheriff court, where the accused person is called upon to plead guilty or not guilty. If the plea is not guilty, the case is continued to the 'trial' proceedings in the appropriate court. If the plea is guilty, and the case is to be dealt with in the sheriff court, the sheriff may dispose of it at once. If it is a High Court case, it is continued to the 'trial' proceedings in the High Court of Justiciary.

The trial proceedings are held at least nine days after the pleading proceedings, either before the sheriff or the High Court, with a jury of 15. Evidence is presented without opening speeches, and there are closing speeches for the prosecution and for the defence, followed by the judge's charge to the jury. The jury may return a verdict of 'not guilty' or 'not proven', both of which result in acquittal, or it may find the accused 'guilty', in which case the court delivers sentence. The verdict may be reached by a simple majority. With a few minor exceptions, no person may be convicted without the evidence of at least two witnesses, or corroboration of one witness by facts and circumstances which clearly implicate the accused.

Coroners' Courts

Coroners' courts investigate violent and unnatural deaths or sudden deaths where the cause is unknown. Cases may be brought before the local coroner (a senior lawyer or doctor) by doctors, the police, various public authorities or members of the public, and it is the coroner's duty to hold an inquiry into how, when and where the deceased died. If the death is sudden and the cause unknown, the coroner need not hold an inquest in court, but may order a post-mortem examination to determine cause of death. Where there is reason to believe that the deceased died a violent or unnatural death or died in prison or in other specified circumstances the coroner must hold an inquest. In Scotland the office of coroner does not exist. The local procurator fiscal inquires privately into all sudden and suspicious deaths and may report the findings to the Crown Agent.

TREATMENT OF OFFENDERS

Sentencing

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland a person who has not previously served a custodial sentence of a particular kind may not be sentenced to custodial treatment of that kind unless he or she is legally represented or has chosen not to be, and unless the court is satisfied that no other sentence will suffice. In England and Wales, extended sentences longer than the normal maximum term may be imposed on persistent offenders. In the case of murder there is a mandatory penalty of life imprisonment. This is the maximum penalty for a number of serious offences such as robbery, rape, arson and manslaughter. Although the death penalty may still, in theory, be imposed for certain offences, such as treason, it is no longer used.

In Scotland, unless the sentence is limited by statute, the maximum penalty is determined by the status of the court trying the accused. In trials on indictment, the High Court may impose a sentence of imprisonment for any term up to life, and the sheriff court any term up to two years. In summary cases, the sheriff may impose up to six months' imprisonment.

Changes in the sentencing and treatment of young offenders and in the arrangements for early release from prison in England and Wales are among the main provisions of the Criminal Justice Bill before Parliament.

Non-custodial Treatment

Non-custodial treatment includes fines; probation; absolute or (in England, Wales and Northern Ireland) conditional discharge when the court considers there is no need to impose punishment; and 'binding over' where the

offender pledges money, with or without sureties, to keep the peace and be of good behaviour.

In England and Wales, offenders aged 17 or over convicted of imprisonable offences can, with their consent, be given community service orders (it is proposed to reduce the age limit to 16). The court may order between 40 and 240 hours' unpaid service to be completed within 12 months. Examples of work done include decorating the houses of old or disabled people and building adventure playgrounds. Community service schemes also operate in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

The sentence imposed on an offender in England, Wales and Northern Ireland may also, with his or her consent, be deferred for up to six months to enable a court to take into account conduct after some expected change in circumstances.

The courts may order an offender to pay compensation for personal injury, loss or damage resulting from an offence. Where the loss amounts to £15,000 or more they may make a criminal bankruptcy order against an offender.

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland a judge is free to pass a suspended sentence of not more than two years. The sentence is not served unless the offender is convicted of a further offence punishable with imprisonment; in that event the suspended sentence normally takes effect and another sentence may be imposed for the new offence. An offender receiving a suspended sentence of more than six months may be placed under the supervision of a probation officer for all or part of the period. Courts in England and Wales have the power, when passing a sentence of between three months' and two years' imprisonment, to order that part should be served and the rest held in suspense.

In certain circumstances courts may order forfeiture of property involved in the commission of crime. An offender convicted of a serious crime may be disqualified from driving if a motor vehicle was used in its commission.

In most circumstances, after a rehabilitation period of from six months to ten years depending on the nature of the sentence imposed, a person convicted of a criminal offence need not disclose it, and the offence will not be held against him or her. This does not apply to those with a prison sentence of more than 2½ years.

Probation

Probation is designed to rehabilitate an offender, who continues to live an ordinary life with the supervision, advice and assistance of a probation officer. Before making a probation order which lasts between six months (12 months in Scotland) and three years, the court must explain its effects and make sure that the probationer understands that failure to comply with it will make him or her liable to be dealt with again for the original offence. An order can be made only if the offender is aged 17 years (16 years in Scotland) or over and has given consent, and usually requires the probationer to keep in regular touch with the probation officer, and to be of good behaviour. In Northern Ireland an order can be made for anyone over the age of criminal responsibility (10 years), but consent is required where the offender is aged 14 or over. It may require the offender to live in a specified place (such as an approved hostel), or receive psychiatric treatment.

In England and Wales the probation service is administered locally by probation and after-care committees of local magistrates and co-opted members with legal and specialist interests. In Northern Ireland it is

administered by a probation board whose membership is broadly based and representative of the community. Probation officers are usually members of small teams, although each has much independence in undertaking casework.

Probation and after-care committees may provide and maintain day training centres, bail hostels, probation hostels and other rehabilitation centres. The service also administers the community service scheme.

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, the services of probation and after-care officers are available to every criminal court. In Scotland, local authority staff are similarly available.

Prisons

Although the courts have made less use of prison as a penalty for criminal activity, there has been an increase in the prison population as a result of the rise in crime. The daily average inmate population in 1981 in England and Wales was over 43,000. On the basis of existing trends, the population will rise, perhaps to nearly 45,000 in 1984-85; it may, however, be affected by a continuing move towards shorter sentences and by the use of powers proposed in the Criminal Justice Bill. In Scotland in 1981 the daily average inmate population was about 4,500 though existing trends indicate that this figure is likely to rise in the next few years.

Prisons to which offenders may be committed directly by a court are known as 'local prisons'; all are closed. Other prisons, open or closed, receive prisoners on transfer from local prisons (open prisons do not have physical barriers to prevent escape). Sentenced prisoners are classified into groups for security purposes. There are separate prisons for women.

People awaiting trial are entitled to privileges not granted to convicted prisoners and, as far as practicable, are separated from convicted prisoners. Prisoners under 21 are separated from older prisoners.

Many British prisons were built during the nineteenth century and are now unsatisfactory and overcrowded. A number of new prisons have been or are being built and existing establishments redeveloped and modernised.

Remission of Sentence and Parole

All prisoners in Great Britain serving a sentence of more than five days, except those sentenced to life imprisonment, are eligible for remission of one-third of their sentence provided it does not reduce the sentence to less than five days. Remission may be forfeited for serious misconduct. Prisoners serving fixed sentences of more than 18 months become eligible for release on parole after one-third of their sentence or 12 months, whichever expires later. There are also emergency powers to release offenders in England and Wales up to six months early.

The parole licence remains in force until the date on which the prisoner would have been released but for the parole. It prescribes the conditions with which the offender must comply. About 10.3 per cent of prisoners granted parole in England and Wales in 1981 were recalled to prison.

Prisoners serving life sentences are also eligible for release on licence, after consideration by the Home Secretary or the Secretary of State for Scotland who consults the judiciary, and on the recommendation of the appropriate Parole Board. Those released remain on licence for the rest of their lives subject to recall at any time should the circumstances warrant.

In Northern Ireland, where there is no parole scheme, prisoners may earn one-half remission on determinate sentences, provided remission does not reduce the sentence to below 31 days. For those serving over a year, a court can order all or part of the outstanding balance of the remitted period

to be served in the event of reconviction in the remitted period for an imprisonable offence, in addition to any penalty imposed for a further offence.

Prison Industries and Education

Prison industries aim to give inmates work experience which will assist them when released and to secure a return which will reduce the cost of the prison system. The main industries are clothing and textile manufacture, engineering, woodwork, laundering, electro-mechanical production, farming and horticulture. Most production caters for internal needs and for other public services but much of it is for the commercial market. A few prisoners are employed outside prison. Small payments are made for work; in some prisons, incentive schemes provide an opportunity for higher earnings on the basis of output and skill.

Education is financed by the prison service and provided by local education authorities. Prison education officers are assisted by teams of teachers. Education is compulsory, full-time, for young offenders below school-leaving age and part-time for those between 16 and 21. For older offenders it is voluntary. Some prisoners study for public examinations (including those of the Open University). Within the resources available there is teaching in recreational and leisure pursuits. Vocational training is provided directly by the prison service. Physical education is voluntary but offenders under 21 have to attend a certain number of classes. Many establishments lack the proper facilities, although there have been recent improvements.

Medical and Psychological Services

The prison medical service has a general responsibility for the physical and mental health of all those in custody. Each establishment has accommodation for sick people and patients can also be transferred to National Health Service hospitals. Psychiatric care is available.

The work of psychologists includes evaluating treatment programmes, studying management practices, contributing to the management and treatment programmes of individuals and groups, taking part in advisory and training work with staff and making assessments for treatment or allocation purposes.

Privileges and Discipline

Prisoners are entitled to write and receive letters and to be visited by relatives. Privileges include a personal radio, books, periodicals and newspapers, and the right to make purchases from the canteen with money earned in prison. Depending on facilities prisoners may be granted the further privileges of dining and recreation in association and watching television.

Breaches of discipline are dealt with by the prison governor, or by the board of visitors (visiting committee in Scotland), who have power to order forfeiture of remission and forfeiture of privileges. Boards of visitors (and visiting committees) consist of lay people, two of whom must be magistrates.

Welfare

The welfare of prisoners is the concern of all prison staff. Much of this work is the responsibility of probation officers (in Scotland social workers) stationed in prisons who help prisoners in their relations with individuals and agencies outside and make plans for after-care on release. Prisoners may also receive visits from specially appointed prison visitors whose work is voluntary.

Chaplains give spiritual help and advice to inmates and are increasingly involved in management decisions affecting their needs and quality of life.

Discharge and After-care

All prisons in England and Wales arrange pre-release preparations. Prisoners serving four years or more are considered for outside employment before release. For those selected, work is found outside the prison for about the last six months of sentence; during the period prisoners may live in a separate part of the prison or in a hostel outside. Normal wages are paid so that they can resume support for their families. (In Scotland pre-release arrangements differ from these in some respects.) Periods of home leave may be granted in the last nine months of sentence to those serving two years or more to assist resettlement.

The aim of after-care, run by the probation and after-care service (in Scotland, the local authority and social work departments), is to assist offenders on return to society. Compulsory supervision is given to most offenders under 21 when released, adult offenders released on parole, and those released on licence from a life sentence. A voluntary system is offered to others. After-care is also provided by voluntary societies, most of which are members of the National Association for the Care and Resettlement of Offenders. Hostels and accommodation are provided, often with government financial help.

Children in Trouble

England and Wales

In England and Wales no child under ten years can be held guilty of an offence. A child aged 10 to 16 years who is alleged to have committed an offence may be the subject of criminal proceedings or of 'care' proceedings, both of which normally take place in juvenile courts. In care proceedings the fact that a child is found guilty of an offence is not in itself sufficient justification for making an order; the court must also consider the child to need care or control which he or she is unlikely to receive unless an order is made. In criminal proceedings a court may make a care order without having to consider whether the child needs care or control; this applies to a child found guilty of an offence (other than homicide) punishable in the case of an adult by imprisonment.

A number of orders are available to courts in both care and criminal proceedings. Under a care order a local authority becomes responsible for deciding where the child should be accommodated, whether, for example, with foster parents or in a community home (see p 134). For children too severely disturbed or disruptive to be treated in local authority homes, there are two special Youth Treatment Centres administered directly by the Department of Health and Social Security.

Legislation introduced into Parliament at the end of 1981 included provisions which would give courts the powers to make a residential care order when a child, who is already under a care order as a result of an offence, commits a further offence (for which an adult could be punished by imprisonment). The local authority would be required to remove the child from home for a specified period of up to six months. The authority must review each care order every six months and consider whether an application should be made to the court to end it; the order normally expires when the child reaches 18 or 19.

Under a supervision order (usually valid for three years or less) a child normally remains at home under the supervision of a social worker or a probation officer, but may have to live with a specified person or to comply with directions of his or her supervisor. The child may have to undergo

'intermediate treatment', a compromise between measures involving complete removal from home and those which do not, and consisting of participation, under a supervisor, in a variety of constructive and remedial activities through a short residential course or, more usually, attendance at a day or evening centre. An intermediate treatment fund, administered by the Rainer Foundation with the help of government finance, has been set up to aid individuals, groups or organisations willing to provide intermediate treatment facilities.

A court may also make an order requiring a parent or guardian to take proper care of the child and to exercise proper control; the order may be made only with the consent of the parent or guardian. In care proceedings, the court may order a stay in hospital in accordance with the mental health legislation.

The courts may also order payments of compensation, or impose fines or grant a conditional or absolute discharge. Offenders, both male and female, may be ordered to spend a total of up to 24 hours of their spare time on Saturdays at an attendance centre (up to three hours on any one occasion). The centres which provide physical education and instruction in practical subjects are for those found guilty of offences for which older people could be sent to prison. Boys aged 14 to 16 may be sent to a junior detention centre, where the regime is similar to that in senior detention centres (see p 116). Boys and girls aged 15 or 16 may be sentenced to borstal training but under legislation before Parliament this would be replaced by a new system of custodial sentencing known as youth custody. In the case of a very serious crime, detention in a place approved by the Home Secretary may be ordered.

Scotland

In Scotland the age of criminal responsibility is eight years but prosecution of children in the criminal courts is rare and can take place only on the instructions of the Lord Advocate; court proceedings usually apply only to very serious offences. Instead children under 16 who have committed an offence or need care and protection may be brought before an informal children's hearing which determines whether compulsory measures of care are required and, if so, the form they should take (see p 134). An official 'reporter' decides whether a child should come before a hearing. If the grounds for referral are not accepted by the child and parents, the case goes to the sheriff court for proof. It can then come back to the hearing. The sheriff also decides appeals against a decision of a children's hearing.

Northern Ireland

The age of criminal responsibility in Northern Ireland is ten. Children aged 16 and under charged with committing a criminal offence may be brought before a juvenile court. If the child is found guilty of an offence punishable by imprisonment if committed by an adult, he or she may be sent to a training school, placed in the care of a 'fit person', possibly the area health and social services board, or put under supervision. Alternatively the court can order a period at an attendance centre or a remand home, or impose a fine or compensation. A conditional or absolute discharge is also possible. Whatever other order it makes, a juvenile court can also make an order requiring parents to ensure the child's good behaviour. Children brought before the courts in need of care and protection may be placed in care locally.

Young Adult Offenders

Offenders aged 17 to 20 years (16 to 21 years in Scotland) are recognised as a category distinct from child and adult offenders. Although attendance

centres are increasingly being made available in England and Wales, the main non-custodial measures are generally the same as those for adults. In England and Wales the custodial sentences available are: detention in a detention centre (males only), borstal training or imprisonment. Under legislation before Parliament, however, borstal training and imprisonment for offenders under 21 would be abolished and a new system of custodial sentencing introduced: detention centre orders (for males only) for from three weeks to four months and youth custody sentences for longer periods. The senior detention centres are for young male offenders who need to be taught respect for the law through some form of custody. Life in a centre demands high standards of discipline. Training comprises a full working week, including an hour a day of physical training, with considerable attention paid to education. After discharge, offenders are supervised for up to a year.

Borstal training is remedial and educational, based on personal training by selected staff. Vocational training in skilled trades is emphasised, there is much freedom of movement and offenders are placed as near their homes as possible. Borstals are available for offenders aged 15 to 20. Courts rarely order borstal training unless they have already tried fines, probation or detention centre training, perhaps all three. The training period, usually from six months to two years, is followed by supervision.

A person under 17 cannot be sent to prison in England and Wales, and no court may pass a sentence of imprisonment on an offender aged 17 to 20 unless satisfied that no other penalty is appropriate. A court cannot impose a sentence of between six months and three years unless the offender has already served a term of borstal training or at least six months' imprisonment. Sentences of up to two years may be ordered by a court to be suspended. In Scotland no offender under 21 may be sent to prison. A single sentence of detention is available for young offenders to be served in a detention centre or in a young offenders' institute. Remission of part of the sentence for good conduct, release on parole, and supervision after release are available. In Northern Ireland, no offender under 21 sentenced to three years or less may be sent to prison. Such offenders would serve their sentences in a young offenders' centre.

CIVIL JUSTICE

The Civil Law

The main sub-divisions of the civil law of England, Wales and Northern Ireland are: family law, the law of property, the law of contract and the law of torts (covering injuries suffered by one person at the hands of another irrespective of any contract between them and including concepts such as negligence, defamation and trespass). Other branches of the civil law include constitutional and administrative (particularly concerned with the use of executive power), industrial, maritime and ecclesiastical law. Scottish civil law has its own, often analogous, branches.

CIVIL COURTS

England and Wales

The limited civil jurisdiction of magistrates' courts extends to matrimonial proceedings for custody and maintenance orders, adoption orders and affiliation and guardianship orders. The courts also have jurisdiction concerning nuisances under the public health legislation and the recovery of rates. Committees of magistrates license public houses, betting shops and clubs.

The jurisdiction of the 300 or so county courts covers actions founded

upon contract and tort (with minor exceptions); trust and mortgage cases; and actions for the recovery of land. Cases involving claims exceeding set limits may be tried in the county court by consent of the parties, or in certain circumstances on transfer from the High Court.

Other matters dealt with by the county courts include hire purchase, the Rent Acts, landlord and tenant and adoption cases. Undefended divorce cases are determined in those courts designated as divorce county courts (defended cases are transferred to the High Court) and outside London bankruptcies are dealt with in certain county courts. The courts also deal with complaints of race and sex discrimination. Where small claims are concerned (especially those involving consumers), there are special arbitration facilities and simplified procedures.

All judges of the Supreme Court (comprising the Court of Appeal, the Crown Court and the High Court) and all circuit judges and recorders have power to sit in the county courts, but each court has one or more circuit judges assigned to it by the Lord Chancellor, and the regular sittings of the court are mostly taken by them. The judge normally sits alone, although on request the court may, exceptionally, order a trial with a jury.

The High Court of Justice is divided into the Chancery Division, the Queen's Bench Division and the Family Division. Its jurisdiction is both original and appellate and covers all civil and some criminal cases. In general, particular types of work are assigned to a particular division. The Family Division, for instance, is concerned with all jurisdiction affecting the family, including that relating to adoption and guardianship. The Chancery Division deals with the interpretation of wills and the administration of estates. Maritime and commercial law is the responsibility of admiralty and commercial courts of the Queen's Bench Division.

Each of the 80 or so judges of the High Court is attached to one division on appointment but may be transferred to any other division while in office. The Lord Chancellor is president of the Chancery Division, administered by the senior judge known as the Vice-Chancellor. The Queen's Bench Division is presided over by the Lord Chief Justice of England, who ranks next to the Lord Chancellor in the legal hierarchy, and the Family Division is headed by the President. Outside London (where the High Court sits at the Royal Courts of Justice) sittings are held at 23 Crown Court centres. For the hearing of cases at first instance, High Court judges sit alone. Appeals in civil matters from lower courts are heard by courts of two (or sometimes three) judges, or by single judges of the appropriate division, nominated by the Lord Chancellor.

Appeals

Appeals in matrimonial, adoption and guardianship proceedings heard by magistrates' courts go to a divisional court of the Family Division of the High Court. Affiliation appeals are heard by the Crown Court, as are appeals from decisions of the licensing committees of magistrates. Appeals from the High Court and county courts are heard in the Court of Appeal (Civil Division) and may go on to the House of Lords, the final court of appeal in civil cases.

The *ex officio* members of the Court of Appeal are the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chief Justice, the President of the Family Division and the Master of the Rolls; the ordinary members are 18 Lords Justices of Appeal.

The judges in the House of Lords are the nine Lords of Appeal in Ordinary, who must have a quorum of three, but usually sit as a group of five, and sometimes even of seven. Lay peers do not attend the hearing of

appeals (which normally take place in a committee room and not in the legislative chamber), but peers who hold or have held high judicial office may also sit. The president of the House in its judicial capacity is the Lord Chancellor.

Scotland

The main civil courts are the sheriff courts and the Court of Session. The civil jurisdiction of the sheriff court extends to most kinds of action and is normally unlimited by the value of the case. Much of the work is done by the sheriff, against whose decisions an appeal may be made to the sheriff-principal or directly to the Court of Session.

The Court of Session sits only in Edinburgh, and in general has jurisdiction to deal with all kinds of action. The main exception is an action exclusive to the sheriff court, where the value claimed is less than a set amount. The Court has sole jurisdiction in divorce and certain other actions. It is divided into two parts: the Outer House, a court of first instance, and the Inner House, mainly an appeal court. The Inner House is divided into two divisions of equal status, each consisting of four judges—the first division being presided over by the Lord President and the second division by the Lord Justice Clerk. Appeals to the Inner House may be made from the Outer House and from the sheriff court. From the Inner House an appeal may go to the House of Lords. The judges of the Court of Session are the same as those of the High Court of Justiciary. The Lord President of the Court holds the office of Lord Justice General in the High Court (see p 108).

The Scottish Land Court, a special court dealing with agricultural tenancies and similar matters, consists of a judge and four lay specialists in agriculture.

Northern Ireland

Minor civil cases in Northern Ireland are dealt with in county courts, though magistrates' courts also deal with certain classes of civil case. The superior civil law court is the High Court of Justice from which an appeal may be made to the Court of Appeal. These two courts, together with the Crown Court, comprise the Supreme Court of Judicature of Northern Ireland and their practice and procedure are similar to those in England. The House of Lords is the final civil appeal court.

Civil Proceedings

In England and Wales civil proceedings are instituted by the aggrieved person; no preliminary inquiry on the authenticity of the grievance is required. An action in a magistrates' court is begun by a complaint on which the court may serve the defendant with a summons. This contains details of the complaint and the date on which it will be heard. Parties and witnesses give their evidence at the court hearing. Domestic proceedings are heard by not more than three lay justices including, where practicable, a woman; members of the public are not allowed to be present. The court may order provision for the custody and supervision of children, as well as maintenance payments for spouses and children. Actions in the High Court are usually begun by a writ of summons served on the defendant by the plaintiff, stating the nature of the claim. A defendant intending to contest the claim informs the court. Documents setting out the precise question in dispute (the pleadings) are then delivered to the court. County court proceedings are initiated by a 'request' served on the defendant by the court; subsequent procedure is simpler than in the High Court.

A decree of divorce must be pronounced in open court, but a procedure

for most undefended cases dispenses with the need to give evidence in court and permits written evidence to be considered by the registrar.

Civil proceedings, as a private matter, can usually be abandoned or ended by compromise at any time. Actions brought to court are usually tried by a judge without a jury, except in defamation, false imprisonment, or malicious prosecution cases, when either party may, except in certain special circumstances, insist on trial by jury, or a fraud case, when the defendant may claim this right. The jury decides questions of fact and damages awarded to the injured party; majority verdicts may be accepted.

Judgments in civil cases are enforceable through the authority of the court. Most are for sums of money and may be enforced, in cases of default, by seizure of the debtor's goods or by attachment of earnings (a court order requiring an employer to make periodic payments to the court by deduction from the debtor's wages). Other judgments can take the form of an injunction restraining someone from performing an illegal act. Refusal to obey a judgment may result in imprisonment for contempt of court. Arrest under an order of committal may be effected only on a warrant.

The general rule is that the costs of the action (lawyers' charges, court fees and other payments) are within the discretion of the court. Normally, the court orders them to be paid by the party losing the action, but in the case of family law maintenance proceedings a magistrates' court can order either party to pay the whole or part of the other's costs.

In Scotland proceedings in the Court of Session or ordinary actions in the sheriff court are initiated by serving the defender with a summons (an initial writ in the sheriff court). In Court of Session actions the next step is the publication of the action in the court lists. A defender who intends to contest the action must inform the court; if he or she does not appear, the court grants a decree in absence in favour of the pursuer. In ordinary actions in the sheriff court the defender is simply required to enter appearance within a certain number of days after service of the initial writ, and this is followed by a formal appearance in court by the parties to the dispute or their solicitors.

In summary causes (involving small sums) in the sheriff court the procedure is less formal. The statement of claim is incorporated in the summons. The procedure is designed to enable most actions to be carried through without the parties involved having to appear in court. Normally they (or their representatives) need appear only when an action is defended.

Proceedings in Northern Ireland are similar to those in England and Wales.

Restrictive Practices Court

The Restrictive Practices Court is a specialised United Kingdom court which deals with monopolies and restrictive trade practices. It comprises five judges and up to ten other people with expertise in industry, commerce or public life.

Administrative Tribunals

Administrative tribunals consist of persons or bodies exercising judicial functions outside the ordinary hierarchy of the courts. As a rule, they are set up under statutory powers which also govern their constitution, functions and procedure. Their composition and procedures vary greatly. Compared with the courts, they tend to be less expensive, less formal and more accessible; they also have expert knowledge of their particular subjects. The expansion of the tribunal system is comparatively recent, most tribunals having been set up since 1945. Independently of the

executive, tribunals decide the rights and obligations of private citizens towards each other or towards a government department or other public authority. A number of important tribunals (notably the rent and the industrial tribunals) decide disputes between private citizens. Some (such as those concerned with social security) resolve claims by private citizens against public authorities. A further group (including tax tribunals) decide disputed claims by public authorities against private citizens, and still others decide issues in dispute which do not directly affect financial rights or liabilities, such as entitlements to licences or the right to enter the United Kingdom. Tribunals usually consist of an uneven number of people so that a majority decision can be reached; some consist of one person sitting alone. Members are normally appointed by the minister concerned with the subject but other authorities have the power of appointment in appropriate cases. The Lord Chancellor (or the Lord President of the Court of Session in Scotland) makes most appointments where a lawyer chairman or member is required.

Appeals on a point of law from all the more important tribunals may be made in England and Wales to the High Court, in Scotland to the Court of Session and in Northern Ireland to the Court of Appeal. An appeal may also be made to a specially constituted appeal tribunal, to a government minister or to an independent referee. The Employment Appeal Tribunal, which hears appeals on questions of law from decisions of industrial tribunals (see p 315), has High Court and Court of Session status. The Council on Tribunals (appointed jointly by the Lord Chancellor and the Lord Advocate) exercises general supervision over tribunals, advising on draft rules of procedure, monitoring their activities and reporting on particular matters; those peculiar to Scotland are dealt with by the Scottish Committee of the Council.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE LAW

GOVERNMENT RESPONSIBILITIES

The United Kingdom judiciary is entirely independent of the Government and is not subject to ministerial direction or control. There is no minister of justice. Responsibility for the administration of justice rests with the Lord Chancellor, the Home Secretary and the Secretaries of State for Scotland and Northern Ireland. Also concerned is the Prime Minister who recommends the highest judicial appointments to the Crown.

England and Wales

The Lord Chancellor is the head of the judiciary (and sometimes sits as a judge in the House of Lords); he is concerned with court procedure, is responsible for the administration of all courts other than magistrates' courts, appoints magistrates, and has general responsibility for the legal aid and advice scheme. He is also responsible for the administration of civil law reform.

The Home Secretary is concerned with the criminal law (including law reform), the police service, prisons, and the probation and after-care service; and has general supervision over magistrates' courts, together with some specific responsibilities (such as approving the appointment of justices' clerks). On matters relating to crime prevention and the treatment of offenders, the Home Secretary is advised by the Advisory Council on the Penal System. Prison policy and the administration of custodial centres are functions of the Home Office Prison Department, and the Home Secretary appoints to each centre a board of visitors representing the local community

to investigate and advise on the state of prison premises, administration and treatment of inmates. The boards have disciplinary powers in relation to serious breaches of discipline and hear applications or complaints from inmates. The Home Secretary is advised by a special Parole Board on the release of prisoners on licence.

Responsibility for the treatment of offenders under 17 is shared between the Home Office and the Department of Health and Social Security. The Home Secretary is also responsible for advising the Queen on the exercise of the royal prerogative of mercy to pardon a person convicted of a crime or to cancel all or part of a penalty imposed by a court.

The Secretary of State for the Environment is responsible for providing accommodation for all the superior courts in England and Wales, except the Central Criminal Court, which is the responsibility of the City of London.

The Attorney General and the Solicitor General (the Law Officers of the Crown for England and Wales) are the Government's principal advisers on English law, and represent the Crown in appropriate domestic and international cases. They are senior barristers, elected members of the House of Commons and hold ministerial posts. The Attorney General is also Attorney General for Northern Ireland.

As well as exercising various civil law functions, the Attorney General has final responsibility for enforcing the criminal law; the Director of Public Prosecutions is subject to the Attorney General's superintendence. The Attorney General is concerned with instituting and prosecuting certain types of criminal proceedings, but must exercise an independent discretion, and must not be influenced by government colleagues. The Solicitor General is, in effect, the deputy of the Attorney General.

Scotland

The Secretary of State for Scotland recommends the appointment of all judges other than the most senior ones, appoints the staff of the High Court of Justiciary and the Court of Session and is responsible for the composition, staffing and organisation of the sheriff courts. District courts are staffed and administered by the district and islands local authorities. The Secretary of State is also responsible for crime prevention, and the police and the penal system, and is advised on parole matters by the Parole Board for Scotland.

The Lord Advocate and the Solicitor General for Scotland are the chief legal advisers to the Government on Scottish questions and the principal representatives of the Crown for the purposes of litigation in Scotland. The Lord Advocate is closely concerned with questions of legal policy and administration and is also responsible for the Scottish parliamentary draftsmen, and for the public prosecution of all major crimes.

Northern Ireland

In Northern Ireland the judiciary is appointed by the Queen on the advice of the Lord Chancellor. The administration of all courts is the responsibility of the Lord Chancellor, while the Northern Ireland Office, under the Secretary of State, deals with the police and the penal system.

THE PERSONNEL OF THE LAW

Judges

The courts of the United Kingdom are the Queen's Courts since the Crown is the historic source of all judicial power. The Queen, acting on the advice of ministers, is responsible for all appointments to the judiciary.

Full-time judges do not engage in politics, except for the Lord Chancellor, who is head of the judiciary, speaker of the House of Lords and a Cabinet minister. With the exception of lay magistrates, judges are normally appointed from practising barristers, advocates (in Scotland) or solicitors

(see below). The judiciary is not a career service as in many other countries. Lay magistrates in England and Wales need no legal qualifications but on appointment undergo basic training to give them sufficient knowledge of the law, including the rules of evidence, and to enable them to understand the nature and purpose of sentencing. The Scottish district court justices of the peace likewise need no legal qualifications. In Northern Ireland lay magistrates serving on juvenile courts undertake training courses; resident magistrates are drawn from practising solicitors or barristers. In certain circumstances (for instance, in cases of misconduct or proven incapacity) judges of the inferior courts may be removed from their positions but, in order to safeguard the independence of the judiciary from the executive, superior judges in England and Wales and Northern Ireland (other than the Lord Chancellor who changes with the Government) are subject to removal only by the Queen on an address presented by both Houses of Parliament; in Scotland there is no statutory provision for removing judges of the Court of Session or High Court of Justiciary from office and special legislation would probably be needed to secure a dismissal.

The Legal Profession

The legal profession is divided into two branches: barristers (advocates in Scotland) and solicitors. Barristers are known collectively as the 'Bar', and collectively and individually as 'counsel'. Solicitors undertake legal business for lay clients, while barristers advise on legal problems submitted through solicitors and present cases in the higher courts; certain functions are common to both. Although people are free to conduct their own cases, most people prefer to be legally represented in the more serious cases.

The professional organisations for barristers are: the Senate of the Inns of Court and the Bar (in England and Wales),¹ the Faculty of Advocates (in Scotland) and the General Council of the Bar of Northern Ireland. For solicitors they are: the Law Society, the Law Society of Scotland and the Incorporated Law Society of Northern Ireland.

LEGAL AID, ADVICE AND ASSISTANCE

A person in need may obtain help from public funds to meet the costs of legal advice and legal representation in court. The State is entitled to be reimbursed from contributions which assisted people may have to pay according to their means, and from costs and money or property recovered or preserved in the legal proceedings.

Advice and Assistance

People with moderate means may obtain help from a solicitor on any legal matter concerning British law, either free or subject to a contribution. The solicitor's help includes giving advice, writing letters, drafting wills, obtaining opinions from a barrister and, where specifically authorised by the legal aid authorities, representing the client in certain civil proceedings in magistrates' courts. A solicitor may act for a client until costs and expenses reach a total of £40 (£75 for divorce or judicial separation cases) after which the agreement of the legal aid authorities must be obtained. A person seeking help must give details about income and savings.

Law Centres

In a number of urban areas law centres provide free advice to people of limited means. All law centres (voluntary organisations financed from various sources, including government grants) have at least one full-time salaried lawyer and many employ community workers. Most devote much of their time to tenant-landlord disputes and other housing problems. Free legal advice is also available in Citizens Advice Bureaux, consumer and

¹In England and Wales every barrister and every student wishing to become a barrister must be a member of one of the four Inns of Court in London (Lincoln's Inn, Inner Temple, Middle Temple and Gray's Inn).

housing advice centres and in specialist advice centres run by various voluntary organisations.

Aid in Civil Proceedings

Legal aid for civil proceedings is available to people whose disposable incomes and capital fall below certain prescribed amounts, but a contribution is payable according to the level of the applicant's income and capital; if they are below prescribed amounts, legal aid is given free.

An applicant for legal aid must also show reasonable grounds for taking or defending the proceedings. If the application is successful the case is conducted in the ordinary way, except that no money passes between the assisted person and the solicitor—payments being made in and out of the legal aid fund. The costs of an action which an assisted litigant loses against an unassisted opponent may also, subject to certain conditions and if the court so orders, be met out of the fund. Solicitors and counsel must review the case at each stage to see that it is not being pursued unreasonably at public expense. Legal aid is not generally available in cases where redress is sought for alleged defamation or for representation in proceedings in most administrative tribunals.

The civil legal aid schemes are run by the Law Society, the Law Society of Scotland and the Incorporated Law Society of Northern Ireland, under the general guidance respectively of the Lord Chancellor the Secretary of State for Scotland and the Secretary of State for Northern Ireland.

Aid in Criminal Proceedings

In criminal proceedings in England and Wales a legal aid order may be made by the court concerned if it appears to be in the interests of justice and if a defendant needs financial help. An order must be made when a person is committed for trial on a murder charge or where the prosecutor appeals or applies for leave to appeal from the Court of Appeal (Criminal Division) to the House of Lords. No person who is unrepresented can be given a custodial sentence for the first time unless given the opportunity to apply for legal aid.

Voluntary duty solicitor schemes at many magistrates' courts provide 'standby' help for unrepresented defendants.

The criminal legal aid scheme in England and Wales is administered by the courts, under the overall responsibility of the Lord Chancellor.

The arrangements for aid in criminal proceedings in Scotland and Northern Ireland are broadly similar, but in Scotland there is a statutory duty solicitor scheme for accused people in custody in sheriff, and district, court cases and the 'interests of justice' test applies only in summary cases.

LAW REFORM

The duty of keeping the law under review lies with the Law Reform Committee, the Criminal Law Revision Committee and the Law Commission in England and Wales, and with the Scottish Law Commission in Scotland. The Law Reform Committee and the Criminal Law Revision Committee comprise judges and practising and academic lawyers, appointed respectively by the Lord Chancellor and the Home Secretary, to examine aspects of the civil and criminal law.

The Law Commission, a permanent body of five lawyers of high standing reporting to the Lord Chancellor, scrutinises the law with a view to its systematic development and reform, and its simplification and modernisation. The Scottish Law Commission is similar, and reports to the Lord Advocate. Law reform in Northern Ireland is a matter for the Law Commission and the Office of Law Reform.

The British social welfare system comprises the National Health Service, the personal social services and social security. The National Health Service provides a comprehensive range of medical services which are available to all residents, irrespective of means. The local authority personal social services and voluntary organisations provide advice and help to elderly people, disabled people and children in need of care. The social security system is designed to secure a basic standard of living for people in financial need by providing income during periods of inability to earn, help for families and compensation for disablement.

Central government is responsible directly for the National Health Service, administered by health authorities and boards acting as its agents, and for the social security system. It has an indirect responsibility for the personal social services administered by local government authorities. Joint finance and planning between health and local authorities aims to prevent overlapping of services and to encourage the development of community services.

Spending on social welfare in 1981 was: health £13,370 million (6·3 per cent of gross domestic product), and personal social services £2,490 million (1·2 per cent). Expenditure on the health service and social security is being increased in line with inflation; the personal social services is determined by local authorities within the reduced level of spending which they have been asked to achieve. Social security, which accounts for 27 per cent of public expenditure, is by far the largest item in the total.

NATIONAL HEALTH SERVICE

The National Health Service (NHS) is based upon the principle that there should be a comprehensive range of publicly provided services designed to promote improvement in the health of the people and in the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of illness. All taxpayers, employers and employees contribute to its cost so that those members of the community who do not require health care help to pay for those who do. At the time of use there may be charges (as for prescriptions and spectacles) from which, however, children and people with low incomes are exempt, or treatment may be free (for example, hospital care). Over 40 per cent of health authority expenditure on hospital and community services is spent on the care of elderly people.

In considering the future use of resources, the Government has emphasised the importance of preventive services, the responsibility of individuals for their own health, the importance of the family in providing care and support, and the whole network of support available within the community and through the voluntary services. It stresses the need for a partnership between the public and private health sectors and for improving efficiency in order to secure the best value for money at a time of economic difficulty.

responsible for all aspects of the health services in their respective areas. The health departments (the Department of Health and Social Security in England, the Scottish Home and Health Department, the Welsh Office and the Department of Health and Social Services in Northern Ireland) are responsible for strategic planning. District health authorities in England and Wales and health boards in Scotland are responsible for planning and operational control of all health services in their areas. In England, because of its greater size and population, a tier of regional authorities is responsible for regional planning, resource allocation, major capital building work and certain specialised hospital services best administered on a regional basis. The authorities and boards co-operate closely with local authorities responsible for social work, environmental health, education and other services.

In Northern Ireland the health and social services boards act as agents for the Department of Health and Social Services, spanning both health and personal social services.

Health Service Commissioners

There are three Health Service Commissioner posts (for England, Scotland and Wales) for dealing with complaints from members of the public about the health service. All three posts are held by the Parliamentary Commissioner for Administration (see p 46). The jurisdiction of the Health Service Commissioner covers the failure of a health authority to carry out its statutory duties, a failure in a service provided, or maladministration causing injustice or hardship, but not actions taken solely in the exercise of clinical judgment or the actions of family practitioners. The Commissioner reports annually to ministers who lay the reports before Parliament, and may make other reports when necessary.

In Northern Ireland the Commissioner for Complaints (see p 67) investigates complaints concerning the health service, but not the actions of medical practitioners or the professions supplementary to medicine.

Finance

About 85 per cent of the cost of the health services is paid for through general taxation; the rest is met from the National Health Service contribution paid with the national insurance contribution and from the charges towards the cost of certain items such as drugs prescribed by a family doctor, dental treatment, dentures and spectacles. Health authorities may raise funds from voluntary sources.

The charges for medical prescriptions do not apply to children under 16 years, expectant mothers and mothers with a child under the age of one, women aged 60 and over and men aged 65 and over, patients suffering from certain medical conditions, war and Service disablement pensioners (for treatment of their disability), and families with very low incomes. Some 70 per cent of prescription items are supplied free of charge. Exemptions from charges for dental treatment are made for examinations and denture repairs. Some groups of patients receive free treatment, for example, women who are pregnant or who have had a baby in the last year, anyone under the age of 18, or 19 if in full-time education, and people receiving supplementary benefit (see p 140) or family income supplement (see p 140). Children's spectacles are free.

Provision is made at certain hospitals for patients to be treated as private patients on payment of the whole cost of their accommodation and treatment.

Hospital medical staffs are salaried and can be employed full-time or

part-time. Hospital doctors can accept private patients. General medical practitioners are self-employed, paid by a system of fees and allowances designed to reflect responsibilities, work load and practice expenses.

Dentists providing treatment in their own surgeries are paid on a prescribed scale of fees. Pharmacists dispensing on their own premises are reimbursed for the cost of the items supplied together with professional fees. Ophthalmic medical practitioners and ophthalmic opticians taking part in the general ophthalmic service receive approved fees for each sight test made; opticians who dispense spectacles are paid according to the number and type of pairs supplied.

PRIMARY HEALTH CARE

Primary health care is in the hands of doctors, dentists, opticians and pharmacists working within the Service as independent practitioners, and health visitors, district nurses and midwives employed by the health authorities; a wide range of other services is also available including the school health service, social services and chiropody service.

Family Practitioner Services

The family practitioner services are those given to patients by doctors, dentists, opticians and pharmacists of their own choice. Family doctors who are under contract to the National Health Service have on average about 2,250 patients. They provide the first diagnosis in the case of illness and either prescribe a suitable course of treatment or refer a patient to the more specialised services and hospital consultants. Ophthalmic medical practitioners and ophthalmic and dispensing opticians test the sight and supply spectacles. Patients requiring treatment are dealt with through the Hospital Eye Service.

Health Visitors, District Nurses and Midwives

Health visitors are responsible for the preventive care and health education of all families, particularly those with young children. They work closely with general practitioners, district nurses and other professions. District nurses give skilled nursing care to people at home or elsewhere outside hospital; they also play an important role in preventive care and health education. Although almost all babies are born in hospital, there is a domiciliary service for mothers having their babies at home, with midwives and general practitioners giving both ante-natal and post-natal care. Midwives also assist births in hospital.

Group Practices and Health Centres

About four-fifths of family doctors in Britain work in partnerships or group practices, often as members of health care teams which also include health visitors and district nurses and sometimes midwives and social workers. About a fifth in Great Britain and just over a half in Northern Ireland work in modern and well-equipped health centres where medical and nursing services are provided. Health centres may also have facilities for health education, family planning, speech therapy, chiropody, assessment of hearing, physiotherapy and remedial exercises. Dental, pharmaceutical and ophthalmic services, hospital out-patient services and supporting social work services may also be provided.

HOSPITALS AND SPECIALIST SERVICES

The hospital services include district general hospitals with treatment and diagnostic facilities for in-patients, day-patients and out-patients, hospital maternity departments, infectious disease units, psychiatric and geriatric facilities, rehabilitation facilities, convalescent homes and all forms of specialised treatment. A number of specialist hospitals for mentally ill, mentally handicapped and elderly people are also provided.

Hospitals

A large proportion of the hospitals in the National Health Service were built in the nineteenth century; some trace their origins to much earlier charitable foundations, such as the famous St Bartholomew's and St Thomas' hospitals in London. Much has been done to improve and extend existing buildings and many new hospitals have been or are being opened. The most recent development in hospital design is the 'nucleus' hospital of some 300 beds which makes a more intensive use of space and facilities; it can be used either as the first stage of a new hospital or as an extension of an existing hospital. The world's first low-energy nucleus hospital, which is expected to use less than half the energy of an ordinary nucleus hospital, is to be built on the Isle of Wight. Recent policy had been to concentrate 'acute' facilities (that is, for relatively short-term or urgent treatment) in large district hospitals and to expand the role of the small hospital in the care of the long-stay patient, particularly the elderly (although in Scotland more of the smaller hospitals have been retained for acute medicine). The Government has reviewed this policy which, it considers, involves the construction of excessively large hospitals and the risk of hospital services becoming too remote from the local communities. As a result, more emphasis is being placed on providing smaller hospitals for local areas. National Health Service hospitals provide nearly half a million beds and have over 480,000 nursing, midwifery and medical staff.

Rehabilitation

Rehabilitation is an important part of medical care, beginning at the onset of illness or injury and aimed at helping people to live as normally as possible. It is especially important for elderly, disabled and mentally-ill people who need such help to become self-sufficient. Facilities are provided in most hospitals and at special centres. The work is carried out by teams of doctors, nurses, physiotherapists, remedial gymnasts, occupational therapists, speech therapists and social workers. The hospital departments work closely with the Disablement Resettlement Service of the Manpower Services Commission (the Department of Manpower Services in Northern Ireland).

Medical services may include the provision, free of charge, of artificial limbs and eyes, hearing aids, surgical supports, wheelchairs, and other appliances. Very severely physically handicapped patients may be provided with electrical control equipment which enables them to operate devices such as alarm bells, radio and television, a telephone, and heating. Nursing aids for the handicapped at home can be borrowed.

Social workers, home helps and occupational therapists help hospital patients who, due to their illness, have difficulties on returning to their homes.

Hospices

Over 60 hospices provide care for the dying either directly in residential homes or through the provision of nursing and other assistance in the patient's own home. Control of symptoms and psychological support for patients and their families form the central features of the modern hospice movement, which originated in Britain and is now world-wide. About 20 of the hospices are administered entirely by the National Health Service; the remainder, most of which receive support from public funds, are run by independent charitable organisations.

Drug Dependence

Treatment for narcotic drug dependence is provided mostly on an out-patient basis in the drug treatment units provided by the National Health

Service, although some addicts have a period of in-patient treatment when necessary. Only doctors specially licensed are allowed to prescribe heroin and cocaine for the treatment of drug addiction. All doctors must notify the authorities of any patient they consider to be addicted to certain controlled drugs. The Advisory Council on the Misuse of Drugs advises ministers on a wide range of matters associated with the prevention and treatment of drug abuse and connected social problems.

A number of unofficial agencies work with and complement the Health Service provision. Rehabilitation facilities, for example, are mainly provided by voluntary organisations, some of which receive financial help from local authorities. Social work help is given by the probation service and local social services departments.

Alcoholism

Treatment and rehabilitation for problem drinkers, provided by the National Health Service and social services, include in-patient and out-patient services in general hospitals, psychiatric units and hospitals and in specialised alcoholism treatment units. Primary care teams (general practitioners, nurses and social workers) and voluntary organisations, providing hostels, day centres, and counselling services, also play an important part. Educational and research projects on alcohol misuse, and organisations concerned with alcohol-related problems, receive financial help from a charitable fund administered by the Alcohol Education and Research Council.

Parents and Children

Special preventive health services, including free dental care, are available for expectant and nursing mothers and young children. A feature of the services is the education of parents before and after the birth by means of talks, discussion groups, demonstrations and classes. Pre-school-age children receive regular medical examinations and are tested for vision, hearing, speech and language deficiencies. Family planning advice and help is provided at many clinics, and welfare foods (dried milk and vitamins) are distributed from them.

The school health service, which is part of the National Health Service, organises health surveillance of school children including medical inspection and dental inspection and treatment where necessary.

Child guidance and child psychiatric services provide help and advice for children with psychological or emotional problems.

Family Planning

Free family planning facilities are available to everyone through family planning clinics, hospitals and a domiciliary service. Most family doctors provide a similar service for women only.

Abortion

The Abortion Act 1967 allows the termination of pregnancy if two registered doctors think that its continuance would involve a greater risk to the life of the pregnant woman (or injury to her physical or mental health or that of any existing children in the family) than if the pregnancy were ended. Termination may also be allowed if the two doctors think that there is a substantial risk of the child being born with severe physical or mental abnormalities. Abortions are carried out in National Health Service hospitals or in private premises officially approved for the purpose. About half of the 138,000 legal abortions to women resident in Great Britain in 1981 were performed in private hospitals and clinics. The Act does not apply in Northern Ireland.

**Blood
Transfusion**

The blood transfusion service receives over 2 million donations of blood each year from voluntary unpaid donors. Regional transfusion centres recruit donors and organise donor sessions in towns and villages, factories and offices, and within the armed forces. Donors must be between the ages of 18 and 65. The centres are also responsible for blood grouping and testing, maintaining blood banks, providing a consultancy service to hospitals, teaching in medical schools, and instructing doctors, nurses and technicians. Four laboratories prepare blood products and undertake research.

**Ambulance
Services**

Where necessary on medical grounds free transport by ambulance is provided by the health authorities. The work of the ambulance service is emergency work dealing with sudden illness, urgent maternity cases, and accidents of all kinds; and non-urgent work providing transport for people needing out-patient treatment at hospitals, clinics and day hospitals.

The London Ambulance Service is probably the largest of its kind in the world, catering for 7 million residents and non-residents in an area of 1,580 sq km (610 sq miles). It uses over 1,100 vehicles at 77 ambulance stations and has a staff of over 2,800. On an average day it receives 1,800 emergency calls (over one call every minute) and carries out 8,000 non-urgent patient journeys.

In some areas the ambulance service for non-urgent cases is augmented by volunteers using their own cars. In Scotland an air ambulance service is available in the islands and in the remoter parts of the mainland.

**HEALTH
EDUCATION**

In England, Wales and Northern Ireland health education is promoted by the government-financed Health Education Council, which assists in the development of programmes of health education with the health authorities, professional organisations, voluntary bodies and industry. Health education services in Scotland are organised by the Scottish Health Education Group, which is part of the Common Services Agency. Major themes of publicity campaigns are family planning, dental health, the importance of vaccination for children, correct diet and exercise, and the dangers of cigarette smoking and excessive consumption of alcohol.

**SAFETY OF
MEDICINES**

Under the Medicines Act 1968 the health and agriculture ministers are responsible for licensing the manufacture, marketing and importation of medicines for human and veterinary use. The Medicines Commission advises the ministers on policy regarding medicines and a Committee on Safety of Medicines gives advice on the safety, efficacy and quality of new medicines and monitors adverse drug reactions. The Act also controls the advertising, labelling, packaging, distribution, sale and supply of medicinal products.

RESEARCH

In England and Wales in 1981-82 the health departments spent about £23 million on research and development (in addition to expenditure by the Medical Research Council, see p 357). The programme is administered by the Chief Scientist of the Department of Health and Social Security who is supported by independent advisers covering a wide range of scientific disciplines. The Department is also involved in international research and development. In Scotland about £3.9 million was spent by the Home and Health Department on medical research and development. Both health departments participate in the European Community's medical and public health research programme.

THE HEALTH PROFESSIONS

Only people whose names are on the medical or dental registers may practise as doctors or dentists in the National Health Service. University medical and dental schools are responsible for teaching; the National Health Service provides hospital clinical facilities for training. Full registration as a doctor requires five or six years' training in medical school and hospital, with an additional year's experience in a hospital; for a dentist, four or more years' training at a dental school is required. The regulating body for the medical profession is the General Medical Council and that of the dentists is the General Dental Council. The main professional associations are the British Medical Association and the British Dental Association.

The minimum period of hospital training required to qualify for registration as a nurse is normally three years. Training may be in general, sick children's, mental or mental subnormality nursing. An enrolled nurse takes a two-year course (in Scotland 18 months). The examining bodies of the nursing profession in England and Wales and in Scotland are the general nursing councils. Midwives must have the certificate of the appropriate Midwives Board. The examining body for nurses and midwives in Northern Ireland is the Northern Ireland Council for Nurses and Midwives. Student midwives are usually registered general nurses and undergo 18 months' midwifery training. The Royal College of Nursing and the Royal College of Midwives are the professional bodies for nurses and midwives. Health visitors are registered general nurses with midwifery or approved obstetric experience who have completed a year's course in health visiting, regulated by the Council for the Education and Training of Health Visitors. District nurses are state registered nurses who hold a district nursing certificate awarded by the Panel of Assessors for District Nurse Training. A United Kingdom Central Council for Nursing, Midwifery and Health Visiting has been established and it is expected that it will assume responsibility for regulating these professions in 1983. New national boards for each country will take over responsibility for promoting education and training.

Pharmacists in general practice and in hospital must be registered by the Pharmaceutical Society of Great Britain; in Northern Ireland the register is maintained by the Department of Health and Social Services on behalf of the Pharmaceutical Society of Northern Ireland. A three-year degree course approved by the Pharmaceutical Society followed by a year's approved training is necessary before registration. The majority of medicines can be sold or dispensed only by, or under the supervision of, a registered pharmacist.

The General Optical Council regulates the professions of ophthalmic optician and dispensing optician; only registered ophthalmic opticians (or registered medical practitioners) may test sight. Training of ophthalmic opticians takes four years including a year of practical experience under supervision. Dispensing opticians take a two-year full-time course with a year's practical experience or a part-time day-release course while employed with an optician.

State registration may be obtained by chiropodists, dietitians, medical laboratory scientific officers, occupational therapists, orthoptists, physiotherapists, radiographers and remedial gymnasts. The governing bodies are eight boards, corresponding to the eight professions, under the general supervision of the Council for Professions Supplementary to Medicine. Professional training lasts two or four years and only those who are state

registered may be employed in the National Health Service and some other public services.

Dental therapists (who have undergone a two-year training course) and dental hygienists (who have undergone a training course of about a year) may carry out some simple dental work under the direction of a registered dentist.

ARRANGEMENTS WITH OTHER COUNTRIES The member states of the European Community have special health arrangements under which Community nationals are entitled to receive any necessary treatment immediately, either free or at reduced cost, during visits to other Community countries. There are also arrangements to cover people who go to work or live in other Community countries. In addition, there are reciprocal arrangements with some other countries under which emergency medical treatment is available. Otherwise with some exceptions visitors are expected to pay if the purpose of their visit is to seek treatment, and also if they should fall ill while in the United Kingdom.

PRIVATE MEDICAL TREATMENT

It is the Government's policy to encourage the private sector to meet a larger share of the nation's health needs in the belief that this will benefit the NHS by relieving pressure on it. The scale of private practice in relation to the NHS is, however, small. There are some 2,800 private pay beds in NHS hospitals in England and some 5 per cent of acute hospital beds are in private hospitals and nursing homes. It is estimated that about half of those receiving acute treatment in NHS pay beds or private hospitals are covered by provident schemes which make provision for private health care in return for annual subscriptions. In 1982 there were some 1.86 million subscribers to such schemes of whom the majority were involved in group schemes, some arranged by firms on behalf of employees. Subscriptions often cover more than one person (for example, members of a family) and a total of 4.1 million were covered. Private practice is also undertaken by family doctors and dentists.

ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH

Environmental health officers employed by local authorities are responsible for the control of air pollution, noise, food hygiene and quality, the inspection of offices, the investigation of unfit housing, and in some instances for refuse collection. Doctors who specialise in community medicine and are employed by the health authorities advise local authorities on the medical aspects of environmental health. They may also assist the authorities responsible for water supply and sewerage. Environmental health officers at ports and airports carry out a range of duties concerned with shipping, inspection of imported foods and disease control. In Northern Ireland district councils are responsible for noise control, collection and disposal of refuse, clean air, and food composition, labelling and hygiene.

Safety of Food

It is illegal to sell food unfit for human consumption or to apply any treatment, process or additive to food which makes it injurious to health. Premises where food or drink is prepared, handled, stored or sold must conform to certain hygiene standards. Environmental health officers may take for analysis or for bacteriological or other examination samples of any food on sale. Special regulations control the safety of particular foods such as milk, meat and ice-cream. The Department of Health and Social Security, the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, the Scottish

Office, the Welsh Office and the Department of Health and Social Services in Northern Ireland are the central departments responsible for giving advice and making regulations.

CONTROL OF INFECTIOUS DISEASES

The health authorities have general responsibility for the prevention of disease and co-operate with the local authority environmental health services. The district health authorities and health boards carry out programmes of vaccination and immunisation against diphtheria, measles, rubella (females only), poliomyelitis, tetanus, tuberculosis and whooping cough. Following publicity given to cases of adverse reaction to vaccination, particularly against whooping cough, there was a decline in the numbers being vaccinated. Government studies have concluded, however, that the benefits of vaccination far outweigh the risks, and parents are encouraged to seek protection for their children. There are signs that the situation is improving; the proportion of children being vaccinated is increasing.

Community physicians are responsible for the prevention and control of infectious diseases and are supported by the Public Health Laboratory Service which provides a network of bacteriological and virological laboratories throughout England and Wales which conduct research and assist in the diagnosis, prevention and control of epidemic diseases. Its largest establishment is the Central Public Health Laboratory at Colindale, in north-west London, which includes the National Collection of Type Cultures, the Food Hygiene Laboratory, and reference laboratories specialising in the identification of infective micro-organisms. A surveillance centre investigates and monitors human communicable diseases. In Scotland bacteriological work is done mainly in hospital laboratories. In Northern Ireland a central public health laboratory shares the bacteriological work with hospital laboratories.

PERSONAL SOCIAL SERVICES

Responsibility for personal social services rests with the social services authorities (local authority social services departments in England and Wales, social work departments in Scotland and health and social services boards in Northern Ireland). Many of their services are directed towards the same groups of people needing health services, for example, elderly or disabled people. Other groups helped include young families with social problems, children deprived of a normal home life, the mentally ill or handicapped and young offenders. Close co-operation is maintained between local authority social services departments and health authorities. In Scotland local authorities also undertake duties similar to those of the separate probation and after-care service in England and Wales (see p 111).

Much of the care given to the elderly and disabled is provided in the community itself, by their families, self-help groups and through the voluntary movement. The statutory sector offers the special skilled care needed in particular services. The Government recognises the importance of the contribution made by the voluntary organisations, especially when economies are being made in public expenditure and the demand on the statutory services is heavy.

Disabled People

Social services authorities provide a range of personal social services for disabled people. They are required to establish the number of disabled

people in their area and to publicise services. A wide range of facilities may be available including advice on personal and social problems arising from disability, assistance in overcoming the effects of disability, adaptations to people's homes (such as fitting ramps, and ground floor toilets) and various aids to daily living. In certain circumstances a telephone or a television set may be installed. Other facilities include social and occupational clubs, residential homes and the organisation of outings and holidays; some authorities make arrangements for the teaching of handicrafts and other occupations. Voluntary organisations also provide services for disabled people.

Help available from other sources includes social security, medical treatment, special education, employment and training services, and specially designed housing and means of access to public buildings.

The Elderly

Services for elderly people are provided by statutory and voluntary bodies to help them to live at home whenever possible. These may include the advice and help of social workers, domestic help, delivery of cooked meals, sitters-in, night attendants and laundry services as well as day centres, clubs and recreational workshops. In many areas 'good neighbour' and friendly visiting services are arranged by the local authority or a voluntary organisation. Social services authorities also provide residential accommodation for the elderly and infirm and have powers to register homes run by voluntary organisations or privately.

Local authorities, as part of their responsibility for public housing, build flats specially designed for elderly people; some of these blocks have resident wardens. Housing associations also build this type of accommodation.

The Mentally Ill and the Mentally Handicapped

Social services authorities must make arrangements for the provision of preventive care and after-care services for mentally ill and mentally handicapped people in the community. Developments in the treatment of mental illness, which enable patients either to be treated at home or to be discharged from hospital more quickly provided support is available in the community, are adding to demands for these services and particularly for social work support. Services include training centres for the mentally handicapped and day centres for the mentally ill, as well as social centres and a variety of residential care for the mentally ill and mentally handicapped of all ages. Social workers help patients and their families to deal with social problems arising from mental illness or handicap and in certain circumstances make application for compulsory admission (on a medical recommendation) of mentally disordered people to hospital.

Help to Families

Social services authorities, through their own social workers or a voluntary organisation, make available help and advice to families facing special problems. The home help service provides practical assistance at home for sick and disabled people, elderly people and expectant mothers.

Some authorities make direct provision for the special needs of unmarried mothers and their babies, but most contribute to the cost of work done by voluntary organisations and other bodies.

Child Care

Day care facilities for children under five are provided by local authorities, voluntary agencies and privately. In allocating places in day nurseries and other facilities they themselves provide, local authorities give priority to children with special social or health needs for day care. They also register,

and provide support and advice services for, childminders, private day nurseries and play-groups operating in their area.

The authorities must offer advice, guidance and assistance to families in difficulties to promote the welfare of children. The aim is to intervene early to reduce the need to receive children into care or bring the case before a court.

The recognition, prevention and management of cases of child abuse are the concern of many authorities, agencies and professions, and area review committees provide a forum for discussion and co-ordination and draw up policies and procedures for handling these cases.

Authorities must receive into their care any child under the age of 17 who has no parent or guardian or who has been abandoned or whose parents are unable to provide for him or her, if they are satisfied that such intervention is in the interests of the child. The child remains in care until the age of 18 unless discharged to the care of parents, other relatives or friends. In certain circumstances the local authority assumes the rights and duties of one or both parents. The parents must be notified and if they object the matter must be decided in a court of law. When taking a decision on a child in care, the authorities have to give first consideration to the need to safeguard and promote the welfare of the child. Where children are in care, efforts are made to work with their families in order, where appropriate, to enable the children to return home.

Children in England and Wales may be brought before a juvenile court if they are neglected or ill-treated, exposed to moral danger, are beyond the control of parents, not attending school or (if ten years or over) have committed an offence other than homicide (see p 114). At the same time it must be shown that the children need care or control which they are unlikely to receive unless a care or other relevant order is made by the court. Local authorities are responsible for undertaking inquiries through social workers, consultation with parents, schools and the police. Children may be committed to the care of a local authority under a care order if the court is satisfied that they need care or control. As an alternative the court may order supervision by a social worker or a probation officer for up to three years.

In Northern Ireland the court may send children to a training school (see p 115), commit them to the care of a fit person (which includes a health and social services board), or make a supervision order. The law relating to children has been reviewed and the intention in future is to make a distinction between young offenders and children in need of care and protection. Strong emphasis is placed on preventive work.

In Scotland children in trouble (see p 115) or in need may be brought before a children's hearing which can impose a supervision requirement on a child if it thinks that compulsory measures of care are appropriate. Under these requirements most children are allowed to remain at home under the supervision of a social worker but some may be sent to a residential establishment while under supervision. Supervision requirements are reviewed at intervals of not more than one year until terminated by a children's hearing.

When appropriate, children in care are boarded out with foster parents, who receive an allowance to cover the cost of maintenance. If foster homes are not considered appropriate or cannot be found, the children may be placed in children's homes, voluntary homes or other suitable residential accommodation. Community homes for children in care in England and

Wales comprise local authority and some voluntary children's homes, and include community homes with education on the premises which provide long-term care usually for the more difficult children. In Scotland local authorities are responsible for placing children in their care either in foster homes, in local authority or voluntary homes, or in residential schools. In Northern Ireland there are residential homes for children in the care of the health and social services boards; training schools and remand homes are administered separately. Regulations concerning community homes, registered voluntary homes and the boarding out of children in care are made by central government.

Voluntary Organisations

Voluntary organisations play a major part in providing accommodation for children both in the care of local authorities and voluntary organisations. Some children's homes run by voluntary organisations which are not within the community homes system are registered with central government.

Voluntary bodies concerned with the welfare of children in their own homes include local family casework agencies and the Family Service Units. The National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children and its Scottish counterpart investigate reported cruelty or neglect.

Adoption

Adoption of children is strictly regulated by legislation and some 12,000 adoption orders are made in Britain each year. The Registrars-General keep confidential registers of adopted children. Local authorities can act as adoption agencies and eventually will be obliged to offer such a service. Adoption societies must be approved by the respective social services minister.

Social Workers

The effective operation of the social services largely depends on the availability of professionally qualified social workers trained in the methods of social work. Training courses in social work are provided by universities, polytechnics and colleges of further education; their length depends upon previous educational qualifications and can extend from one to four years. The Central Council for Education and Training in Social Work recognises social work courses and offers advice to people considering entry to the profession.

Professional social workers (including those working in the National Health Service) are employed by the social services departments of local authorities. Others work in voluntary organisations or in the probation service (see p 111).

SOCIAL SECURITY

National insurance, industrial injuries benefits, child benefit, family income supplement, supplementary benefit and war pensions constitute a comprehensive system of social security. The payment of many benefits depends on prior payments to the national insurance scheme, while others are available without contribution conditions. The former are paid from the national insurance fund which consists of contributions from employed people and their employers, self-employed people and the Government. Non-contributory benefits are financed from general taxation revenue. Appeals relating to claims for the various benefits are decided by independent tribunals.

The social security programme accounts for about 28 per cent of all

public expenditure. It has grown in real terms by over £12,000 million since 1970 and now costs the equivalent of about £1,500 a year for every household. Part of the increase has been due to the rising numbers of the elderly, and part to the growth in unemployment; much, however, has been due to real improvement in the level of benefits, new benefits and increased family support.

The Department of Health and Social Security administers the services in Great Britain; in Northern Ireland they are administered by the Department of Health and Social Services. Pensions and welfare services for war pensioners and their dependants are the responsibility of the Department of Health and Social Security throughout the United Kingdom. Advice on social security is given to the Government by the Social Security Advisory Committee.

The Government has changed a number of aspects of the social security system both to make it more comprehensible and to reduce the rate of growth of its cost to public funds. It takes steps to ensure that social security payments go only to those for whom they are intended.

CONTRIBUTIONS

Entitlement to National Insurance benefits such as retirement pension, sickness and invalidity benefit, unemployment benefit, widow's benefit, maternity allowance, death grant and child's special allowance is dependent upon the payment of contributions. Industrial injuries benefits are non-contributory, but are also payable from the National Insurance Fund. There are four classes of contributions. Class 1 contributions, which are related to earnings, are paid by employees and employers. The contribution is lower if the employer operates a 'contracted out' occupational pension scheme (see below). Self-employed people pay a flat rate Class 2 contribution and a Class 4 contribution which is assessed as a percentage of profits or gains within certain limits; they are not eligible for unemployment and industrial injuries benefit. Voluntary Class 3 contributions are payable by people wanting to safeguard rights to some benefits.

Employees who continue working after pensionable age (60 for women and 65 for men) do not pay contributions but the employer continues to be liable. People earning less than the lower earnings limit are not liable for contributions; neither are their employers. Self-employed people with earnings below a set annual amount may apply for exemption and those over pensionable age are excused payment of contributions.

BENEFITS

For most benefits there are two contribution conditions. First, before benefit can be paid at all, a certain number of contributions have to be paid; second, the full rate of benefit cannot be paid unless contributions have been paid or credited up to a specific level over a specified period. Benefits are increased each November, the uprating being linked to increases in retail prices. The main benefits (payable weekly) are summarised below. The rates shown in Tables 5-8 are those effective from November 1982.

Retirement Pension

A state retirement pension is payable to women at the age of 60 and to men at the age of 65. People still at work five years after the minimum pension age are eligible to receive the pension even if they continue working. In 1978 the new state pension scheme came into operation and will mature fully after 20 years of contributions; the retirement pension will consist of the basic pension plus an additional (earnings-related) pension.

Rights to basic pension are safeguarded for mothers who are away from

work looking after children or for people giving up work to care for severely disabled relatives. Women contributors receive the same pension as men with the same earnings.

Employers are free to 'contract-out' their employees from the state scheme for additional pension and provide their own occupational pension in its place, provided that the latter is at least as good as the state additional pension. The State remains responsible for the basic pension.

A non-contributory retirement pension is payable to people over the age of 80 who have not qualified for a contributory pension or who qualified for one at a lower rate than the non-contributory pension.

Mothers and Children

A non-contributory maternity grant of £25 is payable for each living child born and for a still-born child if the pregnancy lasts for at least 28 weeks. Maternity allowance is payable normally from 11 weeks before the expected week of confinement until the end of the sixth week following the birth.

Non-contributory child benefit is the main social security benefit for children. Tax free and normally paid to the mother, it is payable for children up to the age of 16 and for those up to the age of 19 if they continue in full-time education. A sum in addition to child benefit is payable to certain people bringing up children alone, for the first or only child in the family. A weekly contributory child's special allowance is payable to a mother on the death of a former husband if the marriage was dissolved or annulled and he was contributing to the support of the children. A non-contributory guardian's allowance for an orphaned child is payable to a person who is entitled to child benefit for that child. In certain circumstances it can be paid on the death of only one parent.

Table 5: Benefit Rates

	£
Category	Weekly rate
Retirement and widow's pensions and widowed mother's allowance	
<i>Single person</i>	32.85
<i>Wife or other adult dependant</i>	19.70
<i>Child</i>	7.95
Non-contributory retirement pension for people over 80	
<i>Higher rate</i>	19.70
<i>Lower rate</i>	11.80
Maternity allowance	25.00
Child benefit	5.85
One-parent benefit (for the first or only child)	3.65
Guardian's allowance, child's special allowance	7.95
Widow's allowance (first 26 weeks of widowhood)	45.95
Sickness and unemployment benefit	
For beneficiary under pension age	
<i>Single person</i>	25.00
<i>Wife or other adult dependant</i>	15.45
<i>Child</i>	0.30
For beneficiary over pension age	
<i>Single person</i>	31.45

Table 5: Benefit Rates (*continued*)

Category	£ Weekly rate
<i>Wife or other adult dependant</i>	18.85
<i>Child</i>	7.95
Invalidity pension	
<i>Single person</i>	31.45
<i>Wife or other adult dependant</i>	18.85
<i>Child</i>	7.95
Invalidity allowance payable with retirement or invalidity pension	
<i>Higher rate</i>	6.90
<i>Middle rate</i>	4.40
<i>Lower rate</i>	2.20
Injury benefit	
<i>Single person</i>	27.75
<i>Wife or other adult dependant</i>	15.45
<i>Child</i>	0.30
Disablement benefit (100 per cent assessment)	53.60
Unemployability supplement	
<i>Single person</i>	31.45
<i>Wife or other adult dependant</i>	18.85
<i>Child</i>	7.95
Special hardship allowance (maximum)	21.44
Constant attendance allowance	
<i>Normal maximum</i>	21.50
<i>Maximum in exceptionally severe cases</i>	43.00
Exceptionally severe disablement allowance	21.50
Industrial death benefit	
<i>Widow's pension (first 26 weeks of widowhood)</i>	45.95
<i>Widow's pension (higher rate)</i>	33.40
<i>Widow's pension (lower rate)</i>	9.86
<i>Addition for each child</i>	7.95
Attendance allowance	
<i>Higher rate</i>	26.25
<i>Lower rate</i>	17.50
Non-contributory invalidity pension, invalid care allowance	19.70
<i>Wife or other adult dependant</i>	11.80
<i>Child</i>	7.95
Mobility allowance	18.30

Widows

A widow's allowance is payable for the first 26 weeks of widowhood with an additional sum for each child. After this a widowed mother receives a widowed mother's allowance with an addition for each child. Widow's pension is payable to a widow who is 40 years or over when her husband dies or when her entitlement to widowed mother's allowance ends. Payment continues until the widow remarries or begins drawing retirement pension. There are also benefits for widows under the industrial injuries scheme.

A man whose wife dies when both are over pension age inherits his wife's pension rights just as a widow inherits her husband's rights.

Sick and Disabled People

There is a large variety of benefits for people unable to work because of sickness or disablement. Contributory sickness benefit is payable for up to 28 weeks. There are additions for a wife or other adult dependant and for each child for whom child benefit is payable.

An invalidity pension plus allowances for a wife and children is payable when sickness benefit ends if the beneficiary is still incapable of work. Invalidity allowance is paid with the pension to those people who become sick more than five years before retirement age.

Various benefits are payable for injury or disablement caused by an accident at work or a prescribed disease. Injury benefit is paid when a person is incapable of work and payment can continue for a maximum of 26 weeks beginning on the date of the accident or development of the disease. When injury benefit ends disablement benefit may be paid if, as a result of an industrial accident or a prescribed disease, there is a loss of physical or mental faculty. From April 1983 injury benefit is to be abolished and replaced by disablement benefit which will be payable after a qualifying period of 15 weeks. The amount depends on the extent of the disablement as assessed by a medical board but for disablement of less than 20 per cent a gratuity is normally paid. In certain circumstances disablement benefits may be supplemented by unemployability supplement; constant attendance allowance; and an additional allowance payable in certain cases of exceptionally severe disablement; a special hardship allowance for a person who is unfit to return to his or her regular job or to do work of an equivalent standard; and hospital treatment allowance which raises the disablement pension or gratuity to the 100 per cent assessment rate during hospital treatment for the industrial injury. Increases of disablement benefit for dependants may be payable with unemployability supplement. There are benefits for widows and their children (see p 138).

Other Benefits

A non-contributory, tax-free attendance allowance may be payable to severely disabled people at either a higher or a lower rate depending upon the amount of care and attention they require. A non-contributory invalidity pension is payable to people of working age unable to work and not qualifying for the national insurance invalidity pension; it is also payable to disabled housewives incapable of work and unable to perform their normal household tasks.

A weekly invalid care allowance may be payable to certain categories of people (aged between 16 and pension age) who cannot go out to work because they are caring for a severely disabled person receiving an attendance allowance.

Physically disabled people unable or virtually unable to walk may be entitled to a tax-free mobility allowance to help to pay their transport costs. People aged between 5 and 65 are eligible for it.

An independent organisation called Motability assists those disabled drivers and disabled passengers wanting to use their mobility allowance to obtain a vehicle.

Unemployment Benefit

Unemployment benefit at the same rate as sickness benefit is payable for up to a year in any one spell of unemployment. Periods covered by unemployment or sickness benefit, maternity allowance or some training allowances, which are eight weeks or less apart, are linked to form one period of interruption of employment. Generally anyone claiming unemployment benefit has to be available for employment.

Death Grant

A death grant is payable on the death of a contributor or a contributor's near relative. It is normally £30 for an adult and a smaller sum for a child.

SUPPLEMEN-
TARY
BENEFIT

Supplementary benefit is payable to people of the age of 16 and over who are not in full-time work or at school and whose financial resources fall below a certain level. The amounts shown in the table are the weekly levels laid down for the requirements of married couples, single householders and others. The benefit payable amounts to the difference between a person's existing resources and these levels. The long-term rates apply to retirement pensioners and to those people below pensionable age who have received supplementary benefit continuously for one year, provided that the award is not subject to the condition of being available for employment. Families receiving supplementary benefit (as with family income supplement) are automatically entitled to a number of other benefits including free school meals, milk and vitamins for expectant mothers and for children under school age, and exemption from National Health Service prescription charges and charges for dental treatment and glasses.

Table 6: Supplementary Benefit

Category	£ Weekly rate
Ordinary rate	
<i>Husband and wife</i>	41·70
<i>Person living alone</i>	25·70
Any other person aged	
18 and over	20·55
16-17	15·80
11-15	13·15
Under 11 years	8·75
Long-term rate	
<i>Husband and wife</i>	52·30
<i>Person living alone</i>	32·70
Any other person aged	
18 and over	26·15
16-17 years	20·05

As part of its supplementary benefit responsibilities the Department of Health and Social Security runs resettlement units in which people without a settled way of living are provided with temporary board and lodging to help them to lead a more settled life. The Department also makes grants to voluntary organisations providing similar services. In addition, the Department runs re-establishment centres where men who have been unemployed for long periods and are receiving supplementary benefit are given help to fit them again for work.

FAMILY
INCOME
SUPPLEMENT

Family income supplement is a cash benefit for families with small incomes where the head of the family is in full-time work and where there is at least one dependent child. It is payable when the gross weekly income of a family falls below a prescribed amount, which varies according to the number of children in the family but is the same for single- and two-parent families.

'Full-time' work means, for the purpose of the benefit, work of at least 30 hours a week by the man in two-parent families or 24 hours a week for one-parent families. The weekly rate of the supplement is half the difference between the family's income and the prescribed amount, up to a maximum figure depending on the number of children in the family.

Table 7: Family Income Supplement

	£
	Weekly level
Prescribed amount for family with one child (income below which supplement is payable)	82.50
Increase in prescribed amount for each additional child	9.00
Maximum weekly amount for a one-child family	21.00
Increase in maximum amount for each additional child	2.00

WAR PENSIONS AND RELATED SERVICES

The war pensions scheme is administered throughout the United Kingdom by the Department of Health and Social Security. Pensions are payable to people disabled as a result of service in the armed forces or from certain injuries received in the merchant navy or civil defence during war-time, or to civilians injured by enemy action. The amount varies according to the degree of disablement and rank; an allowance is paid for dependants.

Table 8: War Pensions

	£
Category	Weekly rate
Disablement pensions	
<i>For a private at 100 per cent rate</i>	53.60
Unemployability allowances	
<i>Personal allowance</i>	34.85
<i>Wife or other adult dependant</i>	19.70
<i>Addition for each child</i>	7.95
<i>Comforts allowance</i>	4.65 or 9.30
<i>Allowance for lower standard of occupation (maximum)</i>	21.44
<i>Constant attendance allowance</i>	10.75 to 43.00
<i>Age allowance depending on degree of disability</i>	3.70 to 11.70
<i>Exceptionally severe disablement allowance</i>	21.50
<i>Severe disablement occupational allowance</i>	10.75
<i>Clothing allowance (per year)</i>	46.00 or 72.00
Death benefits	
<i>Widow's pension (private's widow)</i>	42.70
<i>Childless widow under 40</i>	9.86
<i>Rent allowance (maximum)</i>	16.25
Age allowance for elderly widows	
<i>Ages 65-69</i>	4.15
<i>Aged 70 and over</i>	8.30
Adult orphans	32.85

There is a wide range of supplementary allowances, the main ones being for unemployability, the need for constant attendance, the provision of extra comforts, and as a compensation for a lower standard of occupation. An age allowance is payable to disabled pensioners who are aged 65 or over and whose assessment is 40 per cent or more. Pensions are also paid to war widows and war orphans.

The Department of Health and Social Security maintains a welfare service for war pensioners, war widows and war orphans. It works closely with many voluntary and ex-Service organisations who give financial aid and personal help to disabled ex-Service men and women and their families.

TAXATION

Social security benefits, other than child, maternity, sickness, invalidity and disablement benefit, are included in the taxable income on which income tax is assessed. On the other hand various income tax reliefs and exemptions are allowed on account of age or liability for the support of dependants. Supplementary benefit (with the exception of that paid to the unemployed), family income supplement, attendance allowances, mobility allowance and war disability pensions including supplementary allowances, war widows' pensions and allowances are not taxable.

OTHER WELFARE BENEFITS

Other benefits for which people with low incomes may be eligible include legal aid and assistance (see p 122), housing benefits (comprising rent and rate rebates or allowances—see pp 66 and 166), exemption from health service charges (see p 125) and free school meals (see p 151).

EUROPEAN COMMUNITY

As part of the Community's efforts to promote the free movement of labour, there are regulations providing for equality of treatment and the protection of social security rights for employed and self-employed people working in another member state. The regulations also cover retirement pensioners and other beneficiaries who have been employed, or self-employed, as well as dependants. Benefits affected include child benefit and those for sickness and maternity, unemployment, retirement, invalidity, accidents at work and occupational diseases.

VOLUNTARY SERVICES

There is a long tradition of voluntary service to the community and the partnership between the voluntary and statutory agencies is encouraged. It has been estimated that about 5 million people take part in some voluntary work during the course of a year. Central and local government make grants to voluntary agencies, and public authorities plan and carry out their duties taking account of the work of voluntary organisations. Many services are provided by both local authorities and voluntary agencies, for example, residential care for elderly, disabled, mentally ill and mentally handicapped people and for children. Voluntary provision and community self-help, however, enable local authorities to continue the trend towards community rather than institutional care for elderly, mentally ill and mentally handicapped people. The Government is maintaining the real value of its grants to voluntary organisations amounting to around £125 million a year. Tax changes in the financial years 1980-81 and 1981-82 were designed to help the voluntary movement to secure a larger flow of funds.

Co-ordination of government interests in voluntary social service throughout Britain is the responsibility of the Home Office Voluntary Services Unit.

Many voluntary organisations are registered charities, and in England and Wales the Charity Commission, a government agency, gives free advice to trustees of charities, making schemes to modify their purposes or facilitate their administration when necessary.

Voluntary Organisations

There are thousands of voluntary organisations ranging from national bodies to small individual local groups; 'self-help' groups have been the most rapidly expanding part of the voluntary sector in the last decade—examples include play-groups, clubs which encourage their members to give up smoking or lose weight, and organisations run by members of the ethnic minorities. Many belong to larger associations or are represented on local or national co-ordinating councils or committees. Some are chiefly concerned with giving personal service, others in the formation of public opinion and exchange of information. Some carry out both functions. They may be staffed by both professional and voluntary workers.

The main voluntary body in England which aims to provide central links between voluntary organisations and official bodies is the National Council for Voluntary Organisations, which acts as a resource and development agency for the voluntary sector. It works to extend the involvement of voluntary organisations in dealing with social issues, to protect the interests and independence of voluntary agencies, and to provide them with a range of advice, information and other services. There are also the Scottish Council of Social Service, the Council of Social Service for Wales and the Northern Ireland Council of Social Service, which perform similar functions.

Specialist voluntary organisations concerned with personal and family problems include the family casework agencies like the Family Welfare Association, Family Service Units, and the National Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children; marriage guidance centres affiliated to the National Marriage Guidance Council; the National Council of Voluntary Child Care Organisations; the National Council for One Parent Families; Child Poverty Action Group and the Claimants' Union, both of which provide expert advice on social security benefits; and the Samaritans, who help the lonely, the depressed and the suicidal.

Community service of many kinds is given by young people; this is often channelled through national and local organisations such as Community Service Volunteers, Task Force, Scouts and Girl Guides.

Voluntary service to the sick and disabled is given by—among others—the British Red Cross Society, St John Ambulance, the Women's Royal Voluntary Service and the Leagues of Hospital Friends. Societies which help people with particular disabilities and difficulties include the Royal National Institute for the Blind, the Royal National Institute for the Deaf, the Royal Association for Disability and Rehabilitation, The Disabled Living Foundation, The Disablement Income Group, MIND (National Association for Mental Health), MENCAP (National Society for Mentally Handicapped Children), the Spastics Society, Alcoholics Anonymous, Age Concern, Help the Aged and their equivalents in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

National organisations whose work is specifically religious in inspiration include the Salvation Army, the Church Army, Toc H, the Committee on

Social Service of the Church of Scotland, the Church of England Children's Society, the Church of England Council for Social Aid, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Catholic Marriage Advisory Council and the Jewish Welfare Board.

A wide range of voluntary personal service is given by the Women's Royal Voluntary Service, which brings 'meals on wheels' to housebound invalids and old people, provides flatlets and residential clubs for the elderly, helps with family problems and assists in hospitals and clinics, and work in emergencies.

Over 900 Citizens Advice Bureaux give explanation and advice to people who are in doubt about their rights or who do not know about the state or voluntary services available. There are law centres (see p 122) and housing advisory centres in some areas.

British education aims to develop fully the abilities of individuals, both young and old, for their own benefit and that of society as a whole. The aim has assumed a new importance in an age of rapid technological change. Compulsory schooling for children takes place between the ages of 5 and 16, although some provision is made for those under 5, and many pupils remain at school beyond the minimum leaving age. Post-school education (mainly at universities, polytechnics and colleges of further and higher education) is organised flexibly to provide a wide range of opportunities for academic and vocational education and continuing study throughout life.

For many years British education has been characterised by change, and much of the post-1945 period has also been marked by growth: large increases in the number of pupils, the expansion of higher educational opportunities, and increased expenditure. Although the process of change continues, recent years have seen increasing reassessment and consolidation as well as a number of other significant developments, including the beginning of a substantial drop in the number of school children following a fall in the birth rate, and the need, because of economic circumstances, to reduce public expenditure. The number of primary school children has already fallen sharply, and the decline in numbers has begun to affect secondary schools, although this is partly offset by the greater numbers staying on at school because of the present high level of unemployment. It has led to a reduced demand for new teachers (although there is still a need for more teachers of certain specialised subjects) and teacher training has been reorganised to cope with the new situation while retaining flexibility for future expansion.

Policies

The Government's education policies are designed to increase parental choice and involvement in school organisation, to allow local authorities to organise publicly maintained schools according to local needs and to take up places for pupils at independent schools where appropriate, and to assist children from less well-off homes to benefit from attendance at certain non-maintained schools. The Government has issued guidance on the school curriculum in England and Wales, and consultations are taking place on the replacement of the dual system of examinations taken at about the age of 16 by a single system. A further plan under consideration is to provide pupils with a written record of school achievement and performance, which would be of particular benefit to those who leave school without formal qualifications. Other policies include the provision of better vocational education and training in schools and colleges for the 16-19 age group and the introduction, probably in 1985, of a new qualification for pupils aged 17 and over, mainly intended for those wanting to take jobs directly after leaving school or college. Consideration is also being given to the development of an intermediate level examination to broaden the scope of schools' sixth-form curricula. It is recognised that co-operation between education and industry can help the young to acquire the skills necessary to enable Britain to maintain its position as a leading exporter of manufactured goods. Many organisations already work to improve contacts between educational institutions and industry, and further links are being

encouraged, especially locally. A four-year Micro-Electronics Education Programme in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and a separate programme in Scotland aim to give young people a better understanding of the potential applications of micro-electronic technology through the commissioning of new development projects and by building on existing work.

More than four-fifths of education expenditure is incurred by local authorities, to which grants are made by central government, with the authorities planning their spending according to local needs and circumstances. Support for the universities and certain other higher education institutions, and grants to students, account for most of the direct expenditure by central government. Spending on education (some £13,700 million in 1981, about 7 per cent of the gross domestic product) amounts to more than 12 per cent of all public expenditure, but planned reductions in the years to 1983-84 have taken into account the declining number of school children and considerable savings in the provision of school meals and milk. In spite of cuts in expenditure, it is the Government's policy to maintain and improve the quality of education.

Administration

The Secretary of State for Education and Science is responsible for all aspects of education in England, and for the Government's relations with and support for universities throughout Great Britain. (He is also responsible for basic civil science, p 354.) The Secretaries of State for Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland have full responsibility in their respective countries for non-university education; they are consulted about (but do not carry formal responsibility for) education in universities and civil science.

Administration of publicly provided schools and further education is decentralised. Responsibilities are divided between the central government departments (the Department of Education and Science, the Welsh Office, the Scottish Education Department, and the Department of Education for Northern Ireland), local education authorities (education and library boards in Northern Ireland), and various voluntary organisations.

The provision of maintained school education and most post-school education outside the universities is the responsibility of local education authorities which decide local policy. They employ teachers and other staff, provide and maintain buildings, supply equipment and materials and, in England and Wales, provide grants to students proceeding to further and higher education. In Scotland the central institutions which provide most vocational further education to degree level, and colleges of education which provide teacher training, are administered by independent governing bodies. Apart from three central institutions financed by the Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland, these institutions and the colleges of education are financed directly by the Scottish Education Department which also pays grants to students on advanced courses. In Northern Ireland the Ulster Polytechnic (an institution of higher education) is likewise administered by an independent board of governors and financed directly by the Department of Education for Northern Ireland. Colleges of education are controlled by the Department or voluntary agencies.

SCHOOLS

Parents are required by law to see that their children receive efficient full-time education, at school or elsewhere, between the ages of 5 and 16.

Just under 11 million children attend Britain's 38,000 schools. Most receive free education financed from public funds, but a small proportion

(very roughly 6 per cent) attend schools wholly independent of public financial support.

Boys and girls are taught together in most primary schools and in an increasing number of secondary schools. Some 85 per cent of pupils in maintained secondary schools in England and Wales and nearly 62 per cent in Northern Ireland attend mixed schools. In Scotland nearly all secondary schools are mixed. Most independent schools for younger children are co-educational; the majority providing secondary education are single-sex, although the number of mixed schools is growing.

No fees are charged to parents of children at maintained schools, and books and equipment are free, although in Northern Ireland a small proportion of grammar school pupils is admitted on a fee-paying basis.

Management

Schools supported from public funds are of two main kinds in England and Wales: county schools and voluntary schools. County schools are provided and maintained by local education authorities wholly out of public funds. Voluntary schools, mostly established by religious denominations, are also wholly maintained from public funds but the governors of some types of voluntary school contribute to capital costs. Nearly a third of the 30,000 or so schools supported by public funds in England and Wales are voluntary schools, most of them Church of England or Roman Catholic. Each publicly maintained school has a governing body, which includes governors appointed by the local education authority. The Education Act 1980 provides for the wider representation of parents and teachers on school governing bodies; it is intended that all schools should have at least two parent and two teacher governors normally elected by parents and teachers. In Scotland most of the schools supported from public funds are provided by education authorities and are known as public schools (in England this term is used for a type of independent school, see p 148).

In Northern Ireland there are two main categories of school: voluntary schools which are mainly under Roman Catholic management receiving grants towards the capital running costs; and controlled schools owned and managed by the area education and library boards and having all their expenditure met from public funds. It is government policy to encourage integration between Protestant and Roman Catholic schools where there is a local desire for it.

Nursery and Primary Schools

Successive governments have expanded nursery education within the constraints of limited resources, and current plans allow for some further expansion, mainly by converting surplus primary school accommodation to nursery use. In England over half of four-year-olds and about a fifth of three-year-olds are receiving education in nursery schools or classes or in infants' classes in primary schools. In addition many children attend informal pre-school playgroups organised by parents and voluntary bodies.

Compulsory education begins at five when children in England and Wales go to infant schools or departments; at seven they go on to junior schools or departments. The usual age of transfer from primary to secondary schools is 11 in England, Wales and Northern Ireland, but a number of local authorities in England have established 'first' schools for pupils aged 5 to 8 or 10 and 'middle' schools covering various age ranges between 9 and 14. In Scotland the primary schools take children from 5 to 12, normally having infant classes for children under 7, although in a few areas there are separate infant schools.

Secondary Schools

The publicly maintained system of education aims to give all children an education suited to their particular abilities. Over 82 per cent of the maintained secondary school population in England and Wales attend comprehensive schools which take pupils without reference to ability or aptitude and provide a wide range of secondary education for all or most of the children of a district. They can be organised in a number of ways including schools that take the full secondary school age-range from 11 to 18; middle schools whose pupils move on to senior comprehensive schools at 12, 13 or 14, leaving at 16 or 18; and schools with an age-range of 11 or 12 to 16 combined with a sixth-form or 'tertiary' college for pupils over 16. Most other children receive secondary education in 'grammar' and 'secondary modern' schools to which they are allocated after selection procedures at the age of 11.

In England, Wales and Scotland parents have a statutory right to express a preference for a particular school for their children, and have an effective channel of appeal at local level. Schools also have to publish their public examination results and basic information about themselves. An assisted-places scheme enables children from less well-off homes who are capable of benefiting from the education provided to attend certain independent secondary schools belonging to the scheme, by means of government grant depending on parents' income.

Scottish secondary education is almost completely comprehensive; almost all pupils are in schools with a non-selective intake. The majority of schools are six-year comprehensives. Because of local circumstances there are some comprehensive schools at which courses may extend to four years or less; pupils may transfer at the end of their second or fourth years to a six-year comprehensive.

Northern Ireland secondary education is organised largely along selective lines according to children's abilities.

Independent Schools

Independent schools are outside the publicly supported sector but are open to inspection and must register with the appropriate government education department which can require them to remedy features in their premises, accommodation or instruction and to exclude anyone regarded as unsuitable to teach in or to be the proprietor of a school.

There are about 2,500 registered independent schools catering for pupils of all ages. The largest and most important are the public schools,¹ which accept pupils at about 12 or 13 years of age usually on the basis of a fairly demanding examination. There are about 500 public schools in England and Wales, most of them single-sex (about half of them for girls) and at least partly boarding. Local education authorities in England and Wales may assist with the payment of fees for children at independent and other non-maintained schools, and there is also the Government's assisted-places scheme (see above). A number of preparatory schools prepare children for entry to the public schools.

Special Educational Needs

The special education system is based on the concept of meeting the special educational needs of the individual child. 'Special educational needs' embrace learning difficulties arising from emotional or behavioural disorders as well as physical or mental handicap. Local education authorities

¹ 'Public schools' are usually taken to mean those schools in membership of the Headmasters' Conference, the Governing Bodies Association or the Governing Bodies of Girls' Schools Association. They should not be confused with the state-supported public schools in Scotland.

must ensure that children with special needs are educated in ordinary schools provided that the parents' wishes have been taken into account and that this is compatible with meeting their needs, with the provision of efficient education for the other children in the school, and with the best use of resources.

There are some 1,600 special schools (both day and boarding), including those run by voluntary organisations, which cater for a wide variety of handicap.

Teachers

Teachers in publicly maintained schools are appointed by local education authorities or school governing bodies. There are more than 500,000 teachers (including the full-time equivalent of part-time teachers) in publicly maintained and assisted schools in Britain and the pupil/teacher ratio in primary and secondary schools is about 19 to 1. Teachers must hold qualifications approved by the appropriate education department.

The Curriculum

In England and Wales the secular curriculum in maintained schools is the responsibility of the local education authority, and of the schools' governors. In practice, responsibility is largely devolved upon head teachers and their staff. The Government has published guidance recommending a wider programme of work for primary and secondary school pupils, to ensure a balanced education and to widen educational opportunities as much as possible. It states that secondary school pupils up to the age of 16 should follow a broad curriculum including English, mathematics and science, religious and physical education, some study of the humanities and opportunities for both practical and aesthetic activities. Most pupils should also study a modern language. In Wales, the Welsh language is taught and is used as either the main or secondary medium of teaching in some schools. Her Majesty's Inspectors review and report on the content and value of the education provided in all schools, including independent schools, and advise local education authorities, schools and the Government. Local education authorities also employ inspectors or advisers to guide them on maintained schools. Curriculum materials and guidance and encouragement for school-based research and development are available to teachers through the independent Schools Council for Curriculum and Examinations (there are plans to replace the Council with two separate bodies to deal respectively with the curriculum and examinations). The Schools Council Committee for Wales carries out similar functions. At some 500 teachers' centres in England and Wales teachers meet for curriculum development work, discussion and in-service training.

In Scotland the function of Her Majesty's Inspectors is in general the same as in England and Wales; the content and balance of the curriculum is kept under continuous review by the Consultative Committee on the Curriculum. Provision is made, where appropriate, for the teaching of Gaelic. Northern Ireland has a Council for Educational Development which is responsible for developing the curriculum; the Inspectorate of the Department of Education helps and advises teachers and inspects and evaluates the work of all schools.

Religious Education in Schools

In England and Wales by law all children in county or voluntary schools receive religious instruction and take part in a daily corporate act of worship unless their parents choose otherwise. In county schools, and sometimes in voluntary schools, non-denominational religious instruction is given which may include the study of comparative religions. In all kinds of

voluntary schools there is opportunity for denominational instruction. In Scotland religious instruction must be given, but the content is determined by education authorities and the schools in accordance with the wishes of the local community. Certain schools provide for Roman Catholic children but in all schools there are safeguards for the individual conscience. In controlled schools in Northern Ireland clergy have a right of access which may be used for denominational instruction; in voluntary schools corporate worship and religious education are controlled by the management authorities.

Educational Standards

There is general concern that there should be an effective means of assessing the standards of pupils' performance. The Assessment of Performance Unit of the Department of Education and Science promotes the development of methods of assessment and monitors the achievement of school children. Annual monitoring is now being undertaken in language and mathematics at the ages of 11 and 15, and in science at the ages of 11, 13 and 15. Monitoring of the first foreign language is expected to begin in 1983. New assessment techniques are also being developed in Scotland.

Educational Aids

In most schools teachers and pupils use a range of aids to assist the processes of teaching and learning, and educational broadcasting is of major importance. Almost all schools can receive radio and television programmes. In addition the British Broadcasting Corporation produces radiovision programmes which, in effect, are low cost tape/slide units. Teachers' notes and pupils' pamphlets accompany many broadcast series. Each year more than 600 hours of school radio and 1,000 hours of school television are transmitted by the BBC and the independent broadcasting companies.

Computers are increasingly available and children are becoming familiar with their use and applications. Teachers use them in their own work, including the planning of timetables and the management of courses. It is the Government's aim that every secondary school should have its own micro-computer by the end of 1982, and every primary school by the end of 1984.

Secondary School Examinations

The principal examinations taken by secondary school pupils in England and Wales at the age of 16 and over are those leading to the General Certificate of Education (GCE) at Ordinary ('O') level and to the Certificate of Secondary Education (CSE). Both are normally taken after five years of secondary education. The GCE Advanced ('A') level is normally taken after a further two years' study. Entries for GCE examinations are also accepted from private candidates and those attending further education establishments.

The highest grade in the CSE is widely accepted as being of the same standard as at least grade C at GCE 'O' level, and these are the qualifying grades for entry to further education and training. The 'A' level examination is the standard for entrance to university and other higher education, and to many forms of professional training. The Government has proposed that the present system should be reformed by replacing the 'O' level and CSE with a single system of examining at the age of 16 and over. The 'A' level examinations will remain.

In Scotland school pupils in the fourth year of secondary courses sit an examination at 16 years for the Ordinary grade of the Scottish Certificate of Education, and pupils in the fifth or sixth year for the Higher grade. Passes

at the Higher grade are the basis for entry to university or professional training. For those who have completed their main studies at the Higher grade but wish to continue their studies in particular subjects there is a Certificate of Sixth Year Studies.

In Northern Ireland candidates may take the Northern Ireland General Certificate of Education or the Northern Ireland Certificate of Secondary Education, which are equivalent to those examinations in England and Wales.

The International Baccalaureate, offered to sixth formers by several educational institutions in Britain, leads either to a diploma or to separate subject certificates, the diploma being recognised for admission to higher education in Britain and many other countries.

Physical education, including organised games, is part of the curriculum of all maintained schools, and playing fields must be available for pupils over the age of eight. Most secondary schools have a gymnasium.

The government health departments are responsible for the medical inspection of school children and for advice on and treatment of specific medical and dental problems associated with children of school age.

Local education authorities have discretion to decide what milk, meals or other refreshment to provide at their schools, and what charges to make. Provision has to be made free of charge, however, for pupils from families receiving certain social security benefits. Under certain conditions the authorities must provide free school transport, and they have discretionary powers to assist financially in the provision of transport for pupils between their home and school.

Local education authorities are responsible for the provision of school buildings, under the general supervision of the central departments. Since 1945 an extensive school building programme has been carried out, together with extensions, alterations and remodelling of existing schools.

Post-school education for young people above school-leaving age is provided at all levels and may be part-time or full-time, vocational or non-vocational.

More than a third of young people receive some form of post-school education, compared with a fifth in 1965. The Government is making additional provision to meet the cost of a large expansion in the number of young people expected to stay on in full-time education. Further education is usually taken to refer to all post-school education outside the universities. Higher education (postgraduate, first degree and similar level work) is provided at universities and on advanced courses at polytechnics and other establishments of higher and further education.

The principal institutions of post-school education are the 46 universities (see p 153); the 30 polytechnics in England and Wales and the 14 Scottish central institutions; the Ulster Polytechnic in Northern Ireland; and some 760 other colleges which are maintained or assisted from public funds.

In addition, there are many independent specialist establishments, such as secretarial and correspondence colleges and colleges teaching English as a foreign language; a number of voluntary and private bodies providing cultural and general education, sometimes with assistance from local education authorities; and a large number of other education and training schemes run by public or private organisations.

Health and Welfare of School Children

School Building

POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION

Institutions

Finance

Most establishments for post-school education are either maintained or assisted from public funds. Some undertake training, research or consultancy for commercial firms, making charges which broadly reflect the economic cost of provision, and a number have endowments or receive grants or gifts from foundations and benefactors.

Although the Government is responsible for financing well over 80 per cent of universities' expenditure, the universities are guaranteed as autonomous institutions by a special financial arrangement. A block grant is paid to the University Grants Committee which allocates funds to the universities, the London Graduate School of Business Studies and the Manchester Business School. The Department of Education and Science finances directly the Open University (see p 153), the Royal College of Art and the Cranfield Institute of Technology. The independent University College at Buckingham receives no assistance from public funds although its students can apply for mandatory grants (see below). The Northern Ireland Department of Education makes grants direct to the universities on recommendations from the University Grants Committee.

Funds are provided by the Government to local authorities for advanced courses in polytechnics and other colleges of further education. A National Advisory Body for Local Authority Higher Education has been set up to make recommendations on the allocation of resources in England in future years.

Students

Some 885,000 students take full-time and sandwich courses (courses where substantial periods of full-time study alternate with periods of supervised experience on a relevant job) at universities and major establishments of further education in Britain (1980-81 figures). Of these about 307,000 are at universities while another 228,000 follow advanced courses outside universities, at colleges of further and higher education, polytechnics and Scottish central institutions. More than 350,000 take non-advanced courses, most of them studying for recognised vocational or educational qualifications.

In addition, there are about 3.1 million part-time students, over 630,200 of whom are released by their employers for further education during working hours. Many of the remainder take part in adult education classes (see p 155).

Many full-time students are helped by grants from public funds which are mandatory for most students taking first degree and other comparable courses who qualify under national rules. (Grants for other courses may be given at the discretion of a local education authority.) Grants cover tuition fees and maintenance, but where parents can afford to contribute this is taken into account. They are awarded by local education authorities in England and Wales up to first degree level; in Scotland they are made by the Scottish Education Department; and in Northern Ireland by education and library boards. For postgraduate study and research grants are offered by the education departments and the research councils. In all, over 90 per cent of students on full-time and sandwich advanced courses receive help from public funds. Some scholarships are available from endowments and from particular industries or companies.

Higher Education

Following rapid expansion higher education is moving into a period of consolidation. In order to reduce public expenditure on this form of education while maintaining high standards with the resources available,

some restructuring of courses and departments has been necessary. Some 7.5 per cent of 18-year-olds enter courses of higher education. About 442,500 full-time and sandwich course students and over 314,200 part-time students follow courses at a variety of institutions.

Universities

There are 46 universities in Britain, including the Open University, compared with 17 in 1945.

The English universities are: Aston (Birmingham), Bath, Birmingham, Bradford, Bristol, Brunel (London), Cambridge, City (London), Durham, East Anglia, Essex, Exeter, Hull, Keele, Kent at Canterbury, Lancaster, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, London, Loughborough, Manchester, Manchester Institute of Science and Technology, Newcastle upon Tyne, Nottingham, Oxford, Reading, Salford, Sheffield, Southampton, Surrey, Sussex, Warwick, and York. The London Graduate School of Business Studies and the Manchester Business School also have university status. The federated University of Wales comprises seven constituent institutions. The Scottish universities are: Aberdeen, Dundee, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Heriot-Watt (Edinburgh), St Andrews, Stirling, and Strathclyde (Glasgow). In Northern Ireland there are the Queen's University of Belfast and the New University of Ulster in Coleraine.

The universities of Oxford and Cambridge date from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and the Scottish universities of St Andrews, Glasgow, Aberdeen and Edinburgh from the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. All the other universities were founded in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Admission to universities is by examination or by selection. Of the 307,000 full-time university students in 1980-81, over 48,000 were postgraduate. About a half lived in colleges and halls of residence.

There were about 34,000 full-time university teachers paid wholly from university funds. The ratio of staff to students was about one to seven, one of the most favourable in the world.

Except at the Open University, first degree courses are mainly full-time and usually last three or four years, though medical and veterinary courses usually require five or six.

Degree titles vary according to the practice of each university; in England, Wales and Northern Ireland the most common titles for a first degree are Bachelor of Arts (BA) or Bachelor of Science (BSc) and for a second degree Master of Arts (MA), Master of Science (MSc), and Doctor of Philosophy (PhD); in Scotland Master is used for a first degree in arts subjects. On the other hand, uniformity of standards between universities is promoted by the practice of employing outside examiners for all university examinations, and the general pattern of teaching is fairly similar throughout Britain.

The independent University College at Buckingham, which opened in 1976, does not yet award degrees, but its Licence has been accepted as the equivalent of a degree by relevant professional bodies and by other universities for admission to postgraduate studies.

The Open University

The Open University is a non-residential university which provides part-time degree and other courses, using a combination of television and radio broadcasts, correspondence texts and summer schools, together with a network of viewing and listening centres. No formal academic qualifications are required to register for these courses, but the standards of its degrees are

the same as those of other universities. The university's first degree, the BA (Open), is a general degree awarded on a system of credits for each course completed. The first courses began in 1971, and in 1982 some 60,000 undergraduate and over 30,000 associate students were following courses. The university has advised many other countries on the setting-up of similar institutions.

Teacher Training

In England and Wales all new entrants to teaching must generally have taken a recognised course of teacher training. Courses are offered by most universities and by many polytechnics and other institutions of higher education. Non-graduates usually qualify by way of a three- or four-year course leading to the Bachelor of Education degree; graduates take a one-year postgraduate Certificate of Education.

In response to the change in demand for newly trained teachers, caused by restrictions on public expenditure and the decline in the size of the school population, the number of training places has been considerably cut. However, because of a shortage of qualified teachers of mathematics, science, craft, design and technology, special financial arrangements are being offered to encourage suitably qualified mature people to undertake one-year training courses to enter the profession. Teachers qualified in other subjects are also encouraged to retrain to teach one or more of these subjects.

In Scotland all teachers in education authority schools must be registered with the General Teaching Council for Scotland and all teachers of academic subjects in secondary schools must be graduates. College of education courses lead to the award of a Teaching Qualification (Primary Education or Secondary Education). Graduates and holders of specialist diplomas take a one-year course; courses in practical and aesthetic subjects for non-graduates extend to two, three or four years. Most Scottish colleges of education also offer four-year courses leading to the degree of Bachelor of Education. In Northern Ireland teacher training takes place in the two university education departments, three colleges of education, the Ulster Polytechnic and one technical college. The principal courses are the certificate (for three years) and the Bachelor of Education (four years) but there are also one-year courses for graduates or holders of other appropriate qualifications.

Other Advanced Courses

In 1980-81 about 430,200 students, including part-time students, were taking advanced courses other than in universities in a wide variety of subjects, including architecture, art and design, catering, engineering, natural sciences, social work, business and management studies and teacher training. An increasing proportion of the students were taking courses leading to the awards of the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). The Council awards degrees and other academic qualifications comparable in standard with those granted by universities. The courses range from science and technology to the arts, social studies, business studies and law, but the proportion of technological, business or other broadly vocational courses is much higher than in universities.

In England and Wales a major contribution to higher education is made by the 30 polytechnics which provide courses on a wide range of subjects at all levels, though the trend is towards a concentration on advanced work. In Scotland similar provision is made in the 14 central institutions and a few further education colleges, though the tendency to specialise in particular

subjects is greater than in the polytechnics. In Northern Ireland such higher education provision is concentrated within the Ulster Polytechnic.

The institutes and colleges of higher education, formed by the integration of teacher training with the rest of higher education, account for a significant proportion of higher education students, and other further education colleges run some, usually specialised, higher education courses. Full-time or part-time vocational courses leading to nationally recognised qualifications are available in further education colleges, polytechnics and other establishments of further education.

The City and Guilds of London Institute offers qualifications in a wide range of craft and vocational subjects. At technician level the Technician Education Council (TEC) is developing a unified national system of courses leading to awards at two levels: certificate and diploma; and higher certificate and diploma. Many further education colleges also offer courses in shorthand, typing, book-keeping, and office studies. More advanced business studies are generally available in polytechnics and some other colleges. The further education sector makes a major contribution to management education at all levels.

Much business education is related to the specialised examination requirements of various professional bodies, and courses leading to them are provided in many colleges, although numbers of candidates seeking qualifications do so through correspondence courses. The Business Education Council (BEC) is developing a system of unified national vocational courses in business studies and public administration at three levels: general, national and higher national certificate and diploma. (The highest awards of the TEC and BEC approach pass degree standard.) The Scottish equivalents of the councils are the Scottish Technical Education Council and the Scottish Business Education Council.

Adult and Continuing Education

The scope of adult and continuing education has widened over recent years and now includes, in addition to the development of the individual through cultural, physical and craft pursuits, such subjects as remedial education (for example, in literacy and numeracy); education for disadvantaged groups and those with special needs; consumer education; health education; and the appreciation of new technologies. This merges into re-training for those in employment, to which increasing attention is being paid, to keep pace with technological change. Courses are provided by local education authorities, residential colleges, extra-mural departments of universities, the Open University and various other bodies including a number of voluntary organisations.

Most of the provision for adult and continuing education is made by the local education authorities in a wide variety of establishments, including schools used for adult evening classes and in some cases in 'community schools' which provide educational, social and cultural opportunities for the wider community. Most courses are part-time. Local authorities maintain or aid most of the short-term residential colleges or centres which provide courses lasting between a weekend and a fortnight.

Long-term residential colleges, grant-aided by central government departments, provide courses of one or two years. They aim to provide a liberal education without academic entry tests. Most students admitted are entitled to full maintenance grants.

University extra-mural departments and the Workers' Educational Association (WEA), the largest recognised voluntary body, provide

extended part-time courses of more academic studies, as well as short courses organised for special (including vocational) interests. Often the WEA provides the organisation and the universities the tutors.

Many other organisations, national and local, provide many kinds of education and training. Several, such as the National Federation of Women's Institutes, the National Union of Townswomen's Guilds, and the National Council of Young Men's Christian Associations, receive government grants; others are commercially or privately financed.

The National Institute of Adult Education is a centre of information, research and publication for adult education, as well as a channel of co-operation and consultation for the many interested organisations in England and Wales. Mainly financed by local education authorities and a government grant, the Institute administers the government-funded Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit which covers proficiency in areas such as numeracy and communication, as well as literacy. The Institute's counterpart in Scotland is the Scottish Institute of Adult Education.

The Department of Education and Science has established an Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education to advise on current practice and to promote the development of future policies. There are similar councils in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Teaching Methods

The general pattern of teaching and learning on full-time courses at universities and colleges remains a mixture of lectures, prescribed or suggested reading, seminars or tutorials, exercises and tests, and, where appropriate, practical work. Educational aids are widely available at most universities, polytechnics and colleges.

Radio and television programmes, both specifically educational and general, are important media for continuing education and are often linked to a range of supplementary publications, courses and activities. BBC radio study programmes are transmitted late at night on weekdays and on Sunday afternoons. Educational television programmes are shown on Saturday and Sunday mornings, during the day on weekdays with some early and late evening transmissions. Both the BBC and independent television provide programmes which range from basic education and progressive vocational training to domestic, social and craft skills. The BBC also works with the Open University (see p 153), producing and broadcasting radio and television programmes as part of the courses.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Research into the theory and practice of education and the organisation of educational services is supported financially by central and local government, philanthropic organisations, universities and teachers' associations. Some research is also sponsored at further education institutions and by a few independent organisations. The Schools Council (see p 149) and the Social Science Research Council are important channels for government support.

The major research institute outside the universities is the autonomous National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales, with income mainly from funds received from research projects and from corporate members, including local education authorities, teachers' organisations and universities. It receives an annual government grant. There are also the Scottish Council for Research in Education and the Northern Ireland Council for Educational Research.

**EDUCATIONAL
LINKS
OVERSEAS**

School children, students, teachers and others concerned with education come to Britain from overseas to study and British people work and train overseas. Many opportunities for such movement are the result of international co-operation at government level within the European Community and within the Commonwealth, and of educational schemes, courses and professional contacts organised in Britain by officially funded and voluntary organisations. The British aid programme also encourages links between educational institutions in Britain and in developing countries.

British membership of the European Community is creating closer ties with other countries. Both in schools and in the colleges and universities there has been an expansion of interest in European studies and languages. Exchanges of teachers, school children and students take place. Britain has adhered to the Statute of the European Schools (nine of which have been established throughout the Community including one at Culham, Oxfordshire) to provide school education for children of people employed in Community institutions. Particular attention is being paid to foreign language learning, the language and other educational needs of migrants and their children, the relationship between education and working life and policies of admission to higher education in member countries.

**Educational
Exchanges**

The promotion of cultural and educational relations with other countries is a major concern of the British Council (see p 70), which plays an important part in the management of the aid programme to education. It recruits teachers for work overseas, organises short visits overseas by British experts, and encourages cultural exchange visits. It is also responsible for schemes to promote academic interchange, including the Academic Links and Interchange Scheme between universities and higher education institutions in Britain and other countries, and schemes to encourage exchanges in other scientific, educational and cultural areas. The promotion of co-operation between universities in Britain and developing countries is undertaken by means of staff recruitment, the secondment of staff from British universities, inter-departmental faculty link schemes, local staff development, short-term teaching and advisory visits, and general consultancy services.

The Central Bureau for Educational Visits and Exchanges, an independent foundation financed by the Government, aims to enrich British education through international contact and exchange. It is responsible, with the League for the Exchange of Commonwealth Teachers, for teacher exchanges with most West European countries, a number of Commonwealth countries and the United States. It arranges links and exchanges between schools, further education establishments and local authorities, and organises study visits for teachers, education administrators, and young workers. It also administers the language assistants scheme in Britain and develops opportunities for exchange in special areas such as sport and the performing arts, as well as between disabled people.

The Association of Commonwealth Universities promotes co-operation between member universities in 28 Commonwealth countries. It organises meetings, provides information and academic appointments services, administers the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan in Britain, and generally promotes the movement of academic and administrative staff and of students from one country to another.

The Commonwealth Education Liaison Committee supplements normal

direct dealings on education between the countries of the Commonwealth. The United Kingdom Council for Overseas Student Affairs is an independent body serving overseas students and organisations and individuals concerned in student affairs.

Overseas Students in Britain

Students come to Britain from countries throughout the world to study at universities or other educational institutions or for professional training. In the academic year 1980–81 there were some 31,500 overseas students at universities and about 39,600 at polytechnics and other establishments of higher and further education. In addition, others (around 34,500) were training for such occupations as nursing, law, banking and accountancy, industry and services. About 41 per cent of all overseas students were from the Commonwealth and 70 per cent from developing countries.

Many come to Britain for advanced training. Of the 48,000 students enrolled for full-time postgraduate study or research at British universities in 1980, 33 per cent came from overseas. Of those working for a master's degree 41 per cent came from overseas and of those working for a doctorate 33 per cent. British universities, polytechnics and other further education establishments have built up their reputation overseas by providing tuition of the highest standards, maintaining low student-to-staff ratios, and adopting courses and qualifications to meet present-day and possible future needs. First degree courses tend to be shorter and more intensive than in many countries (three years is the minimum length; two for the University College at Buckingham Licence).

The majority of overseas students pay their own fees and expenses or hold awards from their own governments. In addition, over 9,400 overseas students were fully supported in 1981 under British technical co-operation with developing countries. New students from overseas in higher and further education are charged at the level the institutions consider necessary to meet the cost of study subject to a minimum figure. Students from other member countries of the European Community are charged the lower level of fees that applies to British students. There is, however, a scheme to provide financial help for overseas research students of high ability.

Many public and private scholarships and fellowships are available to students from overseas (and to British students who want to study overseas). Among the best known are the British Council Scholarships, the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan, the Marshall Scholarships, the independently funded Rhodes Scholarships, and the Churchill Scholarships for men and women in all walks of life. Most British universities and colleges offer scholarships for which graduates of any nationality are eligible. (The British Council and the Association of Commonwealth Universities are involved in the selection of British students for awards offered by many overseas countries.) The Atlantic College at St Donat's, South Wales (one of the colleges of the United World Colleges), provides two-year residential courses for overseas students before they enter university.

The Teaching of English

The continuing increase in interest in English as a foreign language is reflected in the growth of the number of private language schools and the larger proportion of these recognised by the British Council. At the same time the British Council has greatly expanded the volume of its own teaching of English overseas by opening new centres in many countries and

extending existing ones. Publications and other material relating to English language teaching have also increased in number and are now a large component in publishers' lists, constituting a major export.

The BBC's English by Radio and Television Service provides a world-wide facility for the individual learner at home.

THE YOUTH SERVICE

The aim of the youth service is to promote the social and informal education of young people by offering them opportunities in their leisure time to mix socially, to develop and enlarge their range of interests and to support their development to adulthood. The service is provided by a partnership between public authorities and a large variety of voluntary organisations. Membership of groups is voluntary and there is no attempt to create anything in the nature of a national youth movement.

The youth service forms part of the education system. Government education departments formulate broad policy objectives for the service and encourage their achievement through financial assistance and advice.

Local education authorities provide and run their own youth clubs and centres (some of which are residential) which may be purpose-built or associated with schools. They also assist local voluntary youth groups by lending premises and equipment and by contributing to their capital and running costs. Many authorities have youth committees on which official and voluntary bodies are represented, and employ youth officers to co-ordinate youth work and to arrange in-service training. There are also youth councils which are representative bodies of young people from local youth organisations.

National voluntary organisations promote the larger share of youth activities through local groups which raise most of their day-to-day running expenses by their own efforts. These have an estimated combined membership of over 6 million. They vary greatly in character, some concentrating on social and recreational pursuits, others on educational or religious activities. Most national organisations in England are members of the National Council for Voluntary Youth Services, a consultative body. In Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland there are similar representative bodies.

Among the largest of the voluntary youth organisations are the Scout and Girl Guides Associations (with about 644,000 and 892,000 members), the National Association of Youth Clubs (about 615,000), the National Association of Boys' Clubs (some 200,000), the Youth Hostels Association (about 309,000) and clubs run by the churches. The three pre-service organisations (the Sea Cadet Corps, Army Cadet Force and Air Training Corps), with a membership of some 142,000, combine social, educational and physical development with training for possible entry to the armed forces.

Youth Workers

Full-time youth workers are supported by over 400,000 part-time workers, many of them unpaid. Part-time workers usually have no professional qualification in youth work but some have allied qualifications, for instance as teachers, and a large number attend short courses and conferences on youth work. Qualified school teachers are recognised as qualified youth workers.

In England and Wales a basic two-year training course at certain universities and higher education colleges leads to the status of qualified youth and community worker. A number of colleges of higher education include study of youth work within teacher-training courses. In Scotland one- and three-year courses are provided at certain colleges of education and in Northern Ireland courses are provided by the Ulster Polytechnic.

Other Organisations Concerned with Young People

A substantial sum of money is awarded by the many grant-giving foundations and trusts each year for activities involving young people. The Royal Jubilee Trusts, formed in 1978 from King George's Jubilee Trust (started in 1935 at the time of the Silver Jubilee of King George V) and the Queen's Silver Jubilee Trust, which arose from the 1977 Queen's Silver Jubilee Appeal, support work involving young people aged 8 to 18 (King George's Jubilee Trust) and young people up to the age of 25 involved in community service work (the Queen's Silver Jubilee Trust). King George's Jubilee Trust has distributed over £4.5 million since 1935 and the Queen's Silver Jubilee Trust over £6 million since May 1978.

The Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme, which operates through bodies such as local authorities, schools, youth organisations and industrial firms, is a challenge for young people from Britain and other Commonwealth countries to reach certain standards in leisure-time activities with the voluntary assistance of adults.

Voluntary Service by Young People

Thousands of young people voluntarily take part in community service designed to assist those in need, including the elderly and the disabled, and many others work on conservation projects. Organisations providing opportunities for community service such as International Voluntary Service, Task Force and Community Service Volunteers receive grants from the Government. Many schools also organise community service activities as part of the curriculum.

The Community Projects Foundation is an independent body which advises interested organisations in England and Wales on methods of involving young people in providing service to the community. The Foundation receives a government grant and employs teams of young people who are available on request to assist in promoting voluntary service.

THE ENVIRONMENT

By comprehensive land-use planning and development control Britain has had considerable success in resolving the conflicting demands of industry, commerce, housing, transport, agriculture and recreation and in reducing environmental pollution. There is no 'national plan' for urban and land development, but there is a statutory system of land-use planning applying over the whole country and to virtually every kind of development, and there are laws dealing specifically with environmental health and the control of pollution. All development requires local 'planning permission', and applications for permission are dealt with in the light of development plans which set out strategies for each area on such matters as housing, transport, industry and open land. The underlying approach is to identify people's needs and possible ways of meeting them, and there is a growing move away from narrow land-use allocation towards broader strategic planning recognising the community's social and economic goals. Throughout Britain voluntary organisations, too, take an active interest in planning, conservation and the control of pollution.

The system of land-use planning in Great Britain involves a centralised structure under the Secretaries of State for the Environment, Wales and Scotland, and compulsory planning duties for local planning authorities. The Department of the Environment brings together the major responsibilities in England for land-use planning, housing and construction, countryside policy and environmental protection. The Welsh Office and the Scottish Development Department have broadly equivalent responsibilities. Large-scale planning in England and Wales is primarily the responsibility of the county councils and the Greater London Council while district councils and the councils of the London boroughs and the City of London are responsible for most local plans and development control, the main housing functions and many other environmental health matters. In Scotland, planning functions are undertaken by regional and district councils whose responsibilities are divided on a basis broadly similar to that in England and Wales. In the more rural regions and the islands, all planning responsibilities are carried out by the regional and islands councils respectively. In Northern Ireland the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland is responsible for planning matters through its local offices which work closely with the district councils. The councils have local environmental health responsibilities.

General problems of industrial development are dealt with jointly by a number of government departments, but each development scheme, as a rule, requires the local planning authority's consent. Financial incentives encourage the location of industry in particular areas (see p 205).

The Plans

The development plan system in England and Wales involves 'structure' and 'local' plans. Structure plans are prepared by county planning authorities and require ministerial consent. They set out broad policies for the development and other use of land (including measures for the improve-

ment of the physical environment and traffic management). Local plans containing detailed proposals, including plans for 'action areas' where comprehensive development is expected to start within a specified period, are normally prepared by district planning authorities, although sometimes by county planning authorities, and must conform generally to the approved structure plan. In exceptional cases, with ministerial approval, the adoption of a local plan may precede that of a structure plan. Local plans are adopted by the planning authorities without being subject to ministerial approval unless the Secretary of State calls in a plan for his own decision. All plans are under continuous review and may be altered from time to time. Scotland has a broadly similar system which can also include the production of a regional report by regional and islands authorities, outlining their priorities and policies. In Northern Ireland there is a single-tier system; plans are prepared by the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland.

Public Participation

Members of the public and interested organisations are given an opportunity to express their views on the planning of their areas during the formative stages of the structure and local plans. The local planning authorities must ensure adequate publicity for matters proposed for inclusion in the plans; representations may be made about them to the authorities. These opportunities for public participation are additional to provisions for objecting to prepared plans. In the case of structure plans the Secretary of State holds an examination in public of matters on which he requires more information in order to reach a decision. In the case of local plans objectors have a right to be heard, and a public local inquiry is normally held by the planning authorities.

Where specific proposals for development differ substantially from the intentions of a development plan, they must be publicised locally. Other schemes affecting a large number of people are usually advertised by the local planning authority and applications seeking permission for certain types of development must also be advertised. The applicant has a right of appeal to the Secretary of State if planning permission is refused or granted subject to conditions. Most appeals are transferred for decision to inspectors (in Scotland reporters) appointed by the Secretary of State.

The Secretary of State can direct that a planning application be referred to him for decision. This power is exercised sparingly and usually only in respect of proposals of national or regional importance, for example, the inquiry being held into the proposal to site the third London airport at Stansted in Essex. The applicant has the right to be heard by a person appointed by the Secretary of State and a public inquiry is normally held for this purpose. In the case of development schemes of national or regional importance or of a technical or scientific nature, and if an ordinary inquiry is inadequate for the purpose, the ministers responsible may decide to set up planning inquiry commissions to carry out investigations and hold inquiries locally. Where highway development is proposed, the government minister concerned can hold such inquiries as he considers appropriate; these generally relate to the compulsory acquisition of land.

Similar provision is made in Northern Ireland for public participation in the planning process and for the hearing of objections. There is a right of appeal to an independent Planning Appeals Commission.

For certain planning purposes England is divided into eight regions,

each with a planning board. Wales and Scotland each have an Economic Planning Board and Northern Ireland has an Economic Council.

HOUSING

The significant general improvement in housing supply and conditions during the last 30 years has resulted, in national terms, in a slight excess of supply over demand, while needs and problems have become increasingly specific and local. The emphasis of public sector housing policy is being shifted from new building to modernisation, improvement and making better use of the existing stock. In the private sector encouragement of home ownership and of rented housing are central policy aims.

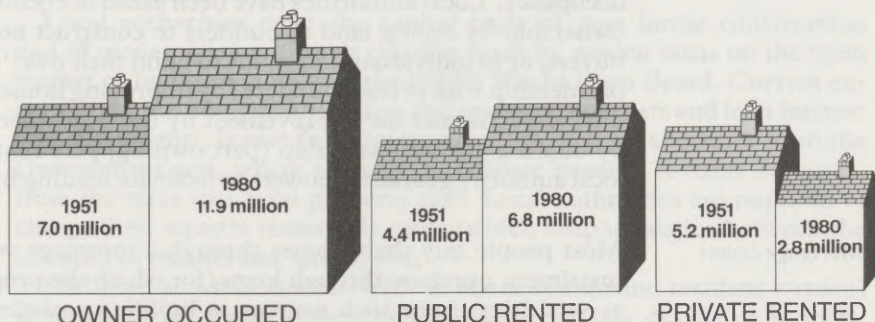
Housing Characteristics

There are over 21 million dwellings, houses being much more common than flats (the ratio is roughly four to one). More than two families in every five live in a post-1945 home, but there remain a large number of old dwellings, some of which have been kept in good repair and modernised, but many others of which (particularly in the centres of cities) are unsatisfactory by modern standards.

Throughout this century pressure on housing accommodation has been increased more by the rapid rise in the number of separate households than by the increase in population. While the number of people has increased by about two-fifths, the number of households has more than doubled. A housing survey has shown a fall in England, from 800,000 to 500,000, in the number of households sharing a dwelling between 1971 and 1977-78; a halving, from 2.8 million to 1.4 million, in the number of households without exclusive use of at least one of the basic amenities, such as a bath; and a fall of two-thirds, from 219,000 to 73,000, in the number of overcrowded households. The survey also showed that 82 per cent of those questioned were 'very satisfied' or 'satisfied' with their accommodation.

Over half of all dwellings are owned by their occupiers, nearly a third are rented from public housing authorities, and most of the remainder are rented from private landlords (see diagram below). There are variations, however, in the distribution of tenure between different parts of the country; in Scotland more than half the dwellings are rented from public authorities. Private rented accommodation is generally more common in the central parts of large towns, while owner-occupation is more frequent in outer suburbs and in country areas.

Housing by Tenure



New house construction is undertaken by both public and private sectors but over the past few years the private sector has built more dwellings than the public sector. In addition, about 7 per cent of the new building in 1981 was carried out by voluntary housing associations and societies. Public authorities provide dwellings mainly for renting while private interests build mainly for sale to owner-occupiers. There has been very little building of private dwellings to rent (see p 166) but the provisions in the Housing Act 1980 for 'assured' tenancies have encouraged some new building for private letting by such bodies as building societies, pension funds and insurance companies.

Administration

Responsibility for formulating housing policy and supervising the housing programme is borne by the Secretary of State for the Environment in England and by the Secretaries of State for Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

The construction or structural alteration of housing in both the public and private sectors is subject to the Building Regulations in England (except inner London) and Wales. They are enforced by the local authorities and are made primarily for the health and safety of people in and around the buildings, although they also include requirements for the conservation of energy. Different systems with the same aims are operated in inner London, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

For building in the private sector the National House Building Council sets standards and enforces them by inspection and certification. Almost all new private houses are covered by the Council's insurance scheme which provides ten-year guarantees against major structural defects. A two-year guarantee is also given against faulty workmanship. Most lenders will not make a loan for the purchase of a new house unless it is covered by a Council certificate.

Local authorities are responsible for the payment of house renovation grants and the implementation of housing renewal programmes. Many have housing advisory centres to provide information on aspects of housing.

Research into building materials and techniques, as well as into the social, economic and design aspects of housing, is undertaken by the Department of the Environment, the Scottish Development Department and the Welsh Office.

Home Ownership

The number of people owning their own homes has more than doubled in the last 20 years, and the number of owner-occupied homes now amounts to over 11 million. Most public sector tenants have the right to buy the homes they occupy at discounts which vary according to the length of their occupancy. Local authorities have been asked to encourage low-cost home ownership by selling land to builders to construct homes for 'first-time' buyers, or to individuals or groups to build their own 'first-time' homes in partnership with private builders; by improving homes for sale; by selling dilapidated homes for improvement by the purchaser ('home-steading'); by offering shared ownership (part owning, part renting); and by using local authority guarantee powers to facilitate lending by building societies.

Mortgage Loans

Most people buy their homes through a mortgage which is a system of instalment purchase through loans (for which the properties are regarded as securities) from such sources as building societies, banks, insurance

companies, industrial and provident societies and local authorities. Some companies also make loans for house purchase to their own employees.

Building societies (see also p 339) which are by far the largest sources of such loans (their share of the market being about 80 per cent) do not build houses themselves. They usually advance up to 90 per cent of their valuation of a property but it is possible to borrow up to 100 per cent with the help of an appropriate insurance guarantee. Loans are normally repayable over periods of 20 or 25 years (up to 30 or 35 years in certain circumstances) by equal monthly instalments to cover capital and interest. Ordinary mortgages from building societies are usually available to purchasers on average income or above.

Owner-occupiers are entitled to tax relief on their mortgage interest payments arising on up to £25,000 of their mortgages (on their main home only). An alternative form of assistance is the option mortgage scheme, designed to help those with smaller incomes who pay little or no tax. It allows the borrower to receive, instead of tax relief, a subsidy which has the effect of reducing the rate of interest on the loan. Under the Home Loan Scheme first-time home buyers who have saved for two years and are buying a home in the lower-price range may qualify for an extra loan of £600 interest-free for up to five years, and a tax-free bonus of up to £110.

The option mortgage scheme, the Home Loan Scheme for first-time buyers and home-steading (see p 164) all operate in Northern Ireland. The concept of shared ownership is being developed in the public sector by the Northern Ireland Housing Executive and in the private sector by the Northern Ireland Co-ownership Housing Association. The Executive has offered most of its homes for sale to the tenants.

Public Sector Housing

Most of the public housing is provided by 459 local housing authorities, which are responsible for ensuring that the supply of housing in their areas is adequate. The authorities are: in England and Wales (outside London), the district councils; in London, the London borough councils and the Common Council of the City of London; and in Scotland, the district and islands councils. Other public housing authorities are the new town authorities, the Scottish Special Housing Association which supplements building by local authorities in Scotland, and the Development Board for Rural Wales. The Northern Ireland Housing Executive is responsible for the provision and management of public housing in Northern Ireland. Subsidies are made available to the authorities to assist them with housing costs, and guidance is given on design and layout. Public housing authorities own nearly seven million houses and flats. The number of homes owned by each authority varies widely, several of the larger authorities having a stock of well over 100,000.

Local authorities meet the capital costs of new house construction and of modernisation of their existing stock by raising loans on the open market or by borrowing from the Public Works Loan Board. Current expenditure, including maintenance and management costs and loan interest and repayments, is met from rents, supplemented by subsidies from the Government and, where required to balance housing revenue accounts, from the rates (the local property tax). Local authorities are required to charge their tenants reasonable rents (which keep a balance between the interests of tenants and ratepayers).

Sheltered accommodation (with an alarm system and resident warden) is provided for many elderly people who need this degree of support.

Increasing importance is also being placed on the housing needs of physically handicapped people, and a small but growing proportion of the new housing stock is suitable for them. Also receiving attention are the needs of other 'disadvantaged' groups such as one-parent families, those who have suffered from mental illness, and victims of violence within the family. Local authorities have a statutory duty to ensure that accommodation (not necessarily an authority house) is available for homeless people who have dependent children or are vulnerable on grounds such as age or disability.

The Housing Act 1980 established a charter for public sector tenants, giving them statutory rights which include security of tenure, provision for succession by a resident relative to the tenancy on death, rights of subletting and taking in lodgers, and, at the landlord's discretion, reimbursement for improvements made by the tenant. With certain exceptions, public sector tenants of at least three years' standing can buy the freehold of their house, or a long lease of their flat, at a discount which depends on the length of occupation. Similar provisions for Scotland are contained in the Tenants' Rights etc (Scotland) Act 1980.

A National Mobility Scheme, sponsored by the Department of the Environment and the principal bodies concerned with public sector housing, has been introduced to assist tenants in England and Wales who need to move to another area for employment or social reasons. Tenants who wish to move by exchanging homes are able to make use of a computer-based national information scheme.

Privately Rented Housing

During the last quarter of a century there has been a steady decline in the number of rented dwellings available from private landlords (including tied accommodation)—from over 50 per cent of the housing stock to about 12 per cent (2.6 million). Major factors have been the increased demand for owner-occupation, the greater availability of public rented housing, and the operation of rent restriction. Privately rented dwellings form a high proportion of the older housing, most landlords being individuals with limited holdings; some rented housing is provided by larger property owners, including property companies.

Most privately rented dwellings are subject to rent restriction, of which there are two kinds: regulated tenancies, where a 'fair rent' is fixed by independent rent officers; and where there is a resident landlord and in a few other types of furnished accommodation, the fixing of a reasonable rent by a rent tribunal. Tenants have a wide degree of security of tenure, and may not be evicted without a court order. Harassment of residential occupiers is a criminal offence. To increase the availability of privately rented property the Government has introduced in the Housing Act 1980 and in the Tenants' Rights etc (Scotland) Act 1980 a new system of 'shorthold' lettings, under which tenants have security of tenure at a fair rent for an agreed period of between one and five years, but not for life; existing regulated lettings are not affected by the new legislation. In England and Wales building of private dwellings to let is encouraged by the system of 'assured' tenancies, which allows approved bodies to let property at freely negotiated rents outside the provisions of the Rent Acts. Tenants with incomes up to average levels are eligible for assistance with their rent under a national scheme of rent allowances which is operated by local authorities and financed mainly by government subsidies.

SUBMARINE CABLES

Submarine cable systems provide more than 50 per cent of Britain's communications links with the rest of the world.

Right: The Seadog submersible, controlled from a cable ship, can bury, inspect and repair seabed cables.

Using high-pressure water jets it can cut trenches up to a metre deep.

Below: A new cable, TAT-7, linking North America and Europe, being landed in Cornwall.

The first UK-Canada cable laid in 1961 had 80 circuits; TAT-7 will have 4,200 circuits.



ADVANCES IN TELEVISION

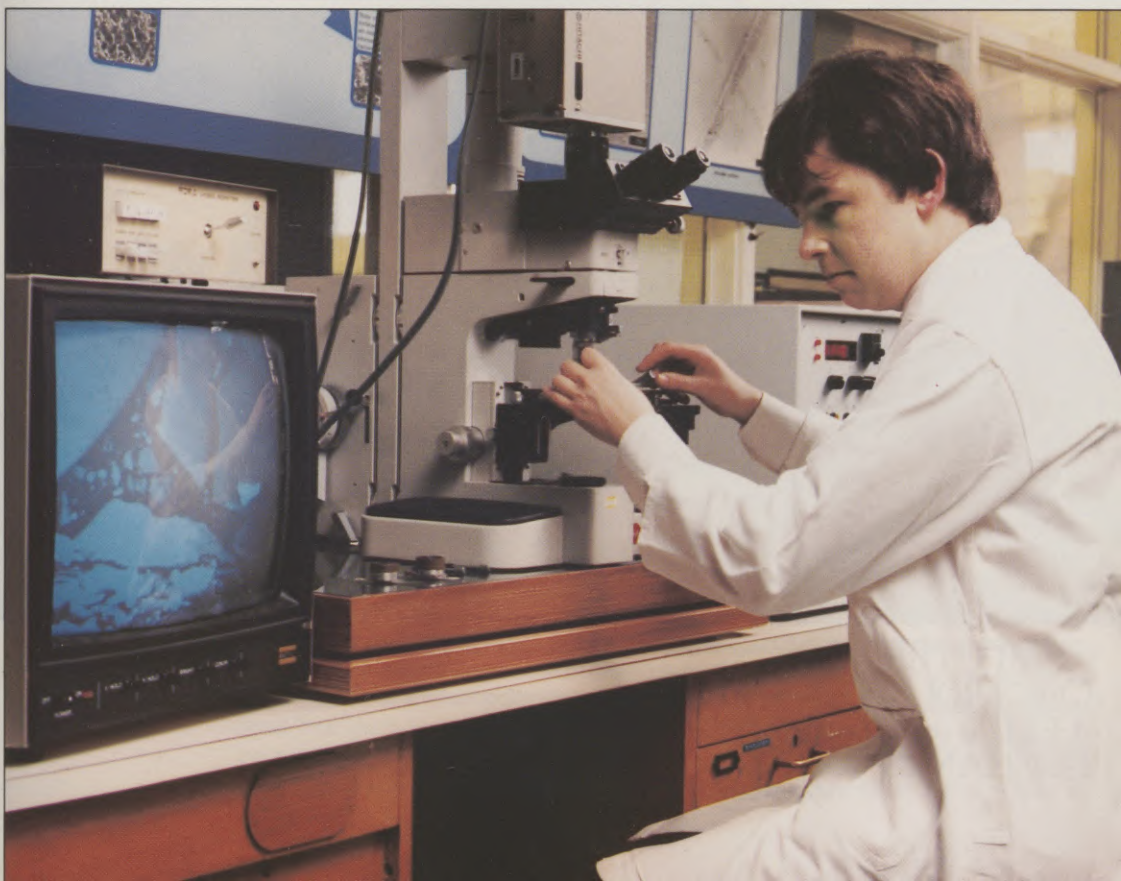
Right: A medical consultant in a Cornish hospital examining an X-ray of a possible limb fracture of a patient in the Scilly Isles by slow scan TV – a television picture sent in digital form over the telephone network.

Below: An advanced computer graphics system which provides an artist with over 16 million shades of colour. The images are shown on the screen and can be transmitted by television or produced as slides or printed illustrations.

Far right: This underwater camera, carried by a diver or mounted on a remotely-controlled vehicle, is linked to a visual display unit at the surface where the controller monitors what the camera sees and takes the required still or video picture.

Below right: A microscope connected to a television screen facilitates the viewing of coal samples at a British Gas Corporation research station. British Gas is a world leader in coal gasification.







COMPUTER CONTROLLED TELEX EXCHANGE

This electronic telex exchange transmits messages between Britain's 90,000 telex customers and more than a million users in 170 other countries. It can connect users in a fraction of the time taken by conventional exchanges and can store messages during busy periods for automatic transmission later.

Housing Associations

Housing associations extend the choice of housing by providing accommodation available for rent through new building or the rehabilitation of older property. The associations normally cater for people who would otherwise look to a local authority for a home. In addition to normal family housing, they provide particularly for the special needs of elderly, disabled and single people.

The associations, which are non-profit-making, have grown under government encouragement and now own some 430,000 homes. Individual associations range in size from a group of 'almshouses' for less than ten old people to associations with more than 10,000 homes. Rented housing schemes carried out by associations qualify for government grant if the association is one of the 3,000 registered with the Housing Corporation, a statutory body. Rented homes owned by housing associations come within the fair rent and rent allowance arrangements, and some housing association tenants have rights under the tenants' charter in the Housing Act 1980, including the right to buy. Housing associations also provide accommodation on a shared ownership basis, allowing the occupier to part-rent and part-own a home, and they can improve older properties for outright sale. Both activities are eligible for government grants.

Improving Older Homes

Modernisation and conversion of sub-standard homes, with the help of grants from public funds, has increasingly been encouraged as an alternative to clearing and rebuilding and as a way of preserving established communities and of making more economic use of resources.

Home improvement grants for nearly 1.6 million homes were paid to householders in Great Britain between 1967 and 1981. A further 1.3 million public sector homes were also improved in this period. There are four types of grant: improvement grants, for carrying out improvements to a good standard or for conversion into flats; intermediate grants, for the provision of standard amenities (such as a bath and an inside lavatory) and associated repairs; grants for substantial and structural repairs to pre-1919 houses; and special grants (not available in Scotland) for providing standard amenities, repairs and means of escape from fire in houses which are in multiple occupation.

Declaring 'general improvement areas' and 'housing action areas' enables local authorities in England and Wales to tackle the improvement of whole areas of older housing systematically. General improvement areas (of which there are about 1,400) consist of fundamentally sound houses and a stable population. Housing action areas (about 400) are characterised by relatively poor housing and bad physical conditions combined with social stress. Local authorities have special powers to bring about an improvement in living conditions for the benefit of residents within a five-year period. In both types of area government financial aid for environmental improvement (such as tree-planting) is available to local authorities. Grants to householders may range up to 75 per cent of the eligible expense limit, and in certain cases of hardship up to 90 per cent.

An 'improvement-for-sale' scheme has also been introduced; the Government helps to meet any loss a local authority may make in buying, improving and selling rundown or neglected housing.

In Scotland housing action area powers are available for areas in which at least half the houses fail to meet prescribed physical standards and there is no time limit on the period within which improvement must be carried out. Outside housing action areas in Scotland local authorities have power to

require the improvement of houses below the statutory tolerable standard, or lacking a bathroom, by improvement orders. In housing action areas or where an improvement order has been made grants of up to 75 per cent of the eligible expense limit (up to 90 per cent in cases of hardship) may be made.

Northern Ireland has a major problem of derelict and unfit housing, especially in Belfast, the situation having been made worse by civil disturbance. Concerted measures are taken in housing action areas, and there is a continuing programme of rehabilitation in Belfast.

New Towns

The 32 new towns designated since 1946 represent one of the most successful achievements in recent British planning. Twenty-one of them are in England, two in Wales, five in Scotland and four in Northern Ireland. Most of them had an existing town or village as a nucleus. The policy behind their creation was mainly one of encouraging the gradual dispersal of industry and population from congested cities to new areas, planned in advance to become self-contained towns with their own industry, services and amenities within convenient distance of the whole community.

In England eight of the new towns have been substantially completed and the development corporations, which supervised the planning and development of the towns, dissolved. Target dates for the dissolution of a further seven new town development corporations by the mid-1980s and of the remainder by the late 1980s have been announced. The first Scottish new town development corporation is expected to be dissolved at the end of the present decade, with the others following in the 1990s. In Wales responsibility for one of the two new towns has been taken over by the Development Board for Rural Wales while the other is to be dissolved in the mid-1980s. In Northern Ireland, development of the new towns has been incorporated in a new District Towns Strategy which is the responsibility of the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland. The Government is making substantial disposals of the completed assets of the new towns to the private sector in order to release resources for investment and to reduce the involvement of the public sector.

The new towns have a total population of over 2 million. Young people form a somewhat higher proportion than in the population of the country as a whole. Several of the more developed towns are becoming regional centres and, as the populations grow large enough to give the necessary support, offices, hotels and department stores, as well as art centres and full entertainment and recreational facilities, are gradually being provided.

Town development (or 'expanding town') schemes involve the transfer of people and industry from overcrowded areas to existing towns suitable for expansion; these are arranged directly between the local authorities of the towns concerned. Most of the towns expanded under these schemes are well established and are providing homes, jobs and amenities for people from large cities.

Inner City Policies

Revitalising the inner areas of many towns and cities is one of the most important tasks in modern planning. Past policies have produced many successes (most of the slums have been replaced, much old housing has been improved and the clean air legislation has enhanced the general environment and public health) but many other difficulties, some the result of these policies, have still to be overcome. They include problems of high

Enterprise Zones and New Towns



unemployment, decay and dereliction, and population structures with relatively high proportions of the disadvantaged and the elderly. Government policy is not to seek a universal solution but to work out for each city the package of measures that is most likely to improve conditions and encourage, as far as possible, local voluntary action, notably by means of 'partnerships' (see below). The policy was given renewed impetus by the sense of national shock which followed disorders in a number of inner city areas in England in the summer of 1981. Various special measures, aimed at increasing employment opportunities and the involvement of residents in the rejuvenation of their areas, have been introduced.

Urban Programme

The inner city areas have been given greater resources and priority for a number of years. The 'urban aid programme' has been increased from a 1977-78 level in England and Wales of under £30 million to £334 million in 1982-83, including funds for the two urban development corporations. The programme traditionally complemented the work of major social programmes by providing extra facilities which would otherwise not have been available, such as day nurseries, centres for the elderly and language classes for immigrants, but has been recast so as to cover industrial, commercial, environmental and recreational provision as well. The urban programme represents only a small part of the central assistance to urban, and other, local authorities. The main contribution is through the annual 'rate support' grant, transport supplementary grant (in England and Wales only), housing subsidy and other programmes.

In certain places, special schemes are in operation. A co-ordinated 'partnership' approach has been adopted in seven English areas whereby central and local government work together to tackle places where the problems are greatest. Each partnership has a three-year action programme rolled forward annually, which is based on the needs of the area and its particular priorities. Partnerships receive allocations of urban programme resources ranging from £12.5 million to £23 million a year. To meet the particular problems and opportunities of the London docklands and the Merseyside dock area following large-scale dock closures, the Government has set up urban development corporations, modelled on the new town development corporations, and these are to receive some £64 million in 1982-83. The London Docklands Development Corporation has superseded the London docklands partnership arrangements. Elsewhere in England 15 areas have been identified where the problems are on a slightly smaller scale but still merit special attention. These areas prepare their own inner city programmes and like the partnerships receive special allocations of urban programme resources. Additional resources are also made available to a further 14 English and five Welsh districts designated under the Inner Urban Areas Act 1978. National Garden Festivals, based on the European idea of garden shows, are being introduced with the aim of rejuvenating inner-city areas and reclaiming derelict sites. The first festival will be held in Liverpool in 1984 near to an area where urban disorders in 1981 were followed by a special ministerial study.

In Scotland, where the urban programme amounts to £33 million in 1982-83, a major urban renewal exercise in Glasgow to regenerate the city's east end is organised on somewhat similar lines to the partnership areas in England, and a further eight Scottish districts have been designated under the Inner Urban Areas Act. In Northern Ireland a special effort is being made to tackle Belfast's inner city problems.

Slum Clearance

In urban areas of Britain slum clearance and redevelopment have been major features of housing policy. Since the mid-1950s about 3.5 million people have been rehoused in England and Wales as a result of slum clearance programmes. Large-scale clearance is now almost at an end and greater emphasis is placed on renewal and modernisation. Local authorities receive special financial assistance from the Government.

Housing authorities are obliged to see that other accommodation exists, or can be provided by them, for people displaced by slum clearance. Owners of land compulsorily acquired during slum clearance programmes receive as compensation either the full market value or, if the property consists of unfit houses, a sum based on the value of the cleared site; additional payments are, however, made to most owner-occupiers of unfit houses to bring their compensation up to market value.

Redevelopment of slums has presented considerable problems. Many of the areas were seriously overcrowded and lacked social facilities but usually had the advantages of the basic utilities, local employment and easy access to town-centre facilities. In order to house as many people as possible on the sites, large areas were cleared and high-rise flats built. Despite the high standards of many of the homes themselves, multistorey flats have not proved satisfactory for some types of tenant, particularly families with children, because of the lack of safe and convenient play space. In some cases building maintenance has also presented problems. Where there is need to build to a high density in inner city areas it is now met by carefully grouped low-rise blocks, including individual houses.

Enterprise Zones

In 1981-82 the Government set up 11 'enterprise zones' which will last for ten years. The aim of this experimental policy is to see how far industrial and commercial activity can be stimulated by the removal of certain tax burdens and by relaxing or speeding up the application of a number of administrative controls. The zones vary widely but all contain land suitable for development. They range in size from about 55 to 450 hectares (about 140 to over 1,100 acres). The zones are sited in London's docklands, Swansea, Salford/Trafford, Corby, Dudley, Hartlepool, Wakefield, Liverpool, Newcastle/Gateshead, Clydebank and Belfast. Benefits in the zones include exemption from rates and development land tax; 100 per cent allowances for corporation and income tax purposes for capital expenditure on industrial and commercial buildings; a much simplified planning system in which most forms of development are automatically permitted; and a reduction in government requests for statistical information. Negotiations are under way for the establishment of a further 11 zones.

CONSERVATION

Britain is one of the leading countries in the conservation movement. A wide range of groups, including many voluntary organisations, are active in it. The Council for Environmental Conservation is a national coalition of non-governmental organisations which focuses attention on major environmental issues.

Historic Buildings and Conservation Areas

Lists of buildings of special architectural or historic interest are compiled, as required by the planning Acts, by the Secretary of State for the Environment and the Secretaries of State for Scotland and Wales; over 325,000 buildings are already listed. It is against the law to demolish

or alter the character of any listed building without special consent from the local planning authority or the appropriate Secretary of State; where consent is given to demolish a building, the Royal Commission on Historical Monuments (for England) and similar bodies for Scotland and Wales have an opportunity to make a photographic record of the building. Emergency 'building preservation notices' can be served by the local planning authority to protect buildings not yet listed.

Grants and loans for the repair or maintenance of buildings (or groups of buildings) of outstanding interest can be made by the Secretaries of State (on the recommendation of the appropriate Historic Buildings Council), and local authorities can make grants and loans for any building of architectural or historic interest even if it is not listed. The Architectural Heritage Fund, voluntary contributions to which have been matched by the Government, provides loans for local trusts to preserve historic buildings.

Local planning authorities have designated for special protection over 4,800 'conservation areas' of particular architectural or historic interest. Grants and loans are available for works which make a significant contribution towards the preservation or enhancement of such an area.

Maintaining royal parks and palaces is the responsibility of the Secretaries of State for the Environment, Scotland and Wales, as is the protection of ancient monuments of which about 800 are in their care. The Ancient Monument Boards recommend which monuments are considered to be of national importance and therefore worthy of preservation. The Government intends to set up a new agency by April 1984 to manage ancient monuments and give grants for historic buildings in England; the agency will incorporate the Ancient Monuments Board for England and the Historic Buildings Council for England.

In Northern Ireland the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland is responsible for the protection of historic monuments, of which 141 are in its care. The Department, acting on the advice of the Northern Ireland Historic Buildings Council, is also responsible for listing buildings of special architectural or historic interest, for designation of conservation areas, and for payment of grants.

Among the voluntary organisations which campaign for the preservation of buildings are the Society for the Protection of Ancient Buildings and the Ancient Monuments Society; the Georgian Group and the Scottish Georgian Society; the Ulster Architectural Heritage Society; and the Victorian Society.

Architecture

Besides helping to conserve the best buildings inherited from the past, the Government encourages high standards in new building. The Secretary of State for the Environment, in collaboration with the Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA), makes annual awards for good design in both the public and private sectors, with categories for renovation as well as new building. Wales has a similar but separate awards scheme. The Government has also encouraged the use of architectural competitions, and has set an example in the award of some of its own contracts. Royal Fine Art Commissions for England and Wales and for Scotland advise government departments, planning authorities and other public bodies on questions of public amenity or artistic importance.

The RIBA, which is the principal professional body for architects, exercises control over standards in architectural education. The Royal

Incorporation of Architects in Scotland is allied to it. The Civic Trust, with associate trusts in Scotland, Wales and north-east and north-west England, encourages high standards in architecture and planning, and the protection and improvement of the environment. The National Trust (for Places of Historic Interest or Natural Beauty), which has more than one million members, owns and protects 240 historic buildings in addition to 185,000 hectares (456,000 acres) of land and large stretches of coastline. Scotland has its own National Trust.

Tree Preservation

The local planning authorities have power to protect trees and woodlands in the interest of amenity by means of tree preservation orders. When granting planning permission for development, a local planning authority must, where appropriate, impose conditions to secure the preservation or planting of trees. Landowners generally must replace trees which die or are removed or destroyed in contravention of a preservation order.

Green Belts

In order to restrict the further sprawl of large built-up areas, to prevent neighbouring towns merging into one another, and in some cases to preserve the character of a town and the amenities of the countryside, 'green belts' (areas where it is intended that the land should be left open and free from building development and where people can seek recreation) have been established or proposed on the fringes of certain urban areas. Much of London's green belt, for example, is agricultural land or woodland, some of which is used for recreation. There are also areas specifically for recreational use, such as country parks, public open spaces, playing fields and golf courses. The amount of agricultural land taken for development has been steadily reduced from about 18,000 hectares (45,000 acres) a year between 1965 and 1970 to about 9,000 hectares (23,000 acres) a year between 1975 and 1980.

The Coast

The maritime local planning authorities are responsible for planning land use at the coast providing, for example, recreational facilities and amenities for holidaymakers and local residents; at the same time they attempt to safeguard and enhance the coast's natural attractions and preserve coastal areas of scientific interest.

A comprehensive study of the coastline of England and Wales, undertaken by the Countryside Commission (see p 174) in 1966-70, recommended that certain stretches of undeveloped coast of particular scenic beauty should be treated as heritage coast. Jointly with local authorities, the Commission has defined 35 of these coasts so far, protecting nearly 1,200 kilometres (750 miles).

In 1965 the National Trust launched its Enterprise Neptune campaign to raise funds for the nation to acquire stretches of coastline of great natural beauty and recreational value. More than £5.5 million has been raised so far and as a result the Trust has under its protection 659 kilometres (410 miles) of coastline in England and Wales. Some 127 kilometres (79 miles) of coast in Scotland are protected by conservation agreements with the National Trust for Scotland. In Northern Ireland 45 kilometres (28 miles) of coast and coastal path have been acquired by the National Trust.

In exceptional cases economic arguments override conservation; development associated with North Sea oil and gas is occurring on remote and unspoiled coastal areas in Scotland, for instance, but planning guidelines drawn up by the Scottish Development Department aim to ensure that oil-

related activities are sited so as to make the best use of existing labour and infrastructure and to minimise the effect on the coastline. Provision has also been made for funds to be set aside for the restoration of sites once there is no further need for them.

The protection of the coastline against erosion, for which the Department of the Environment, the Welsh Office and the Scottish Office are centrally responsible in Great Britain, presents difficult engineering problems and heavy costs for the maritime local authorities. Substantial grants from central funds may be made to the authorities.

Outdoor Advertising

The display of outdoor advertisements is controlled by planning legislation. General consents have been issued for certain classes of advertisement but these can be withdrawn in particular cases where there is a serious threat to amenity or public safety. Consent for advertisements outside these classes must be sought from the local planning authority. Rural areas and urban areas requiring special protection can be designated as areas of special control which impose more restrictive standards.

Countryside Commissions

Two Countryside Commissions (one for England and Wales, the other for Scotland) are responsible for encouraging and promoting measures to conserve and enhance the natural beauty and amenity of the countryside and for encouraging the development of facilities for open-air recreation in the countryside. These include the provision by local authorities (sometimes in association with other bodies) and private individuals of country parks and picnic sites often within easy reach of towns; the provision or improvement of recreational paths; the encouragement of amenity tree-planting schemes; and the increased use of reservoirs, canals and other waterways for bathing, sailing and other activities. Some 160 country parks and 205 picnic sites have been recognised in England and Wales by the Countryside Commission. In Scotland a large number of local authority schemes for the provision of a variety of countryside facilities have been approved for grant aid. The Commissions undertake research projects and experimental schemes, working in consultation with local authorities and such bodies as the Nature Conservancy Council (see p 176) and the Sports Councils (see p 393). The Commissions give financial assistance to public bodies and individuals carrying out countryside recreation and amenity projects. Attention is increasingly being given to small-scale amenity tree-planting and to techniques of countryside management to supplement the statutory planning controls.

National Parks and Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty

The Countryside Commission (for England and Wales) is empowered to designate, for confirmation by the appropriate minister, national parks and 'areas of outstanding natural beauty'; to define heritage coasts in conjunction with local authorities (see p 173); and to make proposals for the creation of long-distance footpaths and bridleways. Ten national parks have been established (shown on the map at the end of the book) covering 13,600 sq km (5,250 square miles), or 9 per cent of the area of England and Wales. Some 33 areas of outstanding natural beauty have been designated and confirmed, covering 14,500 sq km (5,600 square miles).

The land in these designated areas generally remains privately owned, but agreements or orders to secure additional public access may be made by local authorities. Steps are taken to preserve and enhance the landscape's natural beauty by high standards of development control, and by positive

measures, for which grants are available, such as tree planting and the removal of eyesores. In the national parks, other measures for the benefit of the public include the provision of car parks, camping and caravan areas, and information centres. All national parks and some other designated areas have warden services. Most local authority expenditure on national parks is met by central government grants. Twelve long-distance footpaths and bridleways covering 2,528 km (1,580 miles) have been approved and one more is under consideration.

In Northern Ireland the Ulster Countryside Committee advises the Department of the Environment on the preservation of amenities and the designation of areas of outstanding natural beauty. Eight areas of outstanding natural beauty have been designated covering 259,500 hectares (641,000 acres) and six areas are being managed as country parks and one as a regional park.

In Scotland there are no national parks as such, but there are 40 'national scenic areas' where certain kinds of development are subject to consultation with the Countryside Commission for Scotland, and the Secretary of State for Scotland, in the event of a disagreement. More than 98 per cent of the land in Scotland is countryside within the jurisdiction of the Commission.

There are, in addition, seven forest parks in Great Britain, covering some 243,000 hectares (600,000 acres) and administered by the Forestry Commission, and six in Northern Ireland administered by the Forest Service of the Department of Agriculture. Camping and other recreational facilities are provided.

There are many voluntary organisations concerned to preserve the amenities of the countryside; they include the Councils for the Protection of Rural England and of Rural Wales, the Association for the Protection of Rural Scotland and the Ulster Society for the Preservation of the Countryside.

Local Footpaths and Open Country

County councils in England and Wales are required to prepare and keep under review definitive maps showing public rights of way; they are also responsible for keeping rights of way free from obstruction and signposted. If a path is not shown on the map, a private citizen may claim that it is a public right of way if it has been used and regarded as such without hindrance for at least 20 years. Public footpaths are maintained by local authorities which also supervise landowners' duties to repair stiles and gates. Local authorities in Great Britain can create paths, close existing paths no longer needed for public use and divert paths to meet the needs of either the public or landowners. Local planning authorities can also convert minor roads into footpaths or bridleways to improve the amenities of their area. Voluntary organisations concerned with footpaths include the Commons, Open Spaces and Footpaths Preservation Society, the Scottish Rights of Way Society and the Ramblers' Association.

There is no automatic right of public access to open country, although many landowners permit such access more or less freely. Local planning authorities can secure access by means of agreements with landowners; if agreements cannot be obtained, authorities may acquire land or make orders for public access. Similar powers cover Scotland, while comparable legislation is being prepared in Northern Ireland.

Common land, a large proportion of which is open to the public, totals an estimated 600,000 hectares (1.5 million acres) in England and Wales. (There is no common land in Scotland or Northern Ireland.) This land is

usually privately owned, but people other than the owner have various rights on or over it, for example, of pasture for farm animals. Commons are protected by law and cannot be built on or enclosed without the consent of the Secretaries of State for the Environment or Wales.

Nature Conservation

The official body responsible for nature conservation in Great Britain is the Nature Conservancy Council which has the functions of establishing, maintaining and managing nature reserves, advising ministers, providing general information and advice, and commissioning or supporting research. There are 171 national nature reserves covering 133,640 hectares (330,090 acres). Some 3,900 sites of special scientific interest have been scheduled for their flora, fauna or geological or physiographical features.

About 10,000 hectares (25,000 acres) of Forestry Commission land are managed as areas in which nature conservation is the main object. Local authorities have declared about 80 local nature reserves. Nature conservation trusts and the Royal Society for the Protection of Birds play an important part in protecting wildlife, having established between them some 1,200 reserves. The trusts are affiliated to a parent organisation, the Royal Society for Nature Conservation. The Royal Society for the Protection of Birds, with more than 350,000 members, is the largest voluntary wildlife conservation body in Europe.

In Northern Ireland the Nature Reserves Committee advises the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland on the designation of national nature reserves and areas of scientific interest; there are 37 and 46 respectively.

The Wildlife and Countryside Act 1981 extends the list of protected species and restricts the introduction into the countryside of animals or plants not normally found in the wild. Other provisions relate to areas of special scientific interest, to the making of grants and loans by the Nature Conservancy Council and to the powers of the Countryside Commission with respect to experimental schemes. The Act also contains a number of measures designed to enhance and promote the national parks and amends the law relating to public rights of way. In Northern Ireland a wildlife protection order is being prepared which would bring legislation into line with the rest of Britain on species and habitat protection.

Land Reclamation

Derelict land, often concentrated in places associated with nineteenth-century industrial development, presents special problems to planners. It includes mineral waste tips, old mineral workings, obsolete industrial buildings and disused railways and docks. In England most derelict land reclamation is undertaken, with the help of central government grant, by local authorities, which have the power to acquire derelict land and bring it back into use or improve its appearance. Mainly as a result of government encouragement, local authorities have shown an increasing interest in reclaiming derelict land, and greater emphasis is being placed on grant assistance for the reclamation of derelict land in urban areas for industrial and other development. In addition, grants have recently been made available to people and public bodies other than local authorities.

In Scotland and Wales responsibility for derelict land reclamation rests with the respective development agencies, which may acquire and reclaim land, employ local authorities as their agents (in Scotland) or make grants to local authorities for the purpose (in Wales). In Northern Ireland grants may be paid to landowners who restore or improve derelict sites.

To prevent new dereliction, planning controls require that when permission is given for mineral working various measures must be taken to minimise the disturbance caused by the work and to secure whatever restoration is practicable, either progressively or when working ceases. The use of land for disposal of waste materials is also subject to conditions restricting height or requiring treatment on completion.

Land Registers

In England, following a pilot scheme in 33 areas, the Government has instituted, and made available for inspection, registers of under-used land held by local authorities, nationalised industries and other public bodies. There is power to direct a public body to dispose of registered land.

CONTROL OF POLLUTION

Government measures to control environmental pollution, in which industry and voluntary organisations co-operate, are long established, and are seen as complementary to the planning system and the various measures to conserve amenities and the country's heritage.

The Control of Pollution Act 1974, which applies to England, Scotland and Wales, sets out a wide range of powers and duties for local and water authorities, including control over wastes, air and water pollution and noise, and contains important provisions on the release of information to the public on environmental conditions. In particular, it introduced a new system for the comprehensive planning of waste disposal operations so as to ensure that disposal is carried out to satisfactory standards and that where practicable waste materials are recovered and recycled. The Act also increased the penalties for a large number of pollution offences. The provisions relating to noise and air pollution are fully in force in England, Scotland and Wales, as are a substantial number of those relating to waste on land; most of the part dealing with water pollution is being implemented. Similar legislation applies in Northern Ireland.

Administration

Responsibility for the control of pollution is shared by various central government departments, local and water authorities and statutory agencies. Industry co-operates with these authorities and voluntary organisations help to focus public interest on the process of control. An independent standing Royal Commission on Environmental Pollution advises the Government on national and international matters concerning the pollution of the environment, on the adequacy of research and on the future possibilities of danger to the environment. In England and Wales the Secretary of State for the Environment has a co-ordinating role concerning pollution matters as a whole, exercised through a Central Directorate on Environmental Pollution within his department. In Scotland a similar role is exercised by the Secretary of State for Scotland through the Scottish Development Department.

Local authorities are responsible for matters such as collection and disposal of domestic wastes; control of air pollution from domestic and certain industrial premises; and noise abatement measures. Sewerage and sewage treatment and disposal are the responsibilities of water authorities in England and Wales, of local authorities in Scotland and of the Department of the Environment in Northern Ireland. The regional water authorities in England, the Welsh Water Authority, the river purification boards and islands councils in Scotland and the Department of

the Environment for Northern Ireland are responsible for control of water pollution.

The Land

The main risks of land pollution lie in the indiscriminate dumping of waste materials on land, careless disposal of pesticides and chemicals, fall-out of materials from the atmosphere and the deposition of materials from flood-water. The use of sewage sludge on farms, too, involves risks as well as benefits to the land.

The Control of Pollution Act places a duty on waste disposal authorities (county councils and the Greater London Council in England, for example) to ensure that there are adequate arrangements to dispose of controlled wastes. It requires them to draw up and revise periodically a waste disposal plan and establishes a licensing system for all waste disposal sites, treatment plants and storage facilities receiving controlled wastes. In addition, it provides for a more intensive control system for certain specially hazardous or difficult wastes.

It is a criminal offence to leave litter in any public place in the open air or to dump rubbish except in designated places.

Recycling and Materials Reclamation

The Government encourages the reclamation and recycling of waste materials wherever this is practicable and economic in order to reduce imports and waste disposal costs and to help to conserve natural resources. Industry already makes considerable use of reclaimed waste material such as metals, paper and textiles. Local authorities collect about 200,000 tonnes of waste paper and about 100,000 tonnes of ferrous scrap annually. In an increasing number of areas there are 'bottle banks' where the public can deposit used glass containers. Waste disposal authorities are required under the Control of Pollution Act to take full account of opportunities for waste reclamation in drawing up their waste disposal plans. Voluntary organisations also organise collections of waste material.

The Department of the Environment has provided financial and technical help to South Yorkshire and Tyne and Wear County Councils for two full-scale prototype plants for the mechanical sorting of household refuse at Doncaster and Byker.

Water Pollution

There has been a steady and significant improvement in water quality: the level of pollution in the tidal Thames, for example, has been reduced to a quarter of the 1950s' level and 100 different kinds of fish have been identified there since 1964. Discharges of polluting matter into rivers, lakes, estuaries and some coastal waters are already controlled by law. Powers will be extended to lakes underground and all coastal waters when the Control of Pollution Act is fully implemented. More than 90 per cent of the British population is provided with main drainage, and public authority sewage treatment works serve over four-fifths of the population—a very high proportion by international standards.

Marine Pollution

Control of marine pollution from ships is based largely on international conventions drawn up under the auspices of the International Maritime Organisation, a United Nations agency with headquarters in London, and implemented for British ships by domestic legislation. The Prevention of Oil Pollution Act 1971 makes it an offence for ships of any nationality to discharge any oil into British territorial waters and for British registered ships to discharge persistent oil anywhere at sea, except in accordance with very stringent regulations.

To deal with spillages of oil or chemicals at sea, which may cause coastal pollution or threaten wildlife, the Department of Trade has established a Marine Pollution Control Unit and can also call upon the resources of the Marine Survey and Coastguard services. The main treatment method is to spray dispersant from aircraft or surface vessels, and emergency cargo transfer equipment is available to remove oil from a damaged tanker. Local authorities have a primary role in dealing with oil and chemical pollution of beaches and in inshore waters, and receive government advice and support.

The development of the offshore oil industry has brought an increased risk of oil pollution in the North Sea. Offshore operators are required to ensure that oil does not escape into the sea and are also expected to have contingency plans for dealing with oil spills. Not all traces of oil can be removed from water separated from crude oil before its discharge from production platforms into the sea, and these discharges from offshore installations are normally granted exemption from the 1971 Act subject to strict controls laid down by the Department of Energy. The Department of the Environment, the Welsh Office, the Scottish Development Department and the Northern Ireland Department of the Environment have powers to grant exemptions subject to similar controls for discharges from land-based sources.

Under the Dumping at Sea Act 1974 a licence has to be obtained for the permanent deposit of any substance or article into tidal waters and the sea. Dumping at sea is permitted on the basis of the scientific criteria set out in the annexes to the Oslo Convention (International Convention for the Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping from Ships and Aircraft 1972) and the London Convention on the Prevention of Marine Pollution by Dumping Wastes and Other Matter 1972.

Clean Air

Responsibility for clean air rests primarily with local authorities. Under the provisions of the Clean Air Acts 1956 and 1968 they may declare 'smoke control areas' within which the emission of smoke from chimneys constitutes an offence. About two-thirds of the premises in conurbations are now covered by smoke control orders. Emissions from most industrial premises are also subject to the control of local authorities under the Clean Air Acts. The emission of dark smoke from any trade or industrial premises or from the chimney of any building is in general prohibited, and new furnaces must be capable as far as practicable of smokeless operation. The height of the chimney serving a new furnace must generally be approved by the local authority, and approved grit and dust arrestment plant has to be installed. Regulations have been made which prescribe specific limits to the quantities of grit and dust which may be emitted from certain furnaces. Industrial premises that give rise to particularly offensive or dangerous emissions are, in England and Wales, under the control of the Alkali and Clean Air Inspectorate of the Health and Safety Executive (p 320). In Scotland this function is discharged by the Industrial Pollution Inspectorate. The Inspectorates require the best practicable means to be used to prevent or abate emissions. Similar legislation and controls apply in Northern Ireland. Controls are also in force on emissions from motor vehicles, such as the maximum permitted lead content of petrol which was reduced to 0.40 grammes per litre at the beginning of 1981, and will be reduced further to 0.15 grammes per litre by 1985.

Considerable progress has been made towards the achievement of cleaner air and a better environment, especially in the last 20 years or so.

Total emissions and average concentration of smoke in the air have fallen by 80 per cent since 1960. The domestic smoke control programme has been particularly important in achieving this result. London no longer has the dense smoke-laden 'smogs' of the 1950s and in central London winter sunshine has been increasing since the 1940s when average hours a day were about 40 per cent less than at Kew in outer London; the levels are now virtually the same. Similar improvement has been achieved in other cities including Glasgow and Sheffield. Since 1960 average concentrations of sulphur dioxide in urban areas have fallen by over 60 per cent.

Noise

The Control of Pollution Act 1974 (and similar legislation in Northern Ireland) requires local authorities to inspect their areas for noise nuisance and gives them the power to deal with it. It also enables them to designate 'noise abatement zones' within which registered levels of noise from classified premises may not be increased without their permission. The Act contains specific provisions to control noise from construction and demolition sites.

Transport is one of the main offenders in noise pollution, and control measures are aimed at reducing noise at source, through requirements limiting the noise that aircraft and motor vehicles may make, and by protecting people from its effects. The Motor Vehicles (Construction and Use) Regulations 1978 set out the permissible noise levels for various classes of vehicles when new and when in use and more stringent limits will apply for vehicles coming into use during 1983.

Under the Land Compensation Act 1973 and similar legislation in Scotland compensation is payable for loss in property values caused by physical factors including noise arising from the use of new or improved public works such as roads and airports. Regulations made under the Acts also enable highway authorities to carry out or make grants for insulation of homes subject to specified levels of increased noise caused by new or improved roads. Noise insulation may also be provided where construction work for new roads is likely seriously to affect nearby homes.

Noise emission levels of most aircraft on the United Kingdom Register of Civil Aircraft are regulated in accordance with standards agreed by the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO). Subsonic jets acquired by British operators after September 1978 must already meet the noise certification criteria agreed by ICAO, and all those on the United Kingdom Register will have to do so from 1 January 1986. Various operational restrictions have been introduced to reduce noise disturbance further, and people living in the worst affected areas round a number of airports may be eligible for noise insulation grants.

Radioactivity

In Britain radiation resulting from industrial and other processes represents only a small fraction of that to which the population is exposed from the natural environment. Nevertheless, that fraction is subject to stringent control because of possible effects on health or longer-term genetic effects. Under the Radioactive Substances Act 1960 users of radioactive materials other than those subject to licence under the Nuclear Installations Act 1965 must be registered by the appropriate department and authorisation is also required for the disposal of radioactive waste, with exemption for very minor users and disposals. The Health and Safety Executive, through its Nuclear Installations Inspectorate, is the authority concerned with the granting of nuclear site licences for commercial nuclear installations. No

such installation may be constructed or operated without a licence granted by the Executive. The National Radiological Protection Board established under the Radiological Protection Act 1970 provides an authoritative point of reference on radiological protection.

Various methods are used to store radioactive wastes, depending primarily upon their physical form and radioactivity. Wastes of sufficiently low radioactivity are dispersed safely direct to the environment. For those of higher activity a comprehensive, international research programme is being carried out with government assistance and with the participation of the nuclear industry into methods of treatment, storage, transport and disposal. The Government has announced its intention of setting up a Nuclear Industry Radioactive Waste Executive, which will develop and manage radioactive waste disposal facilities and accept solid waste from those who create it.

9 THE CHURCHES

Everyone in Britain has the right of religious freedom (in teaching, worship and observance) without interference from the community or the State. Churches and religious societies may own property, conduct schools, and propagate their beliefs in speech and writing. There is no religious or denominational bar to the holding of public office.

Clergy of the established churches of England and Scotland work in services administered by the State, such as the armed forces, national hospitals and prisons, and are paid a salary by the State. Clergy of other denominations are also appointed. Voluntary schools provided by any religious denomination may be wholly or partly maintained from public funds.

There is no precise or uniform information about the number of church adherents since no inquiries are normally made about religious beliefs in censuses or other official returns, and each church adopts its own criteria in counting its members. Membership figures in this chapter are therefore approximate.

The Church of England

The established Church of England's relationship with the State is one of mutual obligation—privileges accorded to the Church balanced by certain duties which it must fulfil. The Sovereign must always be a member of the Church, and promises to uphold it; Church of England archbishops, bishops and deans are appointed by the Sovereign on the advice of the Prime Minister; all clergy take an oath of allegiance to the Crown. The Church can regulate its own worship. The two archbishops (of Canterbury and York), the bishops of London, Durham and Winchester, and 21 other bishops (according to their seniority as diocesan bishops) sit in the House of Lords. Clergy of the Church (together with those of the Church of Scotland, the Church of Ireland and the Roman Catholic Church) are not allowed to sit in the House of Commons.

The Church has two provinces: Canterbury, comprising 30 dioceses, and York, 14 dioceses. The dioceses are divided into parishes, of which there are some 13,600. The Archbishop of Canterbury is 'Primate of All England', and the Archbishop of York 'Primate of England'. In 1980 of the population born and resident in the two provinces (roughly 46 million) about 58 per cent were baptised into the Church and some 19 per cent were confirmed members.

The central governing body, the General Synod, has both spiritual authority and legislative and administrative powers; and bishops, clergy and lay members are involved in decisions. Certain important issues must be referred for the approval of the dioceses before being decided by the Synod. Lay members are associated with church government in the parishes through the ancient office of churchwarden and the modern parochial church councils.

The General Synod is the centre of an administrative system dealing with such matters as education, mission, inter-church relations, social questions, recruitment and training for the ministry, church work at home and overseas and the care of church buildings, particularly those of historic and architectural interest. The Synod is also concerned with church

schools; church colleges of education; theological colleges; and establishments for training women in pastoral work.

The Church has its own courts whose jurisdiction today extends only to matters of purely ecclesiastical concern.

Church finance is administered locally by the parishes and the dioceses, with contributions to a central fund for the maintenance of central services, including capital expenditure on training and theological colleges and grants for training candidates for ordination. The State makes no direct financial contribution to church expenses. The Church's endowment income is mainly administered by the Church Commissioners, the body largely responsible for the payment of clergy stipends and pensions.

The Anglican Communion

The Anglican Communion comprises 27 autonomous provinces in Britain and overseas and three regional councils overseas with a total membership of about 65 million. In the British Isles, there are four provinces: the Church of England (established), the Church in Wales, the Scottish Episcopal Church in Scotland, and the Church of Ireland.

Every ten years the Lambeth Conference meets for unofficial consultation among all Anglican bishops (the last meeting was in 1978); presided over by the Archbishop of Canterbury, it has no executive authority, but enjoys great prestige, and its findings on doctrine, discipline, relations with other communions, and attitudes to political and social questions are widely studied. The Anglican Consultative Council—an assembly of laymen and clergy as well as bishops which meets every two or three years—is designed to provide consultations within the Anglican Communion and to serve as an instrument of common action. The Council last met in 1981.

The Church of Scotland

The Church of Scotland has a presbyterian form of government. Its status as the national church derives from the Treaty of Union 1707 and the Church of Scotland Act 1921 which confirmed its complete freedom in all spiritual matters. It appoints its own officers, and its decisions on questions of doctrine and discipline are not subject to parliamentary discussion or modification.

All ministers have equal status, each of 1,829 churches being governed locally by the Kirk Session, consisting of the minister and the elected elders of the Church; above the Kirk Session is the Court of the Presbytery, then the Court of the Synod, and finally the General Assembly, consisting of elected ministers and elders, which meets annually under the presidency of an elected moderator who serves for one year. The Sovereign is represented at the General Assembly by the Lord High Commissioner. The adult communicant membership of the Church of Scotland is estimated at over 938,000.

The Free Churches

The expression 'Free Churches' is commonly used to describe those Protestant churches in England and Scotland which, unlike the Church of England and the Church of Scotland, are not established. In the course of history they have developed their own convictions in church order and worship.

The Methodist Church, the largest of the Free Churches with nearly 500,000 adult full members, originated in the eighteenth century following the evangelical revival under John Wesley, and is based on a 1932 union of most of the separate Methodist Churches. The Methodist Churches which

did not join the union include the Independent Methodists (4,500 members) and the Wesleyan Reform Union (with some 3,700 members). The Methodist Church in Ireland has some 39,000 members in Northern Ireland.

The Baptists are nearly all grouped in associations of churches, most of which belong to the Baptist Union of Great Britain and Ireland (formed in 1813), with a total membership of about 170,000; in addition, there are separate Baptist Unions for Scotland, Wales and Ireland and other Baptist churches.

The United Reformed Church, with some 148,000 members, was formed in 1972 when the Congregational Church in England and Wales (the oldest community of dissenters in Britain) and the Presbyterian Church of England merged—the first transdenominational union of churches in Britain since the Reformation in the sixteenth century. In 1981 there was a further union with the Re-formed Association of the Churches of Christ.

Among the other Free Churches are the Presbyterian Church in Ireland (with some 133,000 regular communicants in Northern Ireland); the Presbyterian (or Calvinistic Methodist) Church of Wales, which arose from the revivalist movement led in 1735 by Howell Harris; the Union of Welsh Independents; the Free Church of Scotland; the United Free Church of Scotland; the Free Presbyterian Church of Scotland; the Reformed Presbyterian Church of Scotland; the Reformed Presbyterian Church of Ireland; and the Non-Subscribing Presbyterian Church of Ireland.

Other Protestant denominations include: the Churches of Christ (known also in the United States as Disciples of Christ), which have been an organised community in Britain since early in the nineteenth century; the British Province of the Moravian Church, which is an international missionary church; the Free Church of England (or Reformed Episcopal Church), which was formed in 1844 as a direct result of the Oxford Movement; and the Congregational Federation, formed from Congregational churches which did not enter the United Reformed Church. There are also the Pentecostals, who are increasing in numbers. Their two main bodies operating in Britain are the Assemblies of God and the Elim Pentecostal Church, many of whose members are of West Indian origin. There are a number of small West Indian churches, whose membership together amounts to well over 80,000, and various African churches with a membership of 22,000.

The Religious Society of Friends (Quakers), with about 18,550 members in Britain and over 440 places for worship, came into being in the middle of the seventeenth century under the leadership of George Fox and works for peace and the relief of suffering in many parts of the world.

The Salvation Army, founded in Britain in 1865, has since spread to 86 other countries and has a strength of about 2 million. Within Britain it has some 75,000 active members operating from more than 1,000 centres of worship. Believing in a very practical expression of Christian concern, the Salvation Army has 200 centres to help people in need.

There are also a number of other religious organisations with churches or assemblies in Britain, including the Unitarian and Free Christian Churches, the Jehovah's Witnesses, the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints (the Mormon Church); and the Christian Scientists with 262 branch churches and societies in the British Isles.

The Roman Catholic Church

The Roman Catholic hierarchy in England and Wales, which became temporarily extinct during the sixteenth century, was restored in 1850; the Scottish hierarchy became extinct in the early seventeenth century and was restored in 1878. There are now seven Roman Catholic provinces in Great Britain, each under an archbishop, 29 episcopal dioceses, and over 3,000 parishes. In Northern Ireland, there are six dioceses, some of which have territory partly in the Irish Republic. It is estimated that there are some 5 million adherents (including children) to the Roman Catholic faith in the whole of Britain. In 1982 Pope John Paul II paid a pastoral visit to the Roman Catholic community in Britain, the first by a reigning pontiff.

The Roman Catholic Church attaches great importance to the education of its children and requires its members to try to bring up their children in the Catholic faith. Many schools for Catholic children are staffed by members of the religious orders who also undertake other social work such as nursing, child care, and the conduct of homes for old people.

Jewry

Jews first settled in England at the time of the Norman conquest, but the community in Britain dates from 1656; consisting of some 400,000 people, including both Sephardi (originally from Spain and Portugal) and Ashkenazi (from Germany and Eastern Europe), it has become one of the largest groups of Jews in Europe. The community is divided into two schools of thought—the Orthodox, to which about 80 per cent of practising Jews belong; and the Reform, which originated in 1840 and was followed in 1901 by the Liberal Jewish movement. The Chief Rabbi is the head of the largest group (Ashkenazi) within Orthodox Jewry; the Haham is the head of the Sephardi group. Jewish congregations in Britain number about 300. Jewish denominational schools are attended by about one in four Jewish children.

Other Religious Communities

Immigrants to Britain from Commonwealth and foreign countries have established centres of worship, especially in London, for their own communities. Among the Christian communities represented are Orthodox, Lutheran and Reformed Churches of various European countries and the Armenian Church.

The principal non-Christian communities in Britain, apart from the Jews, are the Muslims, Hindus, Sikhs and Buddhists. For the many Muslims there are mosques or Islamic centres in London, Birmingham, Manchester, Cardiff, Glasgow and in many other large cities. The community's most important institution is the London Central Mosque and Islamic Cultural Centre. There are several hundred Hindu and Sikh temples in places where Indians have settled, and arrangements have been made in many places of work to allow the members of eastern religions to follow their religious observances.

The Buddhist Society, with headquarters in London, publishes and makes known the principles of Buddhism and encourages their study and practice. It adheres to no one school of Buddhism.

Co-operation among the Churches

The British Council of Churches, with representatives or observers from all the main Christian churches in the British Isles, facilitates common action and seeks to further Christian unity. It works through five divisions: Christian Aid (which has a separate constitution); Conference for World Mission; Ecumenical Affairs; Community Affairs; and International Affairs.

The Free Church Federal Council (which has a concordat with the

British Council of Churches) comprises most of the Free Churches of England and Wales. It promotes unity and joint action among the Free Churches and is a channel for communication with central and local government.

The permanent Anglican-Roman Catholic Commission explores points of possible unity between the two communions.

The Anglican and the main Free Churches also participate in the World Council of Churches (of which the British Council of Churches is an associated national council) which links together some 300 churches in over 100 countries for co-operation and the study of common problems. The Council of Christians and Jews works for better understanding among members of the two religions and deals with problems in the social field. The British Council of Churches has also established a Committee for Relations with People of Other Faiths.

The Sharing of Church Buildings Act 1969 enables agreements to be made by two or more churches for the sharing of church buildings.

NATIONAL ECONOMY

Britain is a trading nation, exporting a higher proportion of its production of goods and services than any other industrial country of comparable size (31 per cent of gross domestic product—GDP). This is a far higher share than in the United States or Japan and is also higher than in two of Britain's larger partners in the European Community (France and the Federal Republic of Germany).¹

Britain accounts for 5–6 per cent of world exports, and is fourth in its share of world exports (after the United States, the Federal Republic of Germany and Japan). It is one of the world's largest importers of agricultural products, raw materials and semi-manufactures and is among the largest exporters of aerospace products, motor vehicles, electrical equipment, finished textiles and most types of machinery. Britain is also self-sufficient in oil in overall terms.

The British economy is primarily based on private enterprise and government policy is aimed at encouraging the private sector. There are some major public corporations, accounting for about 9 per cent of all employees, while the public sector as a whole employs about 34 per cent.

The traditional economic strength of Britain, as a pioneer in the Industrial Revolution, was based on manufacturing. More recently there has been a decline in the relative importance of manufacturing and a rise in that of services. This pattern is in evidence throughout the industrialised world, where the industrial sector accounted for 32 per cent of total employment in 1980 compared with 36 per cent in the late 1960s. The trend has coincided with a rise in the relative importance of manufacturing in the developing countries.

Less than 3 per cent of Britain's employed labour force is engaged in agriculture—a lower proportion than in any other major industrial country. However, because of a high level of productivity, Britain is able to produce more than half of its own food.

Britain's energy position has been transformed in the last decade. With the discovery and exploitation of oil and natural gas from the Continental Shelf under the North Sea, the country has become self-sufficient in energy in net terms. The output of the petroleum and natural gas industry amounted to about £12,000 million in 1981, equivalent to nearly 6 per cent of GDP. It has also been of great importance to the balance of payments, and substantial revenues from taxation have helped to ease the pressure of government borrowing and other forms of taxation, thus making an important contribution to the Government's medium-term strategy against inflation. Coal has traditionally played an important role as a source of energy and still accounts for some 37 per cent of Britain's needs; its value has been enhanced by the substantial increase in world oil prices since 1973.

¹On the basis of relative prices in the major industrial countries, Britain was tenth in terms of GDP per head in 1980.

The most significant change in Britain's trading patterns over the last decade has followed from its joining the European Community in 1973. Between 1972 and 1980 the proportion of Britain's visible exports going to other Commonwealth countries fell from 18 per cent to 13 per cent while that going to other Community countries rose from 31 per cent to 43 per cent. Trade with the newly industrialising countries, including Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan and Malaysia, has also risen substantially.

The broad historical pattern of Britain's overseas trade has been a deficit on visible trade offset by a surplus on invisible transactions (but there was a surplus on visible trade in 1980 and 1981); these include, for example, transactions relating to international investment, travel, shipping and financial services. In 1981 earnings from invisibles comprised over one-third of Britain's earnings on current account. In 1980 Britain accounted for 9 per cent of world invisible receipts (excluding government transactions). The significant contribution made by invisibles to the current account is largely a reflection of Britain's position as a major financial centre. The banks, insurance underwriters and brokers, and other financial institutions of the City of London provide world-wide financial services, and the City contains perhaps the most comprehensive and advanced capital market in the world.

ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Post-war Developments

In the period since the end of the second world war in 1945 there has been a marked rise in living standards, the emergence of new industries and the renewal and improvement of much of the country's infrastructure. At the same time, in spite of short periods of rapid economic growth, the rate of growth has been low in comparison with the rates in most other industrialised countries, averaging 2-3 per cent annually up to 1973 but only about 1 per cent in subsequent years. Although attention has been paid throughout the period to achieving higher levels of exports (with considerable success, the proportion of GDP exported rising from under 20 per cent in 1950 to 31 per cent in 1981), the economy, during the years of fixed exchange rates and before the growth of North Sea oil production, was vulnerable to balance-of-payments problems, with a strong rise in imports at times of expansion. The effects bore most heavily on the reserves of gold and foreign currencies and led repeatedly to the imposition of restraints on home demand, as part of a pattern which became known as 'stop-go'.

Inflation and Competitiveness

Since the late 1960s the rise in wage and price inflation has had adverse effects on competitiveness, profitability and business confidence. This has been associated with an increase in unemployment over the same period. At various times governments have attempted to control pay rises by means of voluntary or statutory controls on incomes and also, periodically, on prices but such policies have been largely unsuccessful. Following the five-fold increase in world oil prices in 1973-74, which was accommodated by a rapid growth in money supply and public spending, the annual inflation rate reached a peak of 24 per cent in 1975. After falling into single figures in 1978 and early 1979, inflation again rose rapidly, reaching 22 per cent in May 1980, partly as a result of the doubling of oil prices in 1979. The growth in earnings also accelerated, particularly in the 1979-80 pay round when they rose by 22 per cent. Subsequently, restrictive monetary and fiscal policies, reflected partly in a generally strong exchange rate assisted by the general weakness of world commodity prices in 1981 and 1982, have resulted in a sharp fall in the rate of inflation, to 8 per cent in August 1982. Pay

settlements have also moderated sharply; average earnings rose by an underlying rate of about 9 per cent in the year to July 1982.

In the late 1970s British manufacturers' unit wage and salary costs rose more than in competitor countries, but the depreciation of sterling until 1978 more than offset this. Between 1978 and 1980, however, sterling appreciated, adding to the decline in competitiveness. Since the end of 1980 British manufacturers' unit wage and salary costs have risen very little; in the year to July 1982 they rose by just 5 per cent, an increase comparable to that of major competitors. This reflects the greater moderation in pay settlements and the substantial rise in manufacturing productivity since the end of 1980. By the second quarter of 1982 manufacturing productivity was 7 per cent higher than a year earlier, a far larger increase than would normally have been expected at this stage of the cycle.

Output and Employment

The rate of growth of industrial output (apart from North Sea oil—see below) and, within this, of manufacturing output, has declined in recent years relative to the rest of the economy. Industrial output rose by some 3 per cent a year in the decade or so to 1973 (much the same as for the economy as a whole) but has since fallen. The relative decline partly reflects strong competition in overseas markets from newly industrialising as well as from other developed countries. Many industries have undergone considerable reorganisation to improve competitiveness. A number of them, such as aerospace, chemicals, oil, gas and electronics, have gained strength while textiles and some other traditional industries, including steel and shipbuilding, have contracted, shifting emphasis to more profitable or specialised products. Regional policies, promoted by successive governments, have encouraged the development of newer manufacturing and service employment and improved the environment to attract firms to areas of high unemployment.

Total output fell by 6 per cent between the second half of 1979 (the previous cyclical peak) and the second quarter of 1981 (the trough of the current recession). The fall was concentrated in the manufacturing and construction industries, where output fell by about one-sixth over the period. After recovering during the second half of 1981, output remained broadly unchanged in the first half of 1982. By the second quarter of 1982 total output was about 1 per cent higher than in the second quarter of 1981.

Although total employment was still falling in early 1982, the rate of decline was generally smaller than it had been at the end of 1980. Other labour market indicators have improved. Total hours worked and overtime in manufacturing have risen and short-time working has fallen. The number of registered vacancies in June 1982 was 34 per cent higher than the low point in December 1981.

Overseas Sector

The strength of overseas invisible earnings has been maintained by the continued adaptation to new conditions and growth in world markets of insurance, banking, tourism, construction, consultancy and other services. Direct investment overseas which, until the abolition of exchange controls in 1979 had usually to be financed in foreign currency, has helped to build up inflows of interest, profits and dividends. All constraints previously imposed on portfolio investment have also been removed and in 1981 private portfolio investment overseas by British residents was over four times the 1979 figure.

Oil and Gas

The beneficial effects of growing North Sea oil and gas production on the balance of payments were apparent over the second half of the 1970s, when a deficit on the oil account of nearly £4,000 million in 1976 was turned into a favourable balance of over £250 million by 1980. In 1974 oil accounted for some 4 per cent of Britain's exports and 19 per cent of imports; by 1980 both proportions were 13 per cent. Exports, mainly to other European Community countries, account for about half of domestic production. They are largely offset in balance-of-payments terms by imports of other grades of crude oil from the Middle East and elsewhere.

Sterling

These developments contributed to the strengthening of the pound in foreign exchange markets where, to some extent, it has the status of a 'petro-currency', with the attendant risks of fluctuations, in both directions, in its value. During 1980 sterling appreciated markedly but it fell back in 1981 before stabilising again. Government policy is to prevent undue fluctuations in the level of sterling but to allow the rate to be determined primarily by the balance of market forces. By July 1982 the rate against the dollar was £1 = \$1.73.

ECONOMIC POLICY

The Government's main policy objectives are to reduce the rate of inflation over the medium term and to create conditions necessary for a sustainable growth in output and employment. It is committed to a continuing reduction in the growth of the money stock and to the pursuit of complementary fiscal policies to maintain downward pressure on interest rates. This requires moderating public sector expenditure and seeking to reduce public borrowing as a proportion of GDP. The strategy also entails policies to improve the supply side of the economy, such as a reduction in direct taxation, the encouragement of small firms and new enterprise, the provision of a more effective framework for industrial relations and the removal of administrative controls on prices, wages, dividends and outward capital movements.

Monetary policy is directed towards a reduction in the annual rate of growth of both broad and narrow measures of the money supply in the medium term. The target range for the growth of the money supply in 1982-83 is 8 to 12 per cent. Other factors, such as progress in reducing inflation and movements in the exchange rate, are taken into account in assessing monetary conditions. The ratio of the Government's borrowing requirement to GDP in 1982-83 is forecast at some 3.5 per cent, similar to the estimated outturn in 1981-82.

ECONOMIC MANAGEMENT

The Treasury has prime responsibility for the formulation and conduct of economic policy, which also involves the Departments of Trade, Industry, Employment, Energy, the Environment and Transport and the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food. Other bodies are concerned with specific aspects of economic policy. These include the Bank of England (the central bank), the National Economic Development Council, which brings together representatives of government, management and trade unions under the chairmanship of the Prime Minister, the Office of Fair Trading (see p 208) and the Monopolies and Mergers Commission (see p 208).

On matters of major public policy such as the broad economic strategy, and on the economic problems it faces, the Government makes known its purposes and keeps in touch with developments throughout the economy

by means of informal and continuous links with the chief industrial, financial, labour and other interests. Final responsibility for the broad lines of economic policy rests with the Cabinet.

In 1981 gross domestic product at factor cost (the total value of goods and services produced at home) is estimated to have been £211,000 million. After allowing for price changes the increase since 1971 was 13 per cent. Production in Britain is relatively heavily orientated towards services, which in 1981 accounted for 64 per cent of GDP. Table 9 contains an analysis of GDP by industry; the general features of industrial activity in Britain are described more fully in Chapter 11.

Table 9: Gross Domestic Product by Industry^a

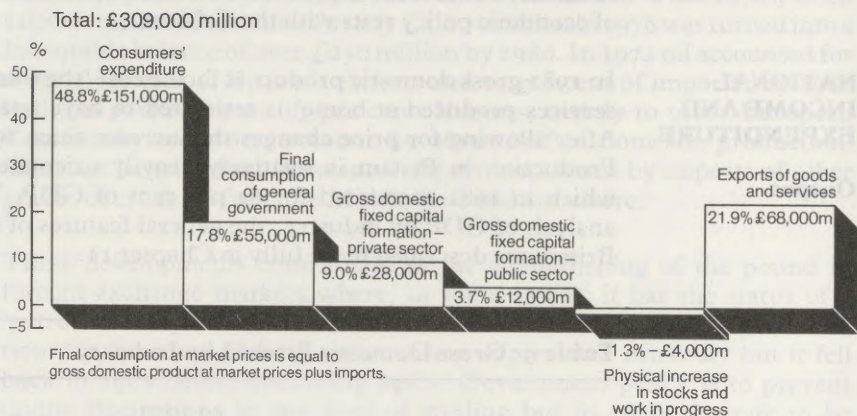
	1971		1981	
	£ million	per cent	£ million	per cent
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	1,435	2.9	4,867	2.3
Petroleum and natural gas	18	0.0	11,972	5.7
Other mining and quarrying	668	1.3	3,455	1.6
Manufacturing	15,712	31.7	49,916	23.7
Construction	3,431	6.9	13,545	6.4
Gas, electricity and water	1,575	3.2	6,670	3.2
Transport	2,932	5.9	10,935	5.2
Communication	1,166	2.4	5,858	2.8
Distributive trades	5,321	10.7	20,088	9.5
Insurance, banking and finance	3,631	7.3	19,251	9.1
Ownership of dwellings	2,627	5.3	13,869	6.6
Professional and scientific services	5,044	10.2	28,467	13.5
Miscellaneous services	3,747	7.6	20,057	9.5
Public administration and defence	3,385	6.8	15,988	7.6
Adjustment for financial services	- 1,586	- 3.2	- 12,370	- 5.8
Residual error	432	0.9	- 1,780	- 0.8
Gross domestic product at factor cost	49,538	100.0	210,788	100.0

Source: *National Income and Expenditure 1982 Edition*
^aBefore provision for depreciation but after deducting stock appreciation.

The diagram shows that in 1981 Britain consumed 67 per cent of what it produced (final consumption of general government added to consumers' expenditure). Between 1971 and 1981 the proportion of final expenditure devoted to exports rose from 19 per cent to 22 per cent.

Personal incomes at current prices before tax, rose rapidly and fairly steadily from £48,000 million in 1971 to £220,000 million in 1981. In real terms (that is, excluding the effects of inflation), however, personal disposable income was 2 per cent lower in 1981 than in 1980.

Final Expenditure at Market Prices in 1981



That part of personal pre-tax income which is not taken in taxes or national insurance is used for consumption or else is saved (see Chapter 18 for some channels for personal savings). Consumers' expenditure amounted to 69 per cent of pre-tax income in 1981 compared with 74 per cent in 1971; there was a rise in saving as a percentage of income from 7.5 per cent in 1971 to 13.4 per cent in 1981. (A rise in the personal savings ratio during periods of inflation may reflect people's wish to compensate for the decline in the real value of assets fixed in money terms.)

Sources of Income

The proportion of total personal income accounted for by income from employment was 67 per cent in 1981; average gross weekly earnings in April 1981 in Great Britain were £137 for full-time adult male workers (21 and over) and £89 for full-time adult female workers (18 and over). The three other main sources of personal income were self-employment (8 per cent), income from rent, dividends and interest (10 per cent) and grants from general government (14 per cent). The diagram on page 193 shows the effect of taxes on the distribution of income.

Consumers' Expenditure

The diagram on page 194 shows the pattern of consumers' expenditure in 1981. Food, alcoholic drink, housing, fuel and light, and clothing and footwear together accounted for over half the total. Consumers' expenditure increased hardly at all in real terms between 1980 and 1981. The changes in the pattern between 1971 and 1981 in Britain were paralleled in other industrialised countries with declining proportions spent on food, tobacco, and clothing and footwear.

Current Government Expenditure

Current expenditure on goods and services by central government and local authorities rose by 24 per cent in real terms over the period 1971–81, when it amounted to 21 per cent of gross domestic product. The main cause of this was the growth over the period of the social services, especially education and the National Health Service.

In addition to their expenditure on goods and services, public authorities transfer large sums to other sectors, mainly the personal sector, by way of national insurance and other social security benefits, grants, and interest and subsidies. Central government also makes grants to local authorities to finance about one-half of their current expenditure.

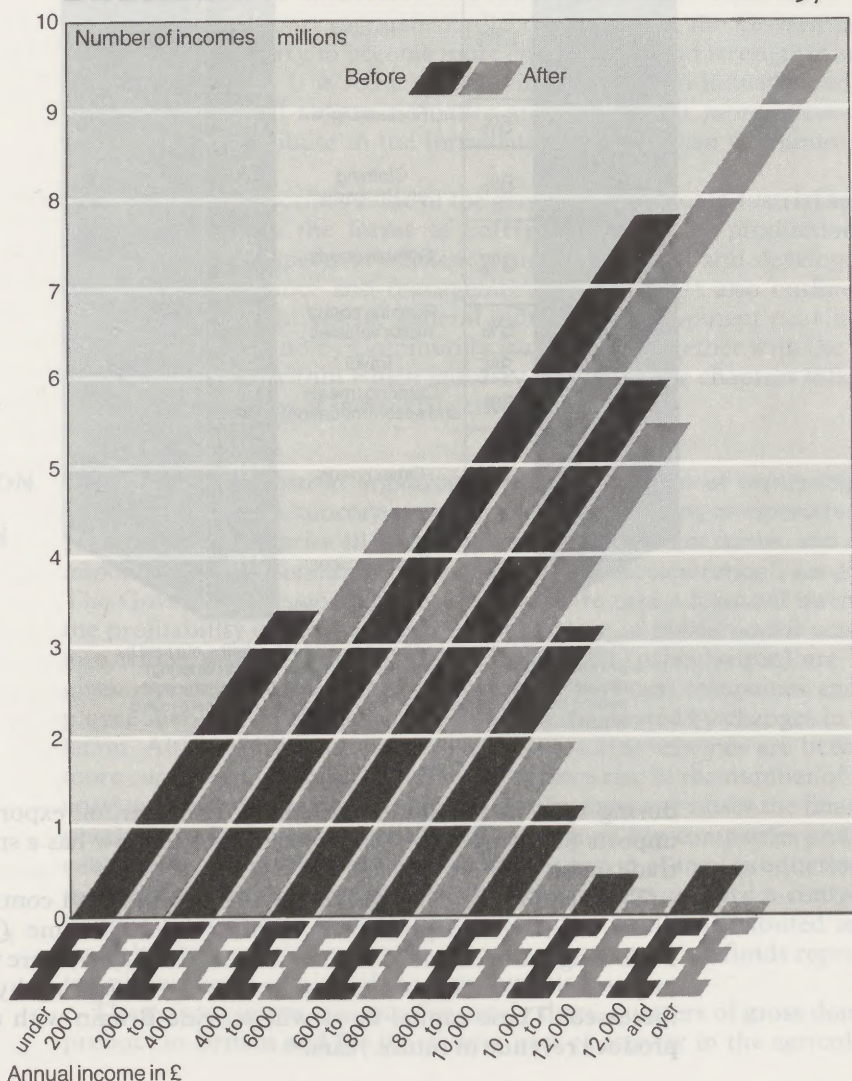
Investment

Gross domestic fixed capital formation (total fixed investment) represents 13 per cent of total final expenditure. Excluding the value of the physical change in stocks and work in progress, the private sector accounted for 71 per cent of gross domestic fixed capital formation in 1981 and the public sector for 29 per cent, compared with 58 per cent and 42 per cent respectively in 1971.

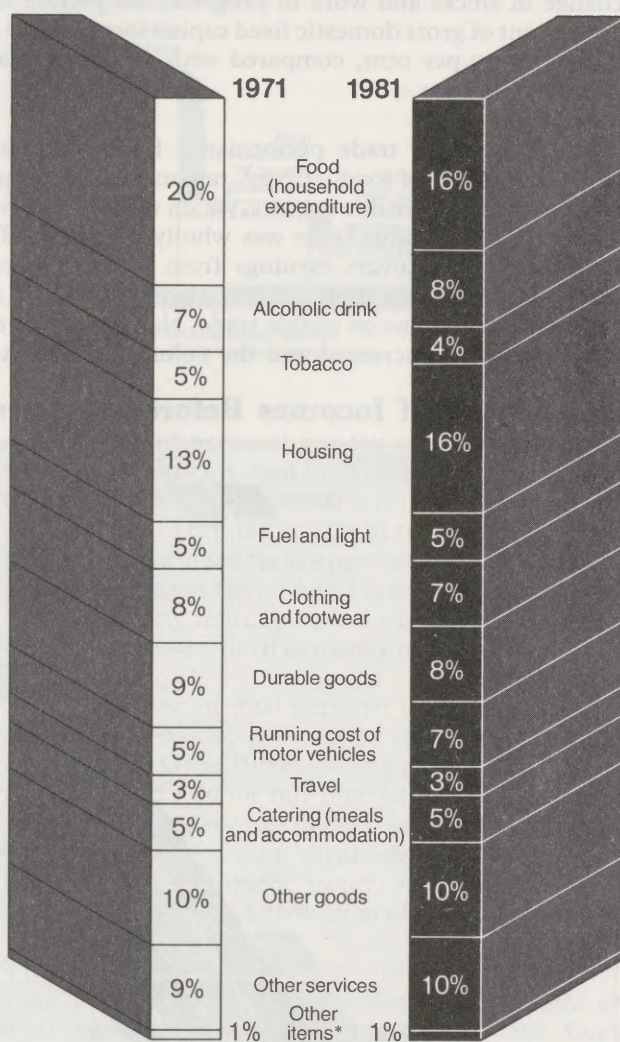
THE EXTERNAL POSITION

Britain's overseas trade performance fluctuated during the 1970s. In general, imports of food, energy, raw materials and manufactured goods were greater than visible exports, which were largely manufactured goods. This deficit on visible trade was wholly or partly offset by a surplus on invisibles which covers earnings from services, together with interest, profits and dividends, and transfers. However, in 1980 and 1981 there was a considerable surplus on visible trade. Non-oil trade recorded a surplus in 1980 as exports increased and the volume of imports fell. Imports rose

Distribution of Incomes Before and After Tax: 1978-79



Components of Consumers' Expenditure in 1971 and 1981



* Consumers' expenditure abroad plus wages, salaries, etc paid by private non-profit-making bodies (apart from those in catering) plus capital consumption of assets owned by private non-profit-making bodies plus income in kind not included elsewhere minus expenditure by foreign tourists, etc in Britain.

during 1981 with a fall in destocking. However, oil exports exceeded oil imports for the first time in 1980 and Britain now has a small surplus on trade in oil.

The surplus of £3,023 million on invisibles in 1981 contributed further to an estimated surplus on current account of some £6,000 million. Following the abolition of exchange controls in 1979, there was a sharp rise in portfolio investment overseas and overseas lending by British banks increased. These capital flows will provide Britain with assets that will produce revenue in future years.

II FRAMEWORK OF INDUSTRY

Among the most prominent trends in industrial activity in Britain during the 1970s and early 1980s have been the growth of the offshore oil and gas industries together with related products and services; the rapid development of electronic and microelectronic technologies and their application to a wide range of other sectors; and a continuous rise in the service industries' share of total employment. Following the increase in world oil prices in 1979, Britain, along with most other countries with similarly advanced economies, experienced an industrial recession. Until the middle of 1981 output fell, then recovered somewhat while productivity increased strongly.

In order to support re-expansion in the economy, the Government is encouraging industry to become more competitive, and strengthening the small firms sector. It is reducing state involvement in industry and concentrating regional aid on a smaller area to make it more effective. It continues to contribute to the formulation of European Community industrial policies.

This chapter describes some of the general features of industrial activity in Britain such as the forms of enterprise, trends in production and investment, and aspects of efficiency such as research and development, technological advance and management education. It also outlines the framework of incentives for general industrial development provided by the Government, and by Community institutions, together with the regulatory framework within which industry operates. The chapters following cover the main areas of industrial activity.

ORGANISATION AND PRODUCTION

The forms of industrial organisation and the pattern of ownership and control are varied. Unincorporated, corporate (including co-operative) and public sector enterprise all assume a number of different forms, and all are important in the economy. (For a definition of 'incorporation', see p 210.) The Government is encouraging employees to take a financial interest in the profitability of their companies. Employees in public sector concerns into which private capital is being introduced (privatisation) are being given a preferential right to buy shares in their new companies and employee share-ownership in general has been facilitated by changes in legislation. Although still not numerous, co-operative schemes are becoming more common and since 1980 there has been a rise in the number of 'buy-outs' in which the staff, or management, of a company raises the finance to purchase it. In some sectors a small number of big companies and their subsidiaries are responsible for a great proportion of total production (see p 212). However, it is rare for a few shareholders to have a controlling interest since shares in these companies are usually distributed among many holders or held by insurance companies or pension funds representing a broad cross-section of the community.

The private sector accounts for nearly three-quarters of gross domestic product in Britain and for the greater part of activity in the agricultural,

mining and quarrying (apart from coal), manufacturing (except steel and shipbuilding), construction, distributive, financial and miscellaneous service industries. Industries in public sector ownership include most of the energy, transport and communications industries.

The private sector comprises some 2 million unincorporated businesses (sole traders and partnerships) and 800,000 corporate enterprises (companies), with a combined labour force of 16 million in 1981. There are about 17 major public corporations and the labour force in the public sector is about 2 million. Unincorporated businesses, corporate enterprises and public sector enterprises contribute about 19, 51 and 11 per cent of gross domestic product respectively (the remainder being accounted for by central and local government).

Most of Britain's large firms in the private sector are classified, under company law, as 'public' companies, while the great majority of small companies are 'private' (see p 211). At the end of 1981 there were about 8,000 public companies and 792,000 private companies.

The largest organisations are shown in Table 10. Altogether about 60 companies registered in Britain each had net assets of over £500 million in 1981. In terms of annual sales four of the top 20 industrial groups in Europe were British, with British Petroleum first and Shell Transport and Trading third. Alongside these large organisations the many hundreds of thousands of small firms play an essential part in the economy.

Industrial Association

Voluntary associations representing private enterprises, and covering, with varying completeness, most of British industry, exist for a number of different purposes, including the provision of common services, the exchange of information and representation of their members' point of view, and negotiation with trade unions on wages and conditions of work. The majority are either trade associations or employers' organisations. Trade associations, concerned mainly with representation to the Government, the provision of common services and the regulation of trading practices, are normally composed of concerns manufacturing or retailing a particular product or group of products. Employers' organisations established on a national basis are usually concerned with negotiation of wages and conditions of work; they normally consist of concerns engaged in the same type of operation or manufacturing process. In an industrial sector concerned wholly with an allied group of products, one association may undertake the functions of both a trade association and an employers' organisation.

The central body representing British business and industry nationally is the Confederation of British Industry (CBI), recognised by the Government as a channel for consultation between government departments and representatives of both private and public sector employers.

The CBI represents directly and indirectly more than 300,000 companies through parent companies, subsidiaries, employers' organisations, trade and commercial associations and the majority of the nationalised industries. For its members it acts as an advisory and consultative body providing them with information and statistics, ascertaining their collective views and representing them nationally to the Government and the public and also internationally (see p 317). CBI representatives sit on bodies such as the National Economic Development Council, the Manpower Services Commission, the Health and Safety Commission, and the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service. The Institute of Directors has a representative role for directors of all types of company.

Table 10: Largest Industrial Organisations

Ranked by turnover	£ million	Ranked by assets employed	£ million
Private sector^a		Private sector^a	
British Petroleum Company	30,624	British Petroleum Company	16,614
Shell Transport and Trading	18,782	Shell Transport and Trading	9,198
BAT Industries	9,265	Imperial Chemical Industries	5,294
Imperial Chemical Industries	6,581	Rio-Tinto Zinc Corporation	3,828
Esso Petroleum Company	5,324	BAT Industries	3,524
Shell UK	5,182	Shell UK	3,520
Unilever	4,935	Esso Petroleum Company	3,044
Imperial Group	4,526	Unilever	2,377
General Electric Company	3,462	Grand Metropolitan	2,264
Grand Metropolitan	3,221	General Electric Company	1,796
Czarnikow Group	3,123	Ford Motor Company	1,638
Ford Motor Company	3,073	BOC Group	1,432
Public sector^b			
Electricity Council and Boards	8,471		
British National Oil Corporation	5,752		
British Telecom	5,708		
British Gas Corporation	5,235		
National Coal Board	4,728		
British Steel Corporation	3,443		

Source: *Extel Statistical Services and annual reports of public corporations.*

^aFinancial year ended in 1981.

^bFor year ended March 1982.

Chambers of commerce are open to all kinds of producers and traders and exist to promote the interests of local, regional and national industry and commerce. The chambers provide export facilities, including export documentation and the sponsorship of outward trade missions and visits, as well as information services and training courses. The Association of British Chambers of Commerce is the co-ordinating body for 87 affiliated local chambers, whose member companies represent a majority of Britain's exporters and a significant number of the largest companies. British chambers of commerce also operate in 18 overseas countries. In Scotland there is an additional central organisation, the Association of Scottish Chambers of Commerce, and in Northern Ireland the Northern Ireland Chamber of Commerce and Industry, to which local chambers are affiliated. Other voluntary associations include industrial development associations for particular areas or regions, sponsored by local authorities, trade associations and individual firms.

Output

Industrial output in Britain has twice been affected by recession in the last decade, partly as a result of fluctuations in oil prices. The index of output indicates a decline for two years after 1973, a steady recovery between 1975 and 1979, and a further fall in 1980, and also in 1981, stabilising in the middle of the year. Manufacturing was especially affected in the more recent decline (see also p 213), together with construction, while the service industries experienced a less marked downturn in activity. In contrast, mining and quarrying output continued to rise (owing to the North Sea oil and gas industries). Table 11 shows the trend of output in 1980 and 1981 and the index of employment in 1981 revealing the shift away from employment in production industries and towards services.

Among traded services, growth in employment was especially strong in financial and business services (including insurance, banking, leasing and real estate) and in miscellaneous services, particularly hotels and catering.

Table 11: Industrial Output and Employment (Indices: 1975 = 100)

	Output per cent 1975	Index of Output		Employment per cent 1981	index 1981
		1980	1981		
Agriculture	2.8	122.6	121.7	1.7	90.7
Production industries^a	40.7	105.7	100.3	37.0	82.5
<i>of which :</i>					
Manufacturing	28.3	95.2	89.2	28.5	80.6
Mining and quarrying	1.7	312.9	332.4	1.6	94.3
Services	56.5	107.4	106.7	61.3	101.5
<i>of which :</i>					
Transport and communications	8.8	108.3	107.0	6.8	94.9
Distribution	10.1	104.6	104.1	12.4	95.4
Finance and business	7.3	114.0	119.0	5.8	111.8
Miscellaneous	7.3	113.0	109.0	11.4	105.0
Whole economy	100	107.1	104.5	100	93.3

Sources: *National Income and Expenditure 1982 Edition* and *Monthly Digest of Statistics*

^aThe other production industries are gas, electricity and water; and construction.

Productivity and Investment

The improvement of productivity is recognised as being of prime importance for the economy. Although output per head has generally been low in Britain by international standards, it rose sharply in 1981; the index for the whole economy was 111.7 (1975 = 100). Among the factors influencing productivity are capital investment, innovations and improvements in products and processes, and the performance of management and labour. The proportion of gross domestic product invested in Britain is about the same as that of other industrialised economies. Investment in some of the major sectors between 1977 and 1981 is shown in Table 12 (see also p 215). The figures for manufacturing industry do not include expenditure on leased assets, since these are attributed to the service industries on the basis of ownership. The practice of leasing has grown rapidly since the early 1970s.

Table 12: Gross Domestic Fixed Capital Formation in Major Sectors 1977-81 (1975 prices)

	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981
Mining and quarrying	1,975	1,942	1,669	1,687	1,747
Manufacturing	3,476	3,769	3,969	3,573	2,938
Gas, electricity and water	1,055	1,012	972	989	086
Transport and communications	2,065	1,961	1,972	2,154	1,786
Distributive trades	1,160	1,219	1,419	1,297	1,296
Other traded services ^a	2,462	2,923	3,568	3,929	4,195

Source: *National Income and Expenditure 1982 Edition*^a Financial and business services and miscellaneous services.

Technological Advance

Advanced applications of information technology (a major new sector in computing and telecommunications which have been brought together through advances in microelectronics) and biotechnology (the industrial application of biological organisms, systems or processes) are having profound effects on the pace of technological change. Extensive use of electronics and automated controls is to be found across the whole range of industry, both in production and services.

Britain was a pioneer in computers and has one of the largest computer industries outside the United States. It is ahead of most other countries in micro- and mini-computers. There are many advanced applications of computerised control in operation in both the public and private sectors of industry (for example, in steel mills, coal mines, oil refineries and chemical plants) and Britain is among the world's leading nations in the provision of 'software' services and systems (that is, the preparation of instructions for computer operations and related services). The importance of developments in microelectronics, in particular microprocessors, has been widely recognised, partly through government initiatives. In 1981 a campaign began to promote the awareness and use of information technology, which is providing the basis of a wide range of new products and services, and there are special schemes of support for the fibre-optics and opto-electronics industries, computer-aided design and manufacture, and industrial robots.

The use of robots in manufacturing industry is increasing rapidly, notably in the motor industry. According to the British Robot Association, Britain was the world's fifth largest user of robots in 1981, with more than 700 programmable robots installed in manufacturing plants, nearly double the figure for 1980. There are expected to be some 3,000 by 1985.

British industry has a long-standing involvement in biotechnology. Examples of processes in use or being developed are fermentation methods to manufacture penicillin; cell culture techniques to prepare interferon drugs; recombinant DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid) techniques to modify micro-organisms for the production of animal feed; the development of microbiological sources of protein and other chemicals from carbohydrates; and the biological processing of sewage and waste, including biogas, an alternative source of energy produced by anaerobic digestion. An interdepartmental committee was set up in 1982 to provide a governmental focus for biotechnology.

Research and Development

Industrial research and development is carried out mainly by firms themselves. Some 40 research associations, covering all areas of technology, conduct work mainly for member companies. Work is also done by independent contract research laboratories, universities and government research establishments, especially those for which the Department of Industry is responsible (see pp 203-4).

Industrial expenditure on research and development in 1978 was £2,324 million. The major part, £2,061 million, was accounted for by private sector companies. Public corporations spent a further £213 million and research associations £51 million. The main industrial sectors incurring expenditure on research and development were electronics (£650 million), chemicals and allied products (£432 million), aerospace (£425 million), mechanical engineering (£182 million) and motor vehicles (£130 million).

Management Education

The British Institute of Management, which is playing an increasingly representative role for the management and administrative professions, provides a wide range of information services and has a particular interest in management education and training. There are also a number of professional bodies concerned with standards and training in specialised branches of management.

A large proportion of management education is provided by polytechnics and many of the colleges of further education throughout Britain; 12 regional centres of management education have been established in England and Wales through the association of polytechnics and colleges which have high reputations for management and business studies. Universities also make an important contribution, especially the full-time post-graduate programmes at the business schools of London and Manchester Universities. Training courses for higher management are offered by several independent colleges including the Administrative Staff College, Henley-on-Thames, and Ashridge College of Management, Berkhamsted.

Many firms provide general management courses for senior executives or systems of informal training. (Industrial training and education below management level are summarised on pp 309 and 155.)

Engineering

An Engineering Council was set up under Royal Charter in 1981. Its objectives are to advance education in, and to promote the science and practice of, engineering for the public benefit and thereby promote industry and commerce in Britain. The Council has a duty to set up a register of professional engineers, technician engineers and engineering technicians and will set standards for education, training and experience which qualify people for entry on to the register. The Council is an independent body although the Government is providing initial funding of up to £1 million a year for the first three years, and during that period is responsible for approving the members of the Council.

Design

Design is a crucial factor in maintaining and improving the quality and competitiveness of manufactured goods. It receives continuous attention from industry and assistance is available from the government-sponsored Design Council, while the Computer-Aided Design Centre (see p 204) also provides assistance to individual firms. The Design Council has centres in London, Cardiff and Glasgow, and its services include advice on design matters, the organisation of product displays and overseas trade fairs, conferences and seminars on design, help for design education and the

publication of a range of materials. The Council also provides annual awards for consumer and engineering products and for medical equipment and motor vehicles. The Society of Industrial Artists and Designers is the representative professional body in Great Britain of industrial designers.

Specification Standards

The British Standards Institution (BSI) prepares and publishes standards which specify dimensions, performance and safety criteria, testing methods and codes of practice for a large range of products and processes in most fields of production. It is a voluntary non-profit-making body, funded by sales of standards, subscriptions and government grant. Voluntary acceptance of the standards by manufacturers, buyers and sellers reduces unnecessary variety and simplifies the specification of requirements. The board of BSI includes representatives of the main organisations of employers and workers, professional institutions, consumers and the larger government departments.

Measurement Standards

The National Physical Laboratory (NPL, see p 203), a research establishment of the Department of Industry, is responsible for providing the measurement standards and calibration facilities necessary to ensure that measurements in Britain are made on a common basis and to the required accuracy. Measurement standards bear directly on quality control in manufacture, efficiency in commerce and on health and safety. The NPL maintains links with national standards laboratories all over the world to ensure international compatibility in measurements essential for overseas trade and technological co-operation. Much of the dissemination of measurement standards is provided by the NPL's British Calibration Service (BCS), which comprises over 95 independent approved laboratories located in industry, universities and government establishments. These offer authenticated calibrations of scientific instruments and official certificates for electrical, mechanical, flow, optical, pressure, thermal and time interval measurements. BCS measurements are linked directly or indirectly, within known and approved uncertainties, to the national measurement standards at the NPL. The National Testing Laboratory Accreditation Scheme (NATLAS), also based at the NPL, grants official recognition to laboratories shown by independent assessors to carry out specific types of test. Many areas of objective testing are covered by the scheme. Its purpose is to enhance the standing of British testing laboratories and secure international acceptance of test results from accredited laboratories.

THE GOVERNMENT AND INDUSTRY

The chief aim of the industrial policy of the Government elected in 1979 is to encourage industrial enterprise and initiative in a flexible and competitive market economy. The extent of state ownership is being reduced, a review of industrial subsidies has been carried out (see p 205) and industrial investment agencies in the public sector have been encouraged to secure private sector participation in their projects. Competition policy (see p 208) has been strengthened in order to create a climate in which commerce can flourish. A further policy to promote efficiency and competitiveness takes the form of a campaign to enhance the status of standards and quality assurance. The Government is also encouraging the development of small businesses (see p 207) by reducing the administrative burdens laid on them and through taxation and other policies.

Successive governments have aimed to provide an environment favourable to industrial expansion. Encouragement for investment throughout

the economy is given by means of the tax system (see pp 326–30). For areas and industries with special needs and difficulties, there are schemes of financial and other aid, administered by a number of bodies, chiefly the Department of Industry. Aid provided by the Department in 1981–82 amounted to about £2,050 million, compared with £1,590 million in the previous year. The 1980–81 total comprised £800 million for regional and general support, £210 million for scientific and technological assistance, and £1,040 million for manufacturing activities directly sponsored by the Department (in aerospace, steel, shipbuilding and motor vehicles) but excluding the general financing of nationalised corporations. The largest component of regional and general industrial support has been the regional development grant scheme (£600 million in 1981–82). Various other agencies in the public sector provide aid, either for specific geographical areas, or for more closely defined activities (for enterprise zones, new towns and other urban area schemes, see pp 168–71). These national industrial aids are supplemented by assistance from European Community funds.

Direct investment from overseas is encouraged, and overseas firms are generally offered the same facilities and incentives as British-based companies.

Official recognition of outstanding industrial performance is conferred by the Queen's Awards for Export and Technology which are made annually to firms in all sectors of industry (including services) on the advice of a committee composed of businessmen, trade union representatives and civil servants.

Public Enterprise

Direct state participation in industry is mainly effected through public corporations known as nationalised industries. The major nationalised industries are the National Coal Board; British Gas; the electricity industry; the British National Oil Corporation; the British Steel Corporation; British Shipbuilders; the Post Office; British Telecom; British Rail; the National Bus Company; British Airways; and the British Airports Authority. These industries and services, which employ about 7 per cent of all employees, are described in their relevant sections.

As part of its economic policy the Government has introduced private capital into British Aerospace (see p 222) and the National Freight Corporation (now the National Freight Consortium, see p 285) and has taken powers to introduce private capital into the British National Oil Corporation's oil-producing business (see p 249).

To stimulate efficiency the Government has relaxed the statutory monopoly of some nationalised industries, including the Post Office, British Telecom and British Gas, and is considering legislation to carry the policy further.

The managing boards and staffs of the nationalised industries are not generally civil servants although they are responsible to ministers who in turn are accountable to Parliament for their actions in a variety of ways. The nationalised industries are responsible for their management, not the minister of the sponsoring departments. Ministers appoint (and may dismiss) the chairman and members of each board, and have power to give general directions as to how the industry should be run, but do not interfere in day-to-day management. In practice, there is very seldom occasion for a general directive to be issued. The Government's policy is to keep intervention to a minimum and to encourage the nationalised industries to behave as far as possible as commercial enterprises.

The Government does, however, set a financial framework within which the industries are expected to operate. A key feature of this is the setting, each year, of external financing limits on individual industries, which place a ceiling on the industries' ability to raise finance for capital expenditure from other than internal sources and thus on their contribution to public expenditure and the public borrowing requirement. Finance which cannot be found from internal sources is provided mainly by interest-bearing loans and grants from the Exchequer. Other sources of finance include short-term market borrowing, overseas borrowing, leasing, and public dividend capital on which dividends are paid to the Government. In addition financial targets have been set by the Government for most industries. The main form of target, usually set for three to five years, is a real return before interest on average net assets employed. It is the Government's policy to negotiate performance aims with each of the industries, expressed in terms of measures such as real unit costs.

Ministers are usually required to see that the interests of the industry's customers are protected (see p 210).

Government policy towards the nationalised industries is subject to the approval of Parliament and nationalised industry matters are investigated by parliamentary committees such as the Treasury and Civil Service Committee and the Public Accounts Committee.

Fiscal Investment Incentives

Incentives to encourage capital expenditure by industry on plant and machinery include a system of free depreciation enabling the whole of such expenditure to be written off against profits for tax purposes in the year in which it is incurred; there is in addition a 79 per cent allowance in the first year on new industrial buildings and structures and an annual writing down allowance of 4 per cent thereafter. Corporation tax relief on the inflationary increase in the value of stocks is also allowed (see p 328).

Financial Investment Incentives

The Department of Industry provides selective financial assistance for major investment projects in manufacturing industry which are judged to be in the national interest and which would not proceed without assistance. The Department also operates schemes of selective assistance to support the introduction by private industry of new products and processes. Particular importance is attached to encouraging industry to equip itself with modern aids to design and manufacture based on microelectronics.

Guarantees are provided for the repayment of loans and interest incurred in the purchase of new ships and mobile off-shore installations built in Britain.

Research and Development Support

Expenditure on research and development supported by the Department is aimed at the rapid exploitation of technology, emphasis being placed on partnership with the private sector. A growing proportion of expenditure is going towards work carried out in industry; other work is done at research associations and in government research establishments. The Department of Industry's research establishments are the National Physical Laboratory (responsible for measurement standards, see p 201, and for research and development in related fields of national importance, which include work on the properties of industrially important materials, computer technology and mathematical applications), the National Engineering Laboratory (research in mechanical engineering, including manufacturing systems and robotics), the Warren Spring Laboratory (control engineering, materials

handling, metal extraction, mineral processing, waste materials processing and environmental technology), the National Maritime Institute (which is to be converted into a non-governmental research body), the Computer-Aided Design Centre (development of computer software for use by manufacturing and process industries) and the Laboratory of The Government Chemist (providing analytical services mainly to central and local government, public institutions and international organisations).

‘Support for Innovation’, a scheme of assistance for industrial research and development, is provided by the Department on the advice of five sectoral requirements boards, whose members are mainly drawn from industry. The scheme, introduced in 1982, brings together the system of grants and shared-cost contracts for industrial research and development operated by the boards and the selective assistance scheme for new products and processes.

An Advisory Council for Applied Research and Development, whose members include representatives of industry, industrial research and the engineering profession, is a source of independent advice to ministers collectively on applied research and development in both the public and private sectors, the linkage between this research and scientific research supported by the Department of Education and Science, the development and application of technology, and on the role of Britain in international collaboration in such activities. The Council has published a number of reports on aspects of new technology. It is served by a secretariat in the Cabinet Office.

**British
Technology
Group**

Following the appointment in 1981 of a chairman common to the National Research Development Corporation and the National Enterprise Board, it was announced that the two bodies would merge. Legislation will be required to effect this. In the meantime a combined board of directors has been appointed and the bodies are operating in partnership as the British Technology Group.

*National
Research
Development
Corporation*

The National Research Development Corporation (NRDC) is an independent public corporation which was set up in 1949 to promote the development and the exploitation of new technology. Its two main activities are to exploit inventions developed in the universities and research council and government establishments, and to provide finance for innovation by industrial companies. The NRDC has a portfolio of 6,400 British and overseas patents and about 620 licensees, and also some 700 investments in development projects of which about 320 are joint ventures with industrial companies. It is expected to operate as a commercial organisation and has been profitable for many years. Some of the major technical achievements which it has exploited or supported include cephalosporin antibiotics, pyrethroid insecticides, glass-reinforced cement, carbon fibres, printed circuit boards, computers and computer software, computer-aided design, electric motors and hovercraft.

*National
Enterprise
Board*

A public corporation established in 1975, the National Enterprise Board (NEB), was issued with new guidelines in 1980 giving it an investment role in connection with: companies exploiting or developing advanced technologies; industrial undertakings in the English assisted areas; loans of up to £50,000 to small firms; and its existing investments. The NEB is expected to encourage maximum private sector participation in its ventures

and wherever practicable to make share investment only in conjunction with private share investment. It is also required to dispose of its share-holdings to private ownership as soon as it is commercially practicable, having regard to the interests of the companies concerned.

Regional Development

Economic imbalance between different parts of the country is due partly to the steady decline over the years, in certain regions, of older industries, such as coal, steel, shipbuilding and textiles, and partly to the tendency of the newer and expanding industries to develop elsewhere. Thus the traditional industrial areas, mainly in Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and some parts of England (particularly in the North and on Merseyside), have experienced higher unemployment rates than regions such as the Midlands and the South East, and have suffered from net outward migration and industrial dereliction. In order to restore the economies of these regions, the Government offers incentives to encourage industrial development. In Great Britain these regions are designated as 'assisted areas'; Northern Ireland is treated separately.

Assisted Areas

There are three categories of assisted area: special development, development, and intermediate, the need for assistance being considered most urgent in the first and least in the last. Following a review of the areas in 1979, when they covered more than 40 per cent of the working population, the Government reduced them until in August 1982 they covered about 27 per cent of the working population, in order to concentrate the available resources more effectively.

Incentives

Incentives to encourage industrial investment include regional development grants towards the cost of new fixed assets for manufacturing industries at the rate of 22 per cent in special development areas and 15 per cent in development areas; regional selective assistance for projects in manufacturing, mining or construction which safeguard or create jobs in any part of the assisted areas and strengthen the regional and national economy; grants for office and service industry jobs created in assisted areas together with employee removal grants; grants of 80 per cent of training costs (half of which is normally provided by the European Social Fund) for manufacturing and service projects where the training programme is essential to the project's success; and government factories and workshops at favourable rents.

Other Assisted Area Measures

Apart from direct incentives to industry in the assisted areas, firms in the special development and development areas may be given preferential treatment when tendering for public sector contracts, and special grants are available towards the improvement of the infrastructure in the assisted areas and towards the clearance of derelict land (see p 176).

Administrative Arrangements

The Department of Industry takes the lead in the formulation of regional industrial policy and administers the regional development grant scheme throughout Great Britain. Regional selective assistance is administered in England by the Department (with some powers delegated to its regional offices) and by the Scottish and Welsh Offices. Factories in the assisted areas are provided, often in association with the private sector, by the English Industrial Estates Corporation, and by the Scottish and Welsh Development Agencies.

Northern Ireland

The Industrial Development Board, formed in 1982 under the aegis of the new Northern Ireland Department of Economic Development, offers a similar range of incentives to those available in the assisted areas, sometimes at higher rates. Incentives automatically available to manufacturing industry include grants of up to 30 per cent of the cost of new fixed assets, training grants, grants for key workers moving to Northern Ireland, and the lowering of local authority rates for industrial premises. Manufacturing and service industry projects which create jobs may be eligible for grants of up to 50 per cent of the cost of new fixed assets, interest relief grants, factories on favourable rental terms, and grants to assist with setting-up costs and research and development costs. The Board can also provide equity and loan capital for new expanding businesses, assist the development of new high-technology products and processes, and promote joint ventures with overseas companies.

Development Agencies

The Scottish and Welsh Development Agencies promote industrial development in their respective countries. They encourage investment by overseas companies, provide equity and loan capital for industrial projects (which they are expected to do with a maximum of private sector participation), provide government factories, and have powers to assist small firms and undertake land reclamation.

Rural Industries

In the rural areas of England, assistance towards any scheme likely to benefit the local economy can be provided by the Development Commission. Through its agency, the Council for Small Industries in Rural Areas (CoSIRA), the Commission provides managerial and technical advice, training facilities and a credit service to small manufacturing and service industries in rural areas. Loans and advice are also provided by CoSIRA for small tourism enterprises in the rural parts of the assisted areas and in areas designated by the Commission as priority action areas. In addition, the Commission provides factory premises and support for pioneering and experimental schemes bearing on the rural economy and for voluntary bodies aiming to enrich social and cultural life in the countryside.

In Scotland and Wales these services are provided generally through the development agencies, but separate bodies cater for two particular rural areas. In north-west Scotland the Highlands and Islands Development Board provides loans and grants for viable projects in manufacturing, agriculture, fisheries and services, makes available training grants and advice, and builds factories. In mid-Wales the Development Board for Rural Wales provides factories, key worker housing and advice for small businesses. It has a general responsibility to promote the economic and social well-being of its area and a particular responsibility for the new town (Newtown, Powys) in its area.

Tourism

Government support for the tourist industry is provided by four statutory bodies: the British Tourist Authority, responsible for the overseas promotion of tourism in Great Britain and for providing advice to the Government on matters affecting tourism; and the English, Scottish and Wales Tourist Boards, which promote tourism in their respective countries within Britain, encourage the development and improvement of tourism accommodation and amenities, and administer grants or loans for projects improving tourist amenities, and interest relief grants. The Northern

Ireland Tourist Board has a promotional role similar to that of the other boards.

Small Firms

The Department of Industry has a separate division which is the focal point for the formation of policy towards the small business sector. The division, together with the Scottish Development Agency and the Welsh Office, administers the Small Firms Service which provides advice and guidance on a wide range of business problems affecting small firms and those seeking to set up business.

The Government has been particularly concerned since the late 1970s to encourage small firms. Recent measures include a pilot loan guarantee scheme and a business start-up scheme under which tax reliefs are available to private individuals investing in small businesses; other tax concessions have also been provided for small firms in recent years (see p 328). A one-year scheme to encourage small engineering firms to purchase advanced equipment has been introduced, a technical inquiry service has been set up and there have been experimental schemes to provide new premises. The development of new sources of venture capital has been encouraged. Among venture capital schemes are those run by public sector bodies, including the British Technology Group. A number of private sector initiatives have been made by the clearing banks and by groups of large firms and financial institutions. An export award for smaller manufacturers is made annually. Assistance for small firms is also provided by the development agencies and by the agencies for rural industry (see above). In Northern Ireland the Local Enterprise Development Unit, established to promote the development of smaller industries, provides grants, loans, premises and management advice to new and expanding companies.

European Community Regional Policy and Aid

European Community regional policy has two major aims: the reduction of existing regional imbalances; and the prevention of new imbalances arising from the adoption of Community policies. Although the principal responsibility for helping depressed areas remains with the national authorities concerned, the Community may complement schemes through aid from a number of sources.

European Regional Development Fund

The Regional Development Fund is the principal European Community instrument for regional development and assists regions affected by industrial change, structural under-employment and an over-reliance on agriculture. The Fund offers support for public works contributing to the improvement of the regional infrastructure, normally of up to 30 per cent of public authority costs, and grants of up to 50 per cent of assisted area funds paid to projects in manufacturing, service or handicraft industries.

Britain's share of the Fund in the period 1975-81 was over £760 million.

European Investment Bank

The European Investment Bank (EIB) is a self-governing institution set up by the Treaty of Rome with member states of the European Community subscribing to its capital. The Bank's aims are to help to stimulate development in less favoured regions, to modernise or convert industries, to help to create new activities and to offset structural difficulties affecting certain sectors. The EIB also serves projects of common interest to several member states or the Community as a whole. It has loaned over £2,000 million since 1973 for projects in Britain, mostly for public works such as the Sullom Voe oil terminal, and manufacturing projects in the assisted areas.

*European Coal
and Steel
Community*

The European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) makes loans to companies in the coal and steel industries, and for manufacturing projects which create new employment opportunities for redundant coal and steel workers. Non-repayable aid may be available for workers who have been made redundant. The ECSC can lend up to 50 per cent of the fixed capital costs of a project.

*Exchange Risk
Guarantee
Scheme*

Exchange risk cover may be provided by the Government on EIB and certain ECSC loans for projects qualifying for regional selective assistance. The British borrower takes on only a sterling liability.

**COMPETITION
POLICY AND
CONSUMER
PROTECTION**

A major feature of the Government's economic policy is the stimulation of competition and the control of practices which are restrictive or anti-competitive. Linked to this policy is the encouragement of fair trading, with the particular aim of helping consumers and safeguarding their rights. The Minister of State for Consumer Affairs, who is answerable to the Secretary of State for Trade, has special responsibilities for competition policy and consumer affairs (although certain matters, such as safety of foodstuffs and road vehicles, are the concern of other departments).

The Office of Fair Trading, an independent government agency headed by the Director General of Fair Trading, has various executive responsibilities relating to competition policy and consumer protection.

**Competition
Policy**

Competition policy has led to the development of machinery for scrutinising and regulating monopolies, mergers, anti-competitive practices and restrictive trade practices and of powers to regulate any structural changes or anti-competitive practices which operate against the public interest. The Director General of Fair Trading administers the Fair Trading Act 1973, which deals with monopolies and mergers, the Restrictive Trade Practices Act 1976, which deals with restrictive trading agreements, and the Competition Act 1980, which deals with anti-competitive practices.

*Monopolies and
Mergers*

The Secretary of State for Trade and the Director General of Fair Trading can refer monopolies for investigation by the Monopolies and Mergers Commission. The legislation defines a monopoly as a situation where at least a quarter of a particular kind of goods or service is supplied by or to a single person, or two or more people acting in a way which prevents, restricts, or distorts competition. Local monopolies and public sector industries can also be referred to the Commission. If the Commission finds that a monopoly operates against the public interest, the Secretary of State for Trade has powers to remedy or prevent the harm which the Commission considers may exist. Alternatively the Director General may be asked to negotiate undertakings to remedy the adverse effects identified by the Commission.

Proposals for a merger (defined as occurring when two or more enterprises are brought under common ownership or control) may be referred to the Commission by the Secretary of State for Trade if the merger would result in or intensify a monopoly or if the total value of gross assets taken over exceeds £15 million. If the Commission finds that a merger or proposed merger may be expected to operate against the public interest, the Secretary of State can prevent it from taking place or, if it has already taken place, require it to be reversed. There are special provisions for newspaper and certain other mergers.

Anti-competitive Practices

Subject to limited exemptions, the Director General can investigate any business practice (whether in the public or private sector) which may restrict, distort or prevent competition in the production, supply or acquisition of goods or services in Britain. If the Director General concludes that a practice is anti-competitive he may either accept an undertaking from the business responsible for the practice or, in default of such an undertaking, refer the matter to the Commission to establish whether it operates against the public interest. On an adverse finding by the Commission, the Secretary of State has powers to take remedial action.

The Public Sector

The Competition Act also empowers the Secretary of State to refer to the Monopolies and Mergers Commission any questions on the efficiency and costs of, the service provided by, or the possible abuse of a monopoly situation by, particular named bodies in the public sector. It is the Government's intention that at least one major examination of each industry should take place every four years.

Restrictive Trade Practices

Under the Restrictive Trade Practices Act 1976 restrictive trading agreements have to be registered with the Director General of Fair Trading. Broadly, an agreement is registrable if two or more parties to it, engaged in business in Britain in the supply of goods or services, accept some limitation on their freedom to make their own decisions about matters such as prices or conditions of sale. Failure to register an agreement means that the restrictions are void and the parties are liable to legal proceedings. Having placed an agreement on the register, the Director General has the duty of referring it to the Restrictive Practices Court and the Court must declare the restrictions in it contrary to the public interest unless the parties can satisfy the Court by reference to criteria laid down in the Act that this is not the case. Restrictions declared contrary to the public interest are void and the Court can order the parties not to give effect to them or make any similar agreement. In practice, however, many agreements do not need to be referred to the Court because, for example, the parties choose to give up the restrictions rather than go to Court, or the Secretary of State accepts the Director General's advice that the restrictions are not significant enough to warrant reference to the Court.

European Community

The objective of the competition policy of the European Community is to promote free and fair competition in areas of economic activity that may affect trade between member states. The Community's rules of competition, which are set out in the Treaty of Rome, prohibit all agreements between undertakings, or actions by a single undertaking enjoying a dominant position in the market, which affect or are likely to affect trade between member states and which restrict, distort or prevent competition. Agreements falling within the scope of the prohibition must be notified to the European Commission, which has powers either to order the agreement to be suspended or, where certain specific conditions are met, to grant exemptions. The Commission has its own Competition Department, which may take the initiative in investigating suspected infringements of the competition provisions of the treaty.

Consumer Protection

The Fair Trading Act 1973 provides machinery (headed by the Director General of Fair Trading) for the continuous review of consumer affairs, for action to deal with trading practices which unfairly affect consumers'

interests and with persistent offenders under existing law, and for the negotiation of self-regulatory codes of practice to raise trading standards. The Director General is also responsible for the working of legislation which regulates consumer credit and hire business and estate agency work.

The consumers' interests with regard to the purity of foods, the description and performance of goods, and pricing information are safeguarded by the Food and Drugs Acts 1955 and 1956, the Medicines Act 1968, the Trades Descriptions Acts 1968 and 1972, the Prices Act 1974, the Unfair Contract Terms Act 1977 and the Sale of Goods Act 1979. The marking and accuracy of quantities are regulated by the Weights and Measures Acts 1963 and 1979, the latter introducing a system of average weights for certain pre-packed goods. The Consumer Protection Acts 1961 and 1971 and the Consumer Safety Act 1978 empower the Government to control the supply of any goods in the interests of safety.

Advice and Information

Provision of consumer information and advice is an important function of those in local and central government, and of several independent organisations concerned with consumer protection. The local outlets are the Citizens Advice Bureaux (see p 144) and in some areas Consumer Advice Centres.

The independent, non-statutory National Consumer Council (and associated councils for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland), which also receives government finance, ensures that the consumer's view is made known to those in government and industry whose decisions affect the consumer's interest.

Consumer councils for the energy, rail and communications nationalised industries investigate questions of concern to the consumer, while some trade associations in industry and commerce have established codes of practice. In addition, several private organisations work to further consumer interests. The largest is the Consumers' Association, funded by the subscriptions of its membership of over 630,000. The Association conducts an extensive programme of comparative testing of goods and investigation of services; its views and test reports are published in its monthly magazine *Which?* or its satellite publications. The Association also provides an advice service on subscription. Local consumer groups, many belonging to a national federation, also promote consumers' interests and provide information and advice.

The European Community's consumer programme covers a number of important topics, such as health and safety, protection of the consumer's economic interests when purchasing goods and services, promotion of consumer education and strengthening the representation of consumers. The views of British consumer organisations are represented by the Consumers in the European Community Group (UK).

COMPANY LAW

The formation and conduct of private sector corporations is regulated by the Companies Acts. 'Incorporation' means registering an enterprise with an official registrar of companies, with related obligations such as those concerning the capital structure of a company, the rights and duties of its directors and members, and the preparation of accounts. Nearly all corporate businesses are 'limited liability' companies, which means that each company is a legal entity distinct from its members, who are not as such liable for its debts. The members' liability is limited to contributing an amount related to their shareholding. In unincorporated businesses, such

as sole proprietorships or partnerships, by contrast, individuals are personally liable for any business debts.

The European Community is pursuing a programme for the harmonisation of company law among member states. In accordance with the programme, the Companies Act 1980 provides for new arrangements for the classification and registration of companies and their capital structure and distribution of profits and assets. The Act sets out new criteria for public companies (that were previously defined as those not meeting one or other of the tests for private companies) and, by exclusion, defines private companies as those which are not public. It continues to be the case that private companies may not offer shares to the public. After registering under the Act a public company must put 'Public Limited Company' or PLC after its name. The Act also lays down rules concerning the conduct of company directors, and makes illegal share dealings that depend upon certain privileged kinds of information.

The Companies Act 1981 implements a European Community directive that sets out the statutory framework for the disclosure of company accounts, while allowing for less disclosure by small- and medium-sized companies. It also makes provision to enable companies to purchase their own shares (mainly in order to assist small businesses); extends the law requiring disclosure of interest in a company's shares; and alters the law controlling company names and business names.

INDUSTRIAL PROPERTY

There is a substantial body of legislation designed to secure the rights of the originators of inventions relating to manufacture, new industrial designs and trade marks. These matters are administered respectively by the Patent Office, the Design Registry and the Trade Marks Registry, while governmental responsibility is exercised by the Department of Trade. Protection is also available under the European Patent Convention and the Patent Co-operation Treaty, and benefits may be claimed in other countries by virtue of the International Convention for the Protection of Industrial Property. The Government is reviewing the law on copyright and related matters, with particular attention to the problems raised by private tape recordings of sound or video copyright works, the application of copyright to industrial designs, the use of photocopying and the need for remedies to combat piracy.

MANUFACTURING AND SERVICE INDUSTRIES

Manufacturing plays a vital role in the economy. It accounts for some 25 per cent of gross domestic product; about 28 per cent of the employed labour force is engaged in manufacturing; and around 74 per cent of visible exports consists of manufactured or semi-manufactured goods. Developments of particular note in manufacturing in the last decade have been fluctuations in output generally in line with international trends, and rises both in export performance and import penetration. Growth in output and exports was strongest in chemicals and electrical, electronic and instrument engineering, while the food industries as a whole reduced the extent of import penetration. Utilisation of advanced technologies in industry, especially micro-electronics, is steadily increasing (see p 199).

The proportion of gross domestic product contributed by service industries continues to increase. Among traded services financial and business services and tourism show the greatest growth.

The manufacturing industries are described by sector or group of sectors in this chapter, together with construction and services.

The statistics in the following sections, relating to the main sectors of manufacturing industry, are supplied by the Statistical Divisions of the Departments of Industry and Trade. Unless otherwise stated, export and manufacturers' sales figures include parts. (The tables contain a selection of leading activities within each sector and are not comprehensive.) Figures in the text are for 1980.

MANUFACTURING

Most manufacturing is carried out by private enterprise. Though the greater parts of the iron and steel and shipbuilding industries are in public ownership, the Government is reducing the extent of state ownership of industry. Table 13 shows the size distribution of manufacturing establishments. About 56 per cent of the largest establishments were in engineering and metals and vehicle manufacturing. Within the private sector, the 100 largest companies accounted for 37 per cent of manufacturing employment in 1979. (A company may consist of one or more establishments.) In each of the following sectors over 90 per cent of net output was attributable to the five largest companies: tobacco, cement, man-made fibres, coke ovens and manufactured fuels, margarine, surgical bandages, wheeled tractors, fertilisers, wines, ciders and perry, explosives and fireworks, locomotives and railway equipment, and ordnance and small arms; and over 80 per cent in batteries, asbestos, watches and clocks, electrical equipment for vehicles, industrial engines, cans and metal boxes, electronic computers, biscuits, photographic chemical materials, insulated wire and cables, and dyestuffs and pigments.

Table 13: Manufacturing: Size Distribution of Establishments

Number of employees	Number of establishments	% of total establishments	% of total employment
under 20	76,888	71.6	7.6
20 to 499	28,164	26.2	38.4
500 to 1,499	1,778	1.7	21.2
1,500 or more	563	0.5	32.9

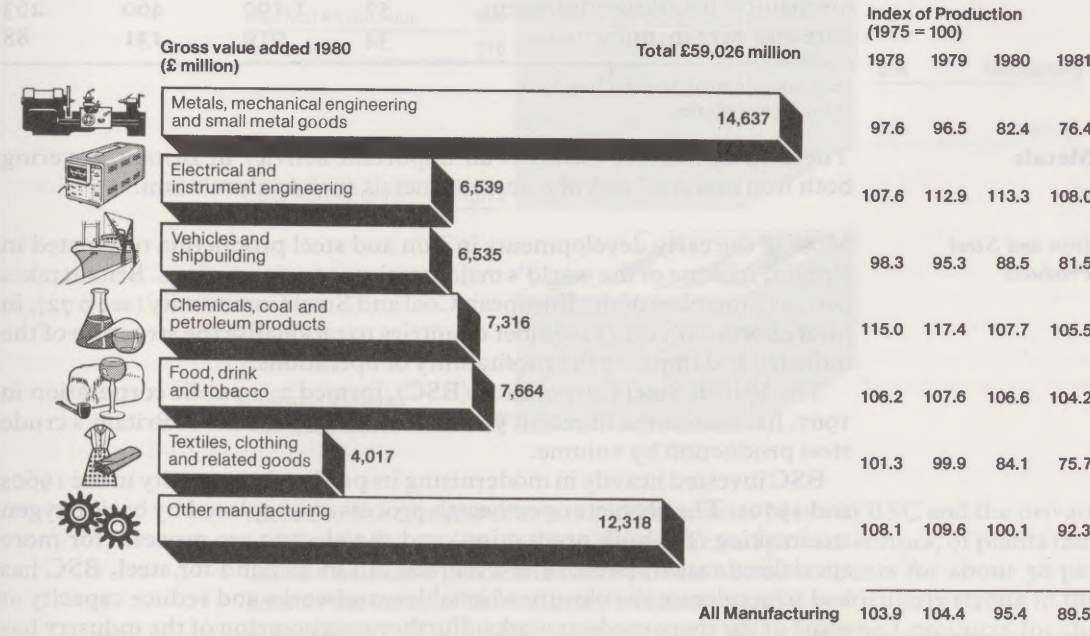
Source: Report on the Census of Production 1979

The largest manufacturing companies (by £ million turnover in the latest financial year) are BAT Industries (9,265), Imperial Chemical Industries (6,581), Unilever (4,935), Imperial Group (4,526), General Electric Company (3,462), Ford Motor Company (3,073), BL (2,869), George Weston Holdings (2,585), Allied-Lyons (2,268), Thorn EMI (2,229), Rothmans International (2,188), Thomas Tilling (2,050), Gallaher Group (1,929), Bowater Corporation (1,728), and Courtaulds (1,710).

Output and Investment

The figures in the diagram below show the relative size of the sectors of manufacturing and their growth rates. Manufacturing output as a whole fell after 1973, following the rise in international oil prices, but grew again gradually between 1975 and 1979, most evidently in those industries employing advanced technology such as electronics, instrument engineering, most sectors of the chemical industry, paper, printing and publishing, and food processing.

Manufacturing Gross Value Added and Index of Production



Between 1979 and 1981 output declined sharply, owing to further rises in energy costs, which produced a recession in manufacturing affecting nearly all the industrialised market economies. Additional factors depressing output in Britain were high domestic interest rates and, for exporters, a rise in the exchange value of sterling which raised the prices of British goods in overseas markets. Output stabilised in mid-1981.

A major stimulus has been provided by the various needs of the offshore oil and gas industries. In long-established industries (for example, ship-building and marine engineering) extensive reorganisation, re-equipment and modernisation are being undertaken to meet changing economic conditions.

Since manufacturing industry lies mainly in the private sector, investment in manufacturing tends to be determined by market considerations and to reflect expectations of profitability. Since 1965 there have been regular fluctuations in the level of investment and three discernible cycles. The diagram on p 215 shows investment in 1981.

**METALS,
MECHANICAL
ENGINEERING AND
METAL GOODS**

1980	Labour ^a '000s	Sales ^b £ m	Exports £ m	Imports £ m
Total	1,754	27,083	9,289	7,170
<i>of which :</i>				
iron and steel products and castings	297	4,254	1,062	1,382
non-ferrous metals	109	5,630	1,750	2,403
metal-working machine tools	59	860	428	403
industrial plant and steelwork	140	2,182	699	178
pumps, valves and compressors	82	1,376	602	280
construction and mining equipment	39	1,635	950	300
mechanical handling equipment	57	1,190	460	263
wire and wire manufactures	34	919	131	88

^aEmployees in employment at June 1980.

^bManufacturers' sales.

Metals

The manufacture of metals is an important activity in Britain, covering both iron and steel and non-ferrous metals such as aluminium.

*Iron and Steel
Products*

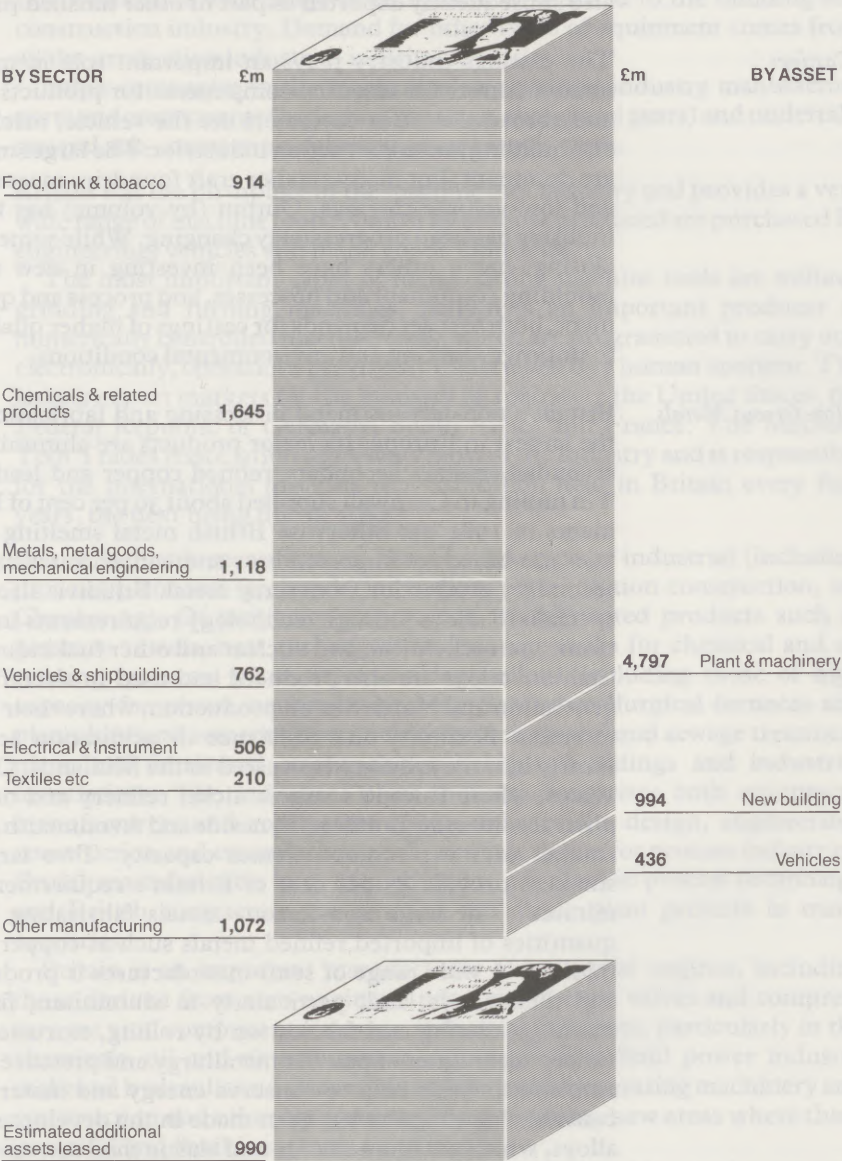
Most of the early developments in iron and steel production originated in Britain, still one of the world's major steel-producing nations. Britain takes part, as a member of the European Coal and Steel Community (see p 72), in joint efforts with other member countries to rationalise the structure of the industry and improve the profitability of operations.

The British Steel Corporation (BSC), formed as a public corporation in 1967, has accounted in recent years for some 85 per cent of Britain's crude steel production by volume.

BSC invested heavily in modernising its production capacity in the 1960s and 1970s. The obsolete open hearth process was replaced by basic oxygen steelmaking (for bulk production) and the electric arc process (for more specialised tasks). Because of a marked fall in demand for steel, BSC has had to accelerate the closure of its older steelworks and reduce capacity at some of the more modern works. Further restructuring of the industry has

Capital Expenditure by Manufacturing Industry 1981

Total Expenditure: £6,227 million



included the transfer of assets and businesses between BSC and the private sector and the closure, both in the public and private sectors, of plants that cannot be made profitable. The private sector accounts for about 30 per cent of the value of the industry's turnover and is particularly strong in the manufacture of alloy and stainless steels and of finished products for the

engineering industry. The main steel producing areas are Yorkshire and Humberside (34 per cent of crude steel output in 1981), Wales (28 per cent), the Northern region (18 per cent) and Scotland (13 per cent).

About 70 per cent of British steel producers' deliveries of finished steel products are used by home industry and the remainder for direct export to all parts of the world. A large part of the steel used by industry in Britain is also subsequently exported as part of other finished products.

Castings

The castings industry plays an important role in meeting the needs of manufacturers for essential components for products sold both in Britain and abroad. Its main customers are the vehicle, mechanical engineering, and building and construction industries. The larger mechanised foundries are dominant, but many smaller craft foundries meet needs for specialised and low-volume castings. Output (by volume) has been falling and the industry has been progressively changing. While some foundries have been closing, many others have been investing in new melting equipment, moulding equipment and processes, and process and quality control equipment, both to meet demands for castings of higher quality and strength and to improve working and environmental conditions.

Non-ferrous Metals

Britain's non-ferrous metal processing and fabricating industry is one of the largest in Europe. Its major products are aluminium (both virgin and secondary metal), secondary refined copper and lead, and primary zinc. Tin mining in Cornwall supplied about 30 per cent of Britain's tin requirements in 1981 but otherwise British metal smelting and refining industries are based on imported ores and concentrates except for substantial secondary production from scrap metal. Britain is also a major producer of specialised alloys for high technology requirements in the aerospace, electronic, petrochemical, and nuclear and other fuel industries. Titanium and titanium alloys are also produced and used in aircraft production, power generation and North Sea oil production, where their lightness, resistance to stress, flexibility and resistance to oxidation are especially valued. Nearly half the industry is situated in the Midlands. Other centres include Wales, where Europe's largest nickel refinery and only titanium sponge plant are situated, London, Tyneside and Avonmouth, where there is a zinc smelter of some 100,000 tonnes capacity. Two large-scale aluminium smelters provide 55 per cent of Britain's requirements for primary aluminium. The large non-ferrous metals fabricating industry uses large quantities of imported refined metals such as copper, lead, zinc and aluminium. A wide range of semi-manufactures is produced in these metals and their alloys, and, particularly in aluminium, firms are engaged in smelting, casting and fabrication by rolling, extrusion and drawing; advanced techniques of powder metallurgy and pressure die-castings are also employed, which help to conserve energy and materials. In recent years considerable progress has been made in the development of 'superplastic' alloys, which are more ductile and elastic than conventional alloys.

The main products exported, including alloys and semi-finished products, are copper, nickel, aluminium, lead, tin and zinc. Exports of aluminium and aluminium alloys reached £300 million in 1980 while exports in the same year of copper, brass and other copper alloys reached £255 million. Exports of silver, platinum and other metals of the platinum group totalled over £913 million in 1980. The major export markets for the whole industry are the United States and the rest of the European Community.

Mechanical Engineering

The mechanical engineering industry comprises a group of industries manufacturing all types of non-electrical machinery, machine tools, industrial engines, mechanical handling equipment, construction equipment and industrial plant. Over half the industry's production is for the home market. The major customers for the heavy equipment sectors are the nationalised fuel industries, the chemical industry and the British Steel Corporation. A wide range of equipment is supplied to the building and construction industry. Demand for other types of equipment comes from all the production industries in Britain.

Other companies in the mechanical engineering industry manufacture parts and components (including bearings, chains and gears) and undertake general sub-contracting, fabricating and repair work.

Machine Tools

Britain was the birthplace of the machine tool industry and provides a very wide range of machine tools. Almost all of those produced are purchased by engineering, vehicles and metal goods industries.

The most important types of metal cutting machine tools are milling, grinding and turning machines. Britain is an important producer of numerically controlled machine tools, which are programmed to carry out, electronically, operations previously undertaken by a human operator. The largest export markets for the industry in 1980 were the United States, the Federal Republic of Germany, South Africa and France. The Machine Tool Trades Association represents most of the industry and is responsible for the international machine tool exhibition held in Britain every four years, the next being due in 1984.

Industrial Plant and Machinery

British industry manufactures almost every type of industrial (including process) plant and steelwork (for nuclear power station construction, see Chapter 13). Of particular importance are fabricated products such as pressure vessels, heat exchangers and storage tanks for chemical and oil refining (process) plant, steam-raising boilers (including those of high capacity for power stations), sintering plant, metallurgical furnaces and plant, lime and cement kilns, nuclear reactors, water and sewage treatment plant and fabricated steelwork for bridges, buildings and industrial installations. The industrial plant industry comprises both equipment manufacturers and contractors responsible for the design, engineering, construction and commissioning of complete plants for process industries. British manufacturers have contributed to advances in process technology and British contractors are carrying out major plant projects in many countries.

Britain is an important manufacturer of industrial engines, including those derived from aero-engines. Industrial pumps, valves and compressors are vital components in many industrial processes, particularly in the chemicals, oil and electric power industries. The fluid power industry makes oil hydraulic and pneumatic equipment for operating machinery and construction and other equipment. There are many new areas where these powerful and flexible systems may be used.

Textile machinery produced in Britain includes machines and accessories for the manufacture and processing of yarns and fabrics from all types of natural and man-made fibres. British inventions have remained the foundation of many textile processes in use internationally and progress has been made in applying automated techniques (including the use of micro-electronics) in the industry. In 1980 over 88 per cent of the industry's total sales were to export markets.

Machinery for food and drink preparation, processing and sterilisation is another important sector. Refrigerating machinery (excluding domestic equipment) is used for food and drink processing, but the industry also covers plant for ships and vehicles and equipment for conserving drinks, food and ice-cream for the distributive and catering industries.

*Construction,
Mining and
Mechanical
Handling
Equipment*

Almost the whole range of plant required by the construction industry is produced, including excavating, earth-moving and road-making equipment, pile drivers, and quarry crushing and screening plant. Overseas sales of construction equipment and mining machinery and equipment, including coal cutting and coal face loading machinery, are substantial. Mechanical handling equipment is used not only for construction and related activities but throughout industry generally. It extends from individual units and accessories to complete operating systems, the main products being cranes and transporters, lifts, escalators, conveyors, elevators, hoists and powered industrial trucks. Electronically controlled and completely automatic handling systems are also available.

*Agricultural
Machinery*

Britain produces a wide range of agricultural equipment for general and special use, including many special purpose machines such as fruit and vegetable harvesters and improved root harvesters (for tractors, see p 222). Mechanised equipment is extensively used in the arable farming and dairy farming sectors. Much of the new machinery is designed for use in a variety of conditions to meet the needs of overseas farmers. A large-scale annual exhibition of the industry's products is the Royal Smithfield Show and Agricultural Machinery Exhibition held in London in December. The annual Royal International Agricultural Show is held in July at the National Agricultural Centre, which also provides regular demonstrations of technical developments in agriculture.

Office Machinery

The industry covers a wide range of products including duplicators, photocopiers, typewriters, word processors, microfilm, dictation and mail-room equipment, and cash registers. A large proportion of the industry is owned by multinational companies, and is likely to continue to be so, as the rapidly advancing technologies involved require a heavy commitment to research and development. In particular, the incorporation of micro-electronics into office products is rapidly increasing. The industry is strong in microfilm readers/printers, duplicators, and office offset litho and rapid high volume photocopiers.

Other Machinery

The other major products of the mechanical engineering industry include printing, bookbinding and paper goods machinery, space heating, ventilating and air-conditioning equipment, packaging and bottling machinery, hand tools, garden tools, portable power tools and miscellaneous non-electrical machinery, such as boot- and shoe-making machinery, laundry equipment, automatic vending machines, plastics working machinery and other types of specialised equipment.

Metal Products

A range of metal products other than those described in previous sections is produced by a group of industries made up of a very large number of firms. One of the main groups, in which small firms predominate, manufactures engineers' small tools and gauges, which include jigs and fixtures, press tools and moulds, hard metal-tipped tools and other metal cutting tools.

Another group manufactures cutlery and tableware (including safety razors and blades).

A wide variety of domestic utensils, such as saucepans, buckets and dustbins, made mainly from aluminium and wrought steel, are produced by the hollow-ware industry, together with industrial hollow-ware, such as kegs, drums and barrels. Five major firms which dominate the can and metal box industry began a co-ordinated can recycling campaign in 1981. The manufacture of hand tools, including files, saws, hammers, axes and spades, is a long-established industry. About half of its total production is for export. Jewellery, gold and silverware and the refining of precious metals is an industry in which British craftsmen are world famous. The Royal Mint makes coins for some 70 overseas countries. Other main groups of metal goods are bolts, nuts and screws, metal furniture, metal windows, metallic closures, metal small-ware such as needles and pins, safes, locks and keys, domestic gas appliances and drop forgings.

**ELECTRICAL,
ELECTRONIC AND
INSTRUMENT
ENGINEERING**

1980	Labour ^a '000s	Sales ^b £ m	Exports £ m	Imports £ m
Total	860	12,947	5,418	5,004
<i>of which :</i>				
electrical machinery	126	1,809	894	361
insulated wire and cables	40	863	164	67
electronic equipment				
telecommunications	68	940	97	70
components	121	1,457	730	773
consumer goods	102	1,602	397	881
computers	44	1,022	938	1,082
capital goods	101	1,652	502	291
scientific and industrial instruments	94	1,455	705	600

^aEmployees in employment at June 1980.

^bManufacturers' sales.

**Electrical and
Electronic
Engineering**

The electrical and electronic engineering industry is engaged in the manufacture and installation of a wide variety of equipment, including all types of power generation, transmission and distribution equipment, motors, telecommunications and broadcasting equipment, capital electronics equipment and systems, industrial controls, computers, electronic components, consumer electronics and domestic electrical appliances. Electronics, which makes a vital contribution to the efficiency of many branches of the country's economy, is one of the most important sectors of British industry.

*Electrical
Engineering*

The main product categories are power equipment (generators, turbines, motors, converters, transformers and rectifiers) and switchgear, starting and control gear.

The industry produces cables and wires for the distribution of electric power, for telecommunications networks and other purposes; its products include submarine cables and cables insulated by a great variety of materials. Optical fibres (hair-thin strands of glass) for use in telecommunications (see also p 302) were invented in Britain in 1964; they can carry much more 'traffic' than copper cables.

A few large firms dominate the market for other electrical goods, including domestic appliances such as heating and cooking equipment, washing machines and dryers, refrigeration appliances, vacuum cleaners, irons and electric kettles. Other major sectors are electrical equipment for motor vehicles and aircraft, electric lamps and light fittings, and batteries and accumulators.

Electronic Equipment

The British electronics industry is one of the largest and most comprehensive in the world and British scientists and companies have made important contributions to electronics technology. Because the applications of electronics technology are continuing to multiply rapidly, definition of the industry must be arbitrary, but the sectors included are radar and navigational aids, telecommunications equipment, security systems, components, consumer goods, computers and communications and other capital equipment, as well as electronic process control and industrial instrumentation.

The dependence of the telecommunications industry on electronic techniques is increasing as new switching systems are introduced. The main products are switching and transmission equipment for telephone, telex and telegraph systems and subscribers' apparatus such as telephones, private automatic branch exchanges, teleprinters and facsimile systems. British Telecommunications (see p 302) is the main customer in the home market, which is largely supplied by four companies (GEC, Plessey, Standard Telephones and Cables and Pye TMC) and carries out research and development work in co-operation with companies.

The components sector manufactures a wide range of both active and passive electronic components. In addition to a comprehensive indigenous industry, a number of large United States companies are manufacturing components in Britain. The sector meets requirements for components in Britain, and is also very active in international trade. The manufacture of integrated circuits (in which many components are fabricated within a tiny chip of semi-conductor material) is an area of particularly rapid change. Britain is improving its position in the manufacture of advanced components.

The major consumer goods produced are radio and television sets, music centres and high-fidelity audio and video equipment. In the audio field, British manufacturers have a reputation for high-quality goods but are less strong in the mass market. Equipment is also being manufactured for reception of Britain's 'Prestel' and 'teletext' services (see pp 301 and 391).

In the computer sector, Britain produces an extensive range of computer systems, central processors and peripheral equipment, from large computers for large-scale data processing and scientific work to mini- and micro-computers for use in control and automation systems and for home and office use, and in these, British manufacturers are particularly competitive internationally. Essential to the sector is the 'software' industry, in which Britain is especially strong, which provides programs and associated services and complements the hardware industry, enabling the systems manufacturers to provide complete solutions to meet the requirements of users.

An expanding sector of the industry is that which covers the manufacture of radio communications equipment, radar and radio navigational aids for ships and aircraft, alarms and signalling equipment, public broadcasting equipment and other capital goods. British equipment is used extensively

overseas, for defence, civil aviation, shipping, health, educational and other purposes.

An important advance in medical diagnosis was the development in Britain, in the 1960s and early 1970s, of the tomographic X-ray scanner. This has made a world-wide impact by providing images of sections of brain or whole body on living subjects. Further advances in medical diagnosis in Britain have been made using nuclear magnetic resonance machines linked, like X-ray scanners, with computers to display digitised images on a television screen.

Instrument Engineering

Instrument engineering is a particularly important sector of the engineering industry. Electronic techniques are widely used, particularly in the industrial instrument sector, which comprises integrated control systems and equipment, optical instruments, electronic measurement and test equipment, analytical instruments and a diverse group of others. The chemicals, power, petroleum and iron and steel industries account for about 80 per cent of process control applications, the largest sector of the industry and one which is expanding. Major advances have been made in automatic testing equipment and analytical instruments for non-destructive testing, medical diagnosis and pollution control. Other sectors of the instrument industry include photographic, cinematographic and reprographic equipment, watches, clocks and time recorders, and surgical instruments and appliances.

VEHICLES, AIRCRAFT AND SHIPS

1980	Labour ^a '000s	Sales ^b £ m	Exports £ m	Imports £ m
Total	860	14,529	6,038	5,148
<i>of which :</i>				
cars and commercial vehicles	436	8,158	3,190	3,214
wheeled tractors	32	893	744	192
aerospace	200	3,755	1,516	1,223
shipbuilding and marine engineering	147	1,266	404	311

^aEmployees in employment at June 1980.

^bManufacturers' sales.

Motor Vehicles, Tractors and Cycles

The motor vehicle industry comprises the manufacture of cars and commercial vehicles, caravans and trailers, and parts and components. Output of cars and commercial vehicles is dominated by four large groups: BL, in which there is a majority public shareholding, Ford, Vauxhall and Talbot (formerly Chrysler UK), which account for 99 per cent of car production and some 98 per cent of commercial vehicle output; the remainder is in the hands of smaller, specialist producers of cars, heavy commercial vehicles, buses and coaches. There has traditionally been a substantial positive balance of trade in the industry, maintained by surpluses on components and commercial vehicles offsetting increasing deficits on cars. The balance of trade was largely restored in 1980 after an overall deficit was recorded for the first time in 1979. The principal trade association for the industry is the Society of Motor Manufacturers and Traders. Motor industry shows are held in alternate years at the National Exhibition Centre, Birmingham, and in London.

Britain is a leading world producer and exporter of agricultural tractors, which account for the bulk of wheeled tractors produced. Production is dominated by four multinational companies.

In recent years the motorcycle industry has contracted and the domestic market is largely supplied by imports, although large-capacity motorcycles are still manufactured in Britain. The market for pedal cycles has increased significantly in the last decade and is mainly supplied by British firms, the largest of which is TI Raleigh.

Railway Equipment

British Rail builds most of its locomotives and rolling stock in its own workshops using components from the private sector; it also supplies equipment and provides consultancy services to many overseas countries. The large private sector supplies a full range of equipment, including components, traction and control gear, signalling, heating and ventilating systems and track equipment to British Rail; it also builds trains for London Transport and rapid transit networks. All this equipment is also supplied to overseas railway and rapid transit authorities. In addition, the private sector undertakes electrification and other major works overseas and provides overseas consultancy services.

Aerospace

Britain's aerospace industry is one of the largest and most comprehensive in Western Europe and the Western world. The products of the industry include civil and military aircraft, helicopters, aero-engines, guided weapons, hovercraft and space vehicles, supported by a comprehensive range of aircraft and airfield equipment and systems.

The main British airframe manufacturer is British Aerospace (BAe). During the three years 1978-80, BAe (which brought together the former separate companies British Aircraft Corporation, Hawker Siddeley Aviation, Hawker Siddeley Dynamics and Scottish Aviation), was a nationalised corporation. In 1981 it was transformed into a public limited company and the Government sold just over half of its shareholding in BAe to private investors. Special arrangements were made for employee shareholdings. The Government, which has a maximum shareholding of 48.43 per cent, does not intend to use its rights as a shareholder to intervene in BAe's commercial decisions.

The major publicly owned companies are Rolls-Royce and Short Brothers. Rolls-Royce is responsible for almost the entire output of aero-engines in Britain; it is one of the world's three leading aero-engine manufacturers and over 10,000 of the world's civil and military aircraft are powered by Rolls-Royce engines.

The remainder of the industry is in private ownership and comprises a number of aircraft companies, including Westland Aircraft and its subsidiary, Westland Helicopters (which specialises in helicopter design and manufacture and, in addition, performs a wide range of aviation equipment work), and all of the aviation equipment sector.

Production of BAe includes such civil aircraft as the HS748 feederliner and the HS125 business jet, while the new BAe 146 feederjet and Jetstream 31 transport aircraft are expected to be in service in 1983. BAe is a full partner in the European consortium Airbus Industrie; it is continuing to manufacture the wings for the A300 Airbus and is designing and manufacturing the wings for the A310 derivative. Military aircraft include the unique Harrier vertical/short take-off and landing aircraft (which has achieved substantial sales to the United States), the Hawk advanced

trainer, the Anglo-French Jaguar tactical fighter/operational trainer and the Tornado multirole combat aircraft, which is a collaborative venture by Britain, the Federal Republic of Germany and Italy.

BAe is also a major producer of guided weapons including a number which have been sold overseas, in particular the Rapier ground-to-air missile. Collaborative guided weapon projects between Britain and its NATO partners are becoming increasingly important.

Short Brothers, which is based in Belfast, produces the Skyvan, the SD 330 and 360 commuter airliners, airframe components and missiles. Westland Helicopters manufactures the successful Sea King and is the British partner in the Anglo-French collaborative programmes on the Puma, Gazelle and Lynx helicopters, which are being produced for the armed forces of a number of countries besides Britain and France. Westland has also introduced a Lynx derivative intended mainly for the civil market.

Rolls-Royce aero-engines in production include the collaboratively produced RB199 for the Tornado, the RB211 civil engine and its more powerful derivative the RB211-524, the Pegasus vectored-thrust engine for the Harrier and the Gem helicopter engine. More advanced versions of the RB211-524 are under development, as is another RB211 derivative, the RB211-535, which will be the launch engine for the new Boeing 757 airliner. Industrial versions of aero-engines such as the RB211 and the Olympus (developed for Concorde) are being produced for use in oil and gas transmission and as stand-by power generators. Versions for marine use, in particular of the Olympus and the Tyne, are being used to power a new generation of warships for the Royal Navy and many overseas navies.

The aviation equipment manufacturers provide a wide range of systems essential to engines and aircraft, including engine and flight controls, electrical generation, mechanical and hydraulic power systems, cabin furnishings, flight decks and information displays including 'head up' displays (which project electronically the information the pilot needs to fly and navigate the aircraft without his having to look down at the instruments); all are sold both in domestic and overseas markets. They also supply equipment for ground operation including that needed for radar and air traffic control, ground power suppliers and flight simulators, to airports and airlines throughout the world.

The space sector's main effort in the manufacture of satellite systems and space hardware is for the programmes of the European Space Agency (ESA, see p 363), although the industry also meets Britain's own requirements and contributes as manufacturers of sub-systems in, for example, the satellite system of the International Telecommunications Satellite Organisation (INTELSAT). The Dynamics Group of BAe has acted as prime contractor for all the ESA's telecommunications satellite projects, which include the Orbital Test Satellite (OTS), launched in 1978 and still in operation, the European Communications Satellites (ECS), procured for EUTELSAT (the European telecommunications satellite authority), and the maritime series of communications satellites (MARECS), leased to the International Maritime Satellite Organisation (INMARSAT), the first of which was launched in 1981. BAe will also be prime contractors for the ESA's L-SAT large telecommunications satellite to be launched in 1986. Marconi Space and Defence Systems (MSDS) concentrates on satellite communications payloads and launcher guidance systems. MSDS is payload contractor for the MARECS satellites and for L-SAT. Both BAe and

MSDS are involved in the development of defence satellites and the world-wide supply of satellite sub-systems, and, with British Telecom, have formed a consortium to build satellites for direct television broadcasting (see p 391). The British space industry continues to contribute to ESA's scientific satellites, through BAE's prime contractorship for the GEOS satellites and principal contractorship for the development of the Giotto satellite, which will investigate Halley's comet in 1986. British firms also built the later satellites in the Ariel series (see p 263) and manufacture all types of ground stations (including those on the INTELSAT network) both to meet the requirements of British Telecom (see p 301) and for business and data communications and television transmission.

The industry is thus extensively involved in the manufacture of space systems and in scientific research in other European collaborative programmes. It carries out an extensive programme of research and development on airframes, aero-engines and equipment, including avionics, while considerable research is also undertaken by universities and government research establishments.

Aerospace production and exports, which are fairly evenly divided between aircraft, engines and equipment (including avionics), have made considerable progress over the past few years and now stand at record levels. The principal destinations for exports are the United States and countries with which Britain is involved in collaborative ventures such as France and the Federal Republic of Germany. However, markets in the developing world may become increasingly important for sales of satellite equipment.

The main trade association for the industry is the Society of British Aerospace Companies which organises a major international air show at Farnborough, Hampshire, every two years.

Shipbuilding and Marine Engineering

Britain has a long-established tradition of shipbuilding and remains one of the leading countries in the world for the construction, conversion and repair of merchant vessels, warships and offshore structures. A wide variety of ships is produced from the simplest series-built vessels to the most sophisticated nuclear submarines. Most of the major British shipyards have been reorganised in recent years, with the construction, in several cases, of covered-berth ship 'factories' which are among the most modern and efficient in the world.

The public sector, which mainly comprises British Shipbuilders and the Belfast company Harland and Wolff, accounts for 99 per cent of output in merchant shipbuilding, for all slow-speed marine diesel engines and for over 50 per cent of turnover in ship-repairing. The public sector also includes a number of companies engaged in general engineering work connected with the marine industries.

The continuing recession and over-capacity in shipbuilding throughout the world has led to the closure of a number of shipyards and a reduction in the number employed in the industry.

A number of yards in the private sector build smaller vessels, including patrol boats, fishing and harbour craft, supply vessels, tugs, cargo ships, small tankers, ferries, pleasure boats and yachts.

Orders for merchant ships improved in 1981 and orders for Royal Navy vessels are expected to remain strong. About 45 per cent of merchant ship output is for overseas registration. British shipbuilders also export a significant volume of naval vessels and associated products and services.

Offshore Equipment

British Shipbuilders provides the offshore oil and gas industry with consultancy services (including advice on exploiting hydrocarbons under difficult conditions) and has two modern and well-equipped shipyards, able to build semi-submersible units for drilling, production and emergency/maintenance support, drillships, jack-up rigs, modules and offshore loading systems. Conventional yards within British Shipbuilders can also supply both traditional and specialised support vessels. Private sector yards build jack-up rigs, fixed platforms, submersibles (the world's first manned submersible, made largely of glass-reinforced plastic, was built by a British company) and a wide range of operational equipment.

CHEMICALS AND COAL AND PETROLEUM PRODUCTS

1980	Labour ^a '000s	Sales ^b £ m	Exports £ m	Imports £ m
Total	462	27,056	7,698	5,398
<i>of which :</i>				
general chemicals	136	6,676	2,609	1,768
pharmaceuticals	73	2,213	699	256
plastics materials, synthetic				
resins and synthetic rubber	52	2,037	883	830
toilet preparations	24	668	187	75
soap and detergents	17	915	174	46
coal and petroleum products	35	12,640	2,033	1,792

^aEmployees in employment at June 1980.

^bManufacturers' sales.

Chemicals

The chemicals industry is one of the most successful industries in Britain as well as being its fourth largest industrial sector, accounting for about 10 per cent of manufacturing net output. The industry is also the second largest in Europe and its exports of £5,665 million in 1980 (accounting for 16 per cent of British manufacturing exports) placed Britain among the top four chemical exporting nations. The industry is undertaking a considerable investment programme, despite continuing uncertainties over the price and availability of raw materials. The largest British chemicals group, Imperial Chemical Industries, is the fourth largest chemicals company in the world, accounting for some 20 per cent of production in Britain. The industry is represented by the Chemical Industries Association. Western Europe is the major export market.

General Chemicals

About a quarter of the sales of general chemicals consists of a limited number of relatively simple inorganic chemicals, such as sulphuric acid and metallic and non-metallic oxides, serving as basic materials for industry. Substantial quantities of inorganic chemicals are used in the manufacture of fertilisers, detergents, paint, glass and metals.

Organic chemicals include the heavy organics produced in bulk and the speciality intermediate products. Oil and natural gas are the source of some 90 per cent of world organic chemicals production. The most important products (by weight) are ethylene, propylene and benzene. The main uses of organic chemicals are in solvents, plastics and synthetic resins, synthetic rubber, man-made fibres and detergents, and as intermediate chemicals in the manufacture of other chemicals, pharmaceuticals, dyestuffs, paints, adhesives, plastics and textiles.

Outside the inorganic and organic sectors is a wide range of general chemicals formulated for specific uses. Radioisotopes are produced by Amersham International (formerly The Radiochemical Centre), the world's largest manufacturers and exporters of radioactive products; over 80 per cent of production is for export.

Pharmaceuticals

Britain, whose scientists have discovered and developed many essential drugs and medicinal products, produces a wide range of pharmaceutical preparations. These include antibiotics and other drugs for the treatment of infective (including tropical) diseases, drugs used for the treatment of respiratory, circulatory, rheumatic and psychiatric conditions, antihistamines, anaesthetics, synthetic steroid and other hormones, vaccines, sera and drugs obtained from natural sources. Manufacturers in Britain are among the world's leading producers and exporters of preparations for the treatment of human and animal diseases.

Plastics Materials, Synthetic Resins and Synthetic Rubber

Many of the basic discoveries in plastics, including polyethylene, were made in Britain. Over 40 per cent of production is exported. Expansion in recent years has mainly been in thermoplastic materials, of which the most important are polyethylene (used on coverings and packaging—notably for foodstuffs), polyvinyl chloride (known as PVC and used for a wide range of industrial purposes and consumer goods), polystyrene (a material used for toys, light mouldings and many consumer goods) and polypropylene (which can be fabricated as mouldings, films and fibres). A new group of plastics materials reinforced with carbon fibres is also in commercial production in Britain; they have up to three times the strength but are only 20 per cent of the weight of steel, and are being increasingly used in, for example, vehicle manufacture. Styrene-butadiene and polybutadiene rubbers used for tyres, high styrene rubbers for shoe soles and flooring, and nitrile rubbers for use where oil resistance is required, are also in large-scale production, together with neoprene rubber.

Fertilisers and Crop Protection

The development of chemical fertilisers owes much to the pioneer work of British scientists. Production is dominated by a few large firms, with a number of firms marketing compound fertilisers from the principal constituents—nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium—and is almost entirely for the domestic market. The use of ammonium nitrate, ammonium phosphate and urea is resulting in highly concentrated fertilisers as different needs arise. Notable recent British discoveries and developments in crop protection include pyrethroid insecticides, ICI's diquat and paraquat herbicides (both of which kill only green plant tissue at low concentrations) and systemic fungicides and aphicides (which kill through being taken up by growing plants and spreading within them). Herbicides are the largest category of sales of pesticides and allied products.

Paint

Britain is a major producer of paints, varnishes and allied products. In recent years many improved techniques have been introduced into the paint and varnish industry, including new ranges of synthetic resins and pigments, powder coatings, non-drip, quick-drying paints and paints needing only one application.

Toilet Prepara- tions, Soap and Detergents

These industries include soap, detergents, toilet preparations, cosmetics and perfumes. Some of the large companies in the toiletries industry are owned or financed by United States companies but there are a number of

long-established British cosmetics, toiletries and soap manufacturers. Both sectors are significant exporters.

Other Chemical Products

There is a varied group of other chemical products including formulated adhesives, printing ink, colours and dyestuffs, photographic chemical materials, and floor and furniture polishes.

Coal and Petroleum Products

Refined mineral oil (see also p 250) is the largest product in this sector, together with medicinal paraffin, paraffin wax, petroleum jelly and other manufactures. Production of coke, other manufactured solid fuels, lubricating oils and greases is also included.

FOOD, DRINK AND TOBACCO

1980	Labour ^a '000s	Sales ^b £ m	Exports £ m	Imports £ m
Total	622	27,885	2,483	4,065
<i>of which:</i>				
bread, bakery products,				
biscuits, flour confectionery	133	2,491	96	28
chocolate and sugar				
confectionery	68	1,472	219	185
bacon curing	}			
meat products				
fish products	103	3,020	157	1,040
milk and milk products	54	3,631	295	504
fruit and vegetable products	52	1,501	112	415
drinks	126	4,962	862	396
tobacco	30	3,921	301	56

^aEmployees in employment at June 1980.

^bManufacturers' sales.

Britain has one of the world's largest and most sophisticated food processing industries and processed foods have accounted for a growing proportion of total domestic demand for food in recent decades, though the rate of growth has slowed since the early 1970s. Convenience foods, particularly certain frozen foods, yoghurts and instant snacks, have formed the fastest growing sector. There is a high rate of innovation in processed foods, largely owing to the need to increase sales in a food market which is not growing in size, given nearly static population growth. While Britain is a net importer of foodstuffs, the level of imports has declined in recent years. In 1980 the food industry supplied the domestic market with 75 per cent of foods capable of home production compared with less than 60 per cent in 1970. The greatest success has been with dairy, meat and fish, fruit and vegetable products, and oils and fats. Exports, mainly to other members of the European Community, have grown steadily.

Bakery Products

About 60 per cent of the bread in Britain is manufactured in large mechanised bakeries, most of which use a process (the 'Chorleywood' process) developed by the industry's principal research organisation, the Flour Milling and Baking Research Association, and now widely used in other countries. Two groups are predominant: Associated British Foods and Ranks Hovis McDougal. There is a growing consumer interest,

however, in locally baked varieties, production of which is usually allied to the production of cakes and other flour confectionery. Biscuits and related products are a major sector of the industry and have gained a world-wide reputation. Another sector is grain milling and the production of various specialised flours and meal.

Dairy Products

Production of milk was some 15,240 million litres in 1981, of which just under half was for sale as liquid milk. Nine out of ten households in Britain receive pasteurised milk in bottles through a unique daily door-step delivery system employing about 44,000 roundsmen (not included in the employment figure in the table) driving electric vehicles. There are about 200 dairy companies and co-operatives buying, processing and distributing milk and some 6,000 small distributors. Milk consumption per head (130 litres in 1980) is among the highest in the world.

The main milk products are butter (171,000 tonnes in 1981), cheese (241,000 tonnes), cream (73,000 tonnes), full-cream condensed milk (182,000 tonnes), full-cream milk powder (29,000 tonnes) and skim milk powder (251,000 tonnes). The dairy industry accounted for 58 per cent of new butter supplies to the British market in 1980, 72 per cent of new cheese supplies, and nearly all of other milk products. Production and exports of butter and cheese have increased significantly in recent years: butter exports in 1980 were 80,000 tonnes and cheese exports 18,000 tonnes, compared with 16,000 tonnes and 10,000 tonnes respectively in 1976. The other main exports are skim milk powder (147,000 tonnes in 1980) and condensed milk (38,000 tonnes). The industry's interests are represented by the Dairy Trade Federation.

Confectionery

The cocoa, chocolate and sugar confectionery industry is composed of a small number of very large manufacturers and many medium-sized and small companies. The three main manufacturers are Rowntree Mackintosh, Cadbury Schweppes and Mars. Britain has a large share of world trade in chocolate and sugar confectionery.

Bacon Curing, Meat and Fish Products

The industry comprises the curing of bacon and ham, the canning and preserving of meat and fish, the manufacture of sausages and pies and the preparation of extracts and pastes. In addition to the output of quick-frozen fish, small quantities are also canned.

Fruit, Vegetable and Other Products

Fruit and vegetable products include canned, frozen and dried fruit and vegetables, jam, marmalade, pickles and sauces. Other products of the food processing industry include sugar, sugar preparations and honey, eggs, oils and fats, coffee, cocoa, tea and spices, and cereal preparations.

Beverages

Of prime importance among the alcoholic beverages produced in Britain, and in the food and drink industry as a whole, is whisky. Scotch whisky accounts for almost all whisky production in Britain. There are about 130 distilleries in Scotland and the well-known brands of blended Scotch whisky are made from the products of a number of different distilleries. The Distillers Company accounts for about a half of Scotch whisky output. About 80 per cent of all Scotch whisky produced is exported. The principal overseas markets are the United States (which takes nearly a third of whisky exports from Britain), the rest of the European Community and Japan. Production of gin in Britain has risen steadily since the early 1950s and

some of the larger manufacturers also own distilleries overseas. Production of vodka in Britain has increased sharply over the last decade.

In the brewing and malting industry there are seven major brewery groups whose products are sold nationally, and about 80 smaller enterprises who mainly supply locally, or regionally, many of them because of a demand for traditionally brewed beers. Firms have introduced new production methods, including continuous brewing processes, and automated batch production plants are well established. The main raw materials used are malt, hops and some sugar. British malt, which is made almost entirely from home-grown barley, is used by brewers throughout the world. In recent years lager has increased in popularity.

Cider, perry and wine producers form the smallest sector of the drinks industry and are located mostly in southern and western England. Made wine is produced from imported grapes and juices.

The soft drinks industry has expanded markedly in the last decade. There are some very large companies among about 20 producing brands which are marketed on a national scale, while other companies supply regional markets. There is some specialisation among firms in the production of various types, such as carbonated drinks, cola-based drinks, squashes and cordials, 'mixers', fruit juices and health drinks.

Tobacco

The British tobacco industry manufactures almost all the cigarettes and tobacco goods sold in Britain. Over 90 per cent of production is provided by four major manufacturers (the Imperial Group, Gallaher, Carreras Rothmans and British American Tobacco). The industry specialises in the production of high-quality cigarettes made from flue-cured tobacco and achieves significant exports, mainly of cigarettes. Countries in Europe, the Middle East and Africa are important markets for British cigarettes. Britain imports raw tobacco in large amounts from Brazil, India and the United States.

TEXTILES AND RELATED INDUSTRIES

1980	Labour ^a '000s	Sales ^b £ m	Exports £ m	Imports £ m
Total	770	10,821	2,800	3,492
<i>of which :</i>				
man-made fibres	25	723	373	233
cotton }				
linen }	69	1,069	425	776
wool	65	1,153	391	179
carpets	26	581	142	159
hosiery and knitwear	102	1,331	298	360
clothing	270	2,982	551	879
leather and leather goods	31	456	141	202
footwear	67	881	135	359

^aEmployees in employment at June 1980.

^bManufacturers' sales.

The historical branches of the industry, based on the natural fibres of cotton and wool, linen and jute, have retained their separate identities but the boundaries between them are becoming blurred with the increasing use of man-made fibres. The growth of man-made fibres has stimulated the

development of new processes and new types of yarn and cloth and has strongly influenced the structure of the industry. A small number of large multifibre, multiprocess groups have emerged, although in many sectors a preponderance of small companies engages in just one or two operations.

British textile companies manufacture a wide variety of goods, including lace, narrow fabrics and household textiles, such as blankets, sheets, towels, and tablecloths. Rope, twine, nets and netting are manufactured by the cordage industry, and there is an important sector specialising in textiles for industrial applications such as machine belting. A recent development is the production of non-woven fabric by the melded process, which dispenses with the conventional weaving and knitting stages.

The textile and clothing industries in Britain, as in other northern European countries, have been affected by low-cost imports from developing countries. Trade in textiles and clothing is regulated by the Multi-Fibre Arrangement (MFA) of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade. The MFA allows a measure of restraint on imports of textiles and clothing from low-cost countries into industrialised countries.

Man-made Fibres

Much of the early development of man-made fibres took place in Britain and continuing extensive research has produced a wide variety of types with their own special characteristics. The two main types are still those first developed—the cellulosic fibres, such as rayon, and the synthetic fibres, such as nylon and polyester (a British invention), made wholly by chemical processes. Acrylic fibres, including *Courtelle*, *Acrilan* and *Orlon*, are important products, as are the elastomeric or spandex fibres which have inherent properties of stretch and recovery, anti-static synthetic yarns embedded with carbon and various fire-resistant yarns. More recently there has been a greater use of the polyolefins (polypropylene and polyethylene) in the carpet, carpet backing and packaging fields and still more recently in household textiles and clothing. Output in the man-made fibre producing industry is concentrated in the hands of a few large companies.

Recent innovations in man-made fibres include a number with industrial applications. Examples are carbon fibres, used in aerospace; melded fabrics (bonded together without knitting or weaving) with heavy duty uses in civil engineering; high-tenacity filament yarns for cables and stays; high-temperature refractory fibres for furnaces; and charcoal cloth with highly effective air-filtering properties.

Cotton

During the nineteenth century cotton was Britain's chief consumer goods industry and cotton piece goods its largest export. Low-cost competition has cut progressively into British markets and made necessary extensive reorganisation, modernisation and the introduction of new techniques. Production includes single and double cotton yarn, spun man-made fibre and mixture cloth.

Linen

The linen industry is centred in Northern Ireland, where the lighter types of fabrics for apparel, furnishings and household textiles are produced. The heavyweight canvas for sailcloth, tents, awnings and tarpaulins is mainly produced in Scotland.

Wool

Export sales of tops, yarns and fabrics of the wool textile industry in Britain have reached more than three times the value of imports. The industry is one of the largest in the world and includes the world's biggest wool textile

company, Illingworth, Morris. There are two main branches, woollen and worsted. An increasing amount of man-made fibre is now blended with wool. West Yorkshire is the main producing area but Scotland and the west of England are also famous as specialised producers of high quality yarn and cloth. Large quantities of raw wool are scoured and cleaned in Britain to prepare it for spinning. The largest markets for woollen and worsted fabrics are the rest of the European Community, the United States and Japan.

Carpets

Nearly 60 per cent of the output of the carpet and rug industry (in value terms) is made up of tufted carpets, in the production of which the pile, usually with a high man-made fibre content, is inserted into a pre-woven backing. Woven carpets, such as Axminster and Wilton, account for most of the remainder of sales. There is a higher wool content in woven types, although they too are making more use of man-made fibres. The high quality and variety of design make Britain one of the world's leading producers of woven carpets. The volume of carpet sales has contracted since 1976.

Jute

Jute products are manufactured in the Dundee area. Jute yarn and the man-made polypropylene yarn are used in the manufacturing of carpets, cordage and ropes and woven into fabrics for a wide range of applications in the packaging, upholstery, building and motor car industries. New uses for jute, for example, as a plastics reinforcement and for decorative wall coverings, have also been developed.

Hosiery and Knitwear

The hosiery and knitwear industry comprises more than 1,000 companies situated mainly in the East Midlands and Scotland, of which most are small to medium in size. The industry produces fabrics, outerwear, underwear, tights, socks, stockings, gloves and accessories.

Clothing

The British clothing industry is one of the largest in Europe; it is highly labour intensive with about 7,000 companies (predominantly small ones), accounting for 4 per cent of Britain's total employment in manufacturing. The existence of the Multi-Fibre Arrangement has encouraged investment within the industry and exports have risen somewhat since 1977, although import penetration has continued to increase.

Footwear and Leather

The British footwear manufacturing industry is made up predominantly of small companies although there has been some rationalisation in recent years. Though largely labour intensive, the industry has made use of technological advances and supplies half the shoes sold in Britain. Import penetration, however, has continued to increase. Leather tanning and the manufacture of leather goods are also long-established industries; all types of leather (particularly for footwear, clothing and gloves) and leather goods are produced.

Bricks, Fireclay and Refractory Goods

Firms in the industry manufacture such items as bricks, roofing tiles, chimney pots, fireclay ware and heat-resisting products, including furnace and kiln linings. Brickmaking is one of Britain's oldest industries, but most manufacture is now based on highly mechanised systems. London Brick PLC supplies about 40 per cent of total brick deliveries. Refractory goods include firebricks, silica bricks, magnesite bricks, chrome-magnesite bricks and alumina bricks.

Cement

The cement industry is chiefly concerned with the manufacture of Portland cement for the home market. Invented by Joseph Aspdin and patented in 1824, this material and the methods of its production have been the subject of continuous technical improvement and intensive research.

Glass-reinforced cement composites, a new variation, were invented in Britain in the mid-1970s and are manufactured under licence in some 45 other countries. The capacity of the industry as a whole has substantially expanded in recent years.

**OTHER
MANUFACTURING**

1980	Labour ^a '000s	Sales ^b £ m	Exports £ m	Imports £ m
Total	1,322	22,809	3,097	4,674
<i>of which:</i>				
bricks, fireclay, refractory goods and cement	53	1,191	136	22
pottery and glass	116	1,585	425	288
paper and board	61	1,519	315	1,541
paper and board converted products	128	3,151	198	143
printing and publishing	340	4,081	423	266
rubber and rubber goods	93	1,801	520	307
furniture and timber	166	2,964	226	1,178
plastics products not elsewhere specified and floor coverings, etc.	131	2,615	303	326
toys, games and sports equipment	33	480	183	244

^aEmployees in employment at June 1980.

^bManufacturers' sales.

Pottery

The pottery industry, centred largely in Staffordshire, supplies almost all home needs for domestic and industrial pottery. It uses largely indigenous clay from Cornwall and Devon. There has been considerable re-equipment in the industry; kilns fired by gas or electricity have replaced all the coal-fired kilns, and new decorating techniques and automatic and semi-automatic machinery, such as automatic glazing machines, have been introduced. Domestic pottery, including china, earthenware and stoneware, accounts for 55 per cent of the industry's output; the other main divisions are glazed tiles, sanitary ware and electrical ware, and such specialised industrial products as acid-proof stoneware, porous ceramics and laboratory porcelain. Production of tableware is concentrated in two major groups. Britain is the world's principal manufacturer of fine bone china, much of which is exported; famous makes include *Wedgwood*, *Spode*, *Royal Worcester*, *Royal Doulton*, *Minton*, *Aynsley*, *Coalport* and *Royal Crown Derby*.

Glass

Britain's glass industry is one of the biggest in the world. Glass containers form the largest part of the industry; another major section is devoted to the manufacture of flat glass in its various forms, chiefly 'float' glass, a process developed in Britain by Pilkington Brothers and licensed to glassmakers

throughout the world. The use of glass for internal decoration and as a finish for internal and external walls has greatly increased in recent years. Large quantities of safety glass are produced for the motor and other industries. Other products include tubular glass, mirrors, lamp and bulb glass, scientific and medical glassware, glass fibres, and all types of glass containers (mostly made automatically). A traditional product is hand-made lead crystal glassware of very high quality.

Paper and Board Manufacture and Conversion

There were about 130 paper and board mills in 1981, the largest eight accounting for one-third of total British production, which was 3.4 million tonnes. The largest British groups are Wiggins Teape, the Dickinson Robinson Group, Reed International and the Bowater Corporation. They hold considerable interests abroad, including pulp and paper producing mills in the United States, Canada, other parts of the Commonwealth and Europe. Overseas paper and board groups with manufacturing investments in Britain include Georgia Pacific, Kimberley Clark, and Consolidated Bathurst. The main types of paper and board produced are printing and writing papers and board, corrugated case materials, packaging paper and board, and tissue. There has been a significant trend towards waste-based packaging grades, in order to reduce the industry's reliance on imported woodpulp supplies. The use of recycled waste paper is increasing and research is helping to extend it. Waste paper provides over half of the industry's fibre needs. Domestically produced wood pulp represents only a small percentage of raw material supplies.

The packaging and converting industries manufacture a variety of products, including cardboard boxes, cartons, fibreboard packaging and business stationery products.

Printing and Publishing

The printing and publishing industries produce a wide range of products, including national and provincial newspapers, periodicals, books, business stationery and greeting cards. Mergers have led to the formation of large groups in the newspaper, magazine and book publishing sectors, but general printing, engraving, bookbinding and a large part of publishing remain essentially industries of small firms. The book publishing industry is a major exporter. Production processes include high-speed printing, electronic engraving, advanced processes of photographic reproduction and computer typesetting. Security printers (of, for example, banknotes and postage stamps) have a high reputation and are important exporters, the two major companies being De La Rue and Bradbury Wilkinson. The most important overseas markets for printed matter are the United States, the Irish Republic and Australia.

Rubber

Tyres and tubes represent around 45 per cent of sales of rubber manufactures, the most important other goods being vehicle components and accessories, conveyor belting, cables, industrial, hydraulic and marine hoses, latex foam products and rubber footwear, gloves and clothing. Rubber is also used for inflatable life-rafts, containers for fuel and other industrial liquids and seals for storage tanks and other products where there are problems of air exclusion and vapour suppression. The Dunlop Company is Britain's leading tyre and rubber goods manufacturer. Tyre manufacturers include several subsidiaries of United States and other overseas companies. The industry's consumption of rubber includes natural, synthetic and recycled rubber.

Furniture, Brushes and Timber

The furniture industry comprises about 1,700 companies mostly small- to medium-sized with only a few of any significant size. A wide range of products are manufactured, the greater part of production being accounted for by domestic furniture and the remainder by office, contract, school and other furniture. The industry makes wooden, metal and plastic furniture, upholstery, bedding and soft furnishings. Exports have increased in recent years, rising from £69 million in 1975 to £157 million in 1981. The major markets are the United States, the Irish Republic and the Federal Republic of Germany.

The brush industry is located throughout Britain and includes highly mechanised establishments as well as small craft units.

Domestic production of softwood timber has been steadily increasing but the timber-using industries are mainly dependent on imported supplies. A large proportion of timber sales is dependent on the construction industry.

Plastics Products

In addition to the plastics components and accessories supplied to many different industries, the plastics products industry manufactures a wide range of building materials, such as pipes, sheeting for roofs, sanitary ware, tanks and other products. It also supplies flexible foams, used in the vehicle, furniture and other industries; rigid foams; packaging products, including bottles, containers and bags; domestic and industrial hollow-ware; many kinds of household goods; vinyl and other floorcoverings; and artificial leathercloth.

Toys, Games and Sports Equipment

There are about 500 manufacturers of a wide range of toys and games, only a few of significant size. About a third of total production is exported, the major markets being France, the Federal Republic of Germany and the United States. British diecast toys, model construction kits and soft toys are well established in overseas markets. The greatest expansion in the industry in recent years has been in electronic toys and games.

There are about 300 manufacturers of sports equipment, many of which are small companies with a high reputation for craftsmanship. British fishing tackle and golf and tennis equipment have a world-wide reputation. The main export markets are the United States and the rest of the European Community.

CONSTRUCTION

The construction industry accounts for about 6 per cent of gross domestic product. In 1981 some 60 per cent of output by value was new work and 40 per cent was in repairs and maintenance. About 37 per cent of the work was in housing and 63 per cent in other work. The volume of output (which was valued at £21,251 million) declined owing to the industrial recession. About 1.2 million people are employed in the industry, accounting for nearly 6 per cent of total employment. There are also about 314,000 self-employed. Government sponsorship of the construction industry is the responsibility of the Department of the Environment.

The industry includes firms engaged on the design, construction, alteration, repair and maintenance of buildings, highways, airfields, drainage and sewerage systems, docks, harbours and canals, sea defence works, offshore structures, electrical wiring, heating and other installation work, and structural work connected with power stations and telecommunications.

Structure

Construction work is carried out both by private contractors and by public authorities which employ their own labour. In 1981 about 88 per cent of the work was done by private firms. Although there were about 77,000 firms employing two or more people, 92 per cent of them employed fewer than 25. Some large firms are vertically integrated, owning quarries and workshops, mechanised plant and standard builders' equipment; some undertake responsibility for projects from initial design to finished building. All but the smallest projects are generally carried out under professional direction, either by architects or, in the case of the more complicated civil engineering projects, by consulting engineers. The latter, acting on behalf of a client, may advise on the feasibility of projects, draw up plans and supervise the construction work.

The Property Services Agency (PSA), which is an integral part of the Department of the Environment, is responsible for the construction programmes undertaken directly by the Government, including work for the armed forces both in Britain and overseas.

A large proportion of public authority employees are engaged on repair and maintenance work for local authorities. The total labour force includes about 70,000 trainees, whose normal apprenticeship period is three years.

Output

Of the total value of work done in Britain in 1981, £21,221 million, £3,783 million represented new housing and £8,900 million other new work; repair and maintenance accounted for the remaining £8,538 million.

Housing

During 1981 a total of 153,200 dwellings were started in Great Britain. Starts in the public sector were 36,600 and those for private owners 116,500. In the course of the same year 198,800 dwellings were completed, of which 83,300 were in the public sector and 113,500 in the private sector. Industrialised building methods employing prefabricated components are used in some of the work in both sectors.

**Civil
Engineering
Projects**

Among important construction projects in hand or completed in Britain in 1981 were five nuclear power stations, a coal-fired power station, the Dinorwic pumped-storage electricity station, the Thames Barrier, which will form part of London's flood defences, the Humber Bridge, the Kielder dam and reservoir, the Sullom Voe oil terminal, a new air terminal at Heathrow (London), and roads, tunnels, bridges, hospitals and large-scale housing developments.

**Research and
Advisory
Services**

Within the Department of the Environment, the Building Research Establishment is concerned with all aspects of construction research and also provides an advisory service. The Agrément Board, sponsored by the Department, tests and certifies building products and methods.

In addition to research carried out within the major construction and building materials firms, work is also undertaken by research associations, universities and colleges of technology. The Hydraulics Research Station at Wallingford (Oxfordshire) carries out research in water supply, drainage, flood control, sea protection and offshore engineering.

The Association of Building Centres represents 12 building centres throughout Britain, most of which provide exhibition and information services on materials, products, techniques and building services.

**Overseas
Construction**

Total overseas earnings of all sectors of the construction industry in 1980-81 were estimated at about £3,180 million. British contractors earned

£250 million from overseas customers and a further £60 million from overseas branches and subsidiaries. The related professions (consulting engineers, architects and surveyors) had earnings of £500 million while process plant engineering contractors contributed some £300 million and exports of building materials, plant and machinery accounted for some £2,130 million.

In 1980–81 British construction firms carried out work overseas valued at £1,287 million. New contracts worth £1,360 million were won overseas. Recent major projects have included the Dubai Dry Dock, the largest one in the world, and the Hong Kong Metro. Among new orders are a power station project in Hong Kong, a sewerage reconstruction programme in Cairo, Egypt, and a university complex in Oman.

SERVICE INDUSTRIES

There has been a steady rise in the proportion of total output contributed by the service industries in Britain, and in the proportion of employees working in the service sector. In 1981 services contributed about 60 per cent of gross domestic product compared with some 55 per cent in 1970 and 50 per cent in 1960; and in mid-1981 they accounted for 61 per cent of employees in employment compared with 50 per cent in 1970 and 47 per cent in 1960. There has also been an increase in service activities carried out within the productive sector; the proportion of administrative, technical and clerical workers employed in manufacturing, for example, rose from 21 per cent in 1960 to 27 per cent in 1970 and 30 per cent in 1982. It is probable that this represents a growing contribution of management, design, research and development, computing, marketing and distribution skills. The increase in service activity has been accompanied by a rise in the proportion of women in the working population, women tending to find employment more readily in service activities than in production. In June 1981 the number of women in employment was 700,000 higher than ten years earlier, while the number of males was 1,160,000 lower. In mid-1981, 76 per cent of employed women were in service industries compared with 48 per cent of males in employment.

The contribution of the various service sectors to gross domestic product can be seen in Table 9, p 191. The main growth sector since 1970 has been financial and business services, followed by public health and education services, miscellaneous services, public administration and communications. The contribution of the distributive trades to gross domestic product has changed little and that of transport has declined. The rising contribution of the publicly provided health and education services results in part from the recognition that investment in human resources is of increasing importance to an industrialised society in an era of technological advance. Within miscellaneous services, growth (measured by employment) has occurred chiefly in hotels and catering, services associated with leisure activities and motor car servicing and distribution.

One detectable trend in recent decades is that consumers have exchanged certain services (such as public transport, laundries and cinemas) for rented or purchased goods (such as motor cars, washing-machines and television sets) with which they can provide services for themselves. In turn demand for the distribution, maintenance and repair of such goods has generated fresh service activities. Increased consumer expenditure on the running costs of motor vehicles has contributed significantly to the rise in consumer

expenditure on services from 30 per cent of total consumer expenditure in 1960 to 40 per cent in 1981.

In general, technological innovation, particularly in electronics, is combining with increased consumer spending to make possible the provision of new and improved services, ranging from electronic accounting, stock-taking and 'check-out' operations in retail distribution outlets to the provision of credit through cards, the expansion of information systems such as viewdata, and the renting of electronic entertainment goods such as video cassette recorders.

Distribution and certain business and other services are described below. Services described elsewhere are education (Chapter 7), health (Chapter 6), national and local government (Chapter 2), defence (Chapter 4), transport and communications (Chapter 15) and services provided by financial institutions (Chapter 18).

DISTRIBUTION

There were about 3.3 million people engaged in the distributive trades in mid-1981, together with a large number of owners of businesses. The distributive trades accounted for about 9 per cent of national income in 1981, retailing contributing about three-fifths of this and wholesaling and dealing the remainder.

RETAIL TRADES

Turnover of the retail trades has been growing slowly in real terms in recent years. In 1981 retail sales were 43 per cent higher than in 1978, representing, however, only a 6 per cent increase in volume. In 1980 there were an estimated 228,000 businesses in the retail trade in Great Britain with a turnover of more than £13,000 (see Table 14); they had 349,000 outlets, of which about 57 per cent were accounted for by single-outlet retailers. Their turnover was about £59,000 million in 1980 when they invested £1,503 million. Some 2.4 million people (including a large number of part-time staff) were engaged in retailing in 1980. As the large multiple retailers (those with 10 or more outlets) have grown in size and diversified their product ranges, there has been a decline in the number of retail businesses and outlets. The decline has been particularly evident among small independent businesses and retail co-operative societies. Shops selling durable household goods have experienced the fastest growth turnover in recent years, while those selling food have recorded the slowest growth.

The largest multiple retailers in the packaged grocery market are the retail co-operatives, followed by Tesco, Sainsbury, Asda, Fine Fare, Allied Suppliers and International Stores. Retail co-operative societies are voluntary organisations controlled by their members, membership being open to anyone paying a small deposit on a minimum share; at the end of 1981 the 160 retail societies had 9.6 million members and 7,250 retail outlets. Turnover in 1980 amounted to £3,900 million, 7 per cent of total retail trade. Retail co-operatives and the Co-operative Wholesale Society (see p 240) are members of the Co-operative Union as are a number of other co-operative bodies such as the Co-operative Bank. In 1981-82 Tesco had about 544 stores and sales were valued at £2,102 million. Sainsbury had some 265 outlets and the company's sales amounted to £1,951 million.

The leading mixed retail businesses are Marks and Spencer (with sales of £2,199 million in 1981-82), Boots, F W Woolworth, the John Lewis Partnership, House of Fraser, W H Smith & Son, Debenhams and British Home Stores.

There are a number of discount stores operating on the principle of

selling most or all of their goods at a reduced price. Electrical goods, furniture, carpets and do-it-yourself supplies are some of the main items sold by discount stores.

About 18 million people regularly shop by post. In 1980 sales by general mail order firms totalled some £2,370 million, representing 4 per cent of retail sales and 6.5 per cent of retail sales excluding food shops. The volume of mail order sales has increased by about 40 per cent since 1971. The leading items sold by mail order are clothing, footwear, furniture, household textiles and radio, television and electrical goods. The two main mail order firms are Great Universal Stores and Littlewoods.

Table 14: Retail Trade in Great Britain 1980^a

	Number of businesses	Number of outlets	Number of people engaged (thousand)	Turnover ^b (£ million)
Single-outlet retailers	202,363	202,363	880	18,469
Small multiple retailers	29,486	78,409	385	8,572
Large multiple retailers (ten or more retail outlets)	1,253	73,358	1,127	32,042
of which,				
co-operative societies	191	8,556	139	3,869
Food retailers	81,846	118,083	861	22,586
Drink, confectionery and tobacco retailers	39,408	54,878	241	5,973
Clothing, footwear and leather goods retailers	29,884	57,069	291	5,281
Household goods retailers	38,864	58,267	280	7,987
Other non-food retailers	32,228	44,745	221	4,640
Mixed retail businesses	3,346	9,520	420	11,083
Hire and repair businesses	2,502	6,038	47	936
Total retail trade	228,077	348,601	2,368	58,484

Source: *British business*.

^aFigures cover businesses above the threshold of value added tax (£18,000 at that time).

^bIncludes value added tax.

The difference between totals and the sums of their component parts is due to rounding.

Trends

One of the most significant trends in retailing in recent years has been the increase in the proportion of turnover accounted for by large multiple retailers; they have 54 per cent of retail turnover. Other important trends have been the increase in very large self-service stores selling a wide variety of products, diversification by food multiples into selling a wider range of goods, the development of specially designed shopping precincts and an increasing emphasis on price competition.

*Supermarkets,
Superstores and
Hypermarkets*

There are supermarkets in most towns and cities in Britain. The main multiple grocery companies have been steadily increasing the size of their supermarkets and closing the smaller and less efficient ones. The trend to greater size has led to a growing number of superstores and hypermarkets, single-level, self-service stores offering a wider range of food and non-food merchandise and which have at least 2,500 square metres (26,900 square feet) and 5,000 square metres (53,800 square feet) respectively of selling space. They are designed primarily for shoppers with cars and substantial free car-parking space is usually provided. In Britain the first such store was opened in the mid-1960s and by December 1981 there were some 189 superstores and 41 hypermarkets open, while planning permission for a further 52 superstores and 5 hypermarkets had been granted. It is government policy that these stores should be located within urban areas, preferably within shopping centres, where they are accessible to all shoppers including those without cars.

Shopping Centres

Britain has a variety of new purpose-built shopping centres. The largest are the Manchester Arndale and the centre in Milton Keynes, which, both covering more than 93,000 square metres (1 million square feet), are among the largest in Europe. Other large centres are at Brent Cross in London, the Luton Arndale and the Eldon Square Development in Newcastle upon Tyne.

Diversification

Many of the large multiple groups have diversified over the last few years to offer a much bigger range of goods than previously. This has been especially noticeable for the large food retailers, which often sell non-food products, such as beer, wines and spirits, clothing and household appliances, as well as packaged groceries. Another trend is that many superstores and large supermarkets offer fresh as well as packaged food, often with special counters or areas for fresh meat, fish, vegetables and bread baked on the premises.

Promotions

Retailers are placing greater emphasis on price competition as a means of promoting sales, while trading stamps, which were an important method of sales promotion in the late 1960s and early 1970s, have become much less significant. With the growth of payments by credit card, certain of the large retailers have issued their own credit cards for regular customers in an attempt to increase sales, particularly of high-value goods.

*Use of
Technology*

Laser-scanning electronic check-outs are expected to have a major impact on retailing in the next few years. Under this system, the package of each item is marked with a special bar-code which is read by a low-power laser beam at the point of sale and the price is automatically retrieved from a central computer. The customer is given a receipt showing the price and identity of each item purchased, while the store's stock records are altered automatically. Substantial savings are expected from improved stock control and a reduction of individual price marking in stores. Key Markets introduced the first operational laser-scanning electronic check-out in Britain at Spalding (Lincolnshire) in 1979. At a local library in Gateshead, Tyne-and-Wear, a computerised shopping service enables elderly and disabled people to order goods from a supermarket by passing a light-pen over items on a list of goods. Some large multiple retailers are experimenting with sales information on Prestel (see p 301); others are trying out

electronic order and invoice systems in dealings with their suppliers, following a legal change permitting tax invoices in forms other than paper. High-speed labelling techniques, including the use of electronic printers which can overprint labels, the use of pressure-sensitive glues and printing in foil instead of ink, are being adopted in order to save time and labour costs.

WHOLESALE TRADES

In 1980 there were some 80,000 businesses engaged in wholesaling and dealing, employing around 1 million people. In 1980 the turnover of wholesaling (including sales to other wholesalers and dealers) amounted to some £107,300 million. The main areas in which wholesalers are dominant are groceries and provisions, petroleum products, and ores and metals. A number of the large retailers carry out the functions of the wholesaler by having their own warehouses, and buying and distributive organisations.

Two large groups, Booker McConnell and Linfood, predominate in the wholesale food trade. London's wholesale markets play a significant part in the distribution of foodstuffs. New Covent Garden is the main market for fruit and vegetables, Smithfield for meat and Billingsgate for fish.

The co-operative movement in Britain has its own wholesale organisation, the Co-operative Wholesale Society (CWS), to serve the needs of retail societies; its turnover was £1,900 million in 1981. Retail societies are encouraged to buy from the CWS, which supplies about two-thirds of their requirements.

'Cash and carry' wholesaling is becoming increasingly important. By bulk purchasing and limiting their expenditure on premises and credit and delivery facilities, these wholesalers can offer large discounts to their customers. There were estimated to be about 600 'cash and carry' depots in Britain in 1980.

In the grocery trade there are a number of voluntary groups which have been formed by wholesalers with small retailers, whereby the retailers are encouraged by discounts and other incentives to buy as much as possible from the wholesaler. This has helped to preserve the existence of retail outlets for the wholesaler, and also the traditional 'corner shops' and village stores, of value to local communities, and has given small retailers the advantages of bulk buying and co-ordinated distribution.

BUSINESS SERVICES

Business services include advertising, market research, management consultancy, exhibition and conference facilities, computer services and auction houses. Most of these sectors have grown rapidly in recent years.

Advertising

Advertising expenditure rose by 13 per cent in 1981 to £2,880 million, according to the Advertising Association, though this represented a fall on the previous year in real terms, owing to the recession. Advertising in the press accounted for 65 per cent of the total, television for 29 per cent, posters for 4 per cent and commercial radio for 2 per cent. Advertising campaigns are planned mainly by advertising agencies, of which there are several hundred in Britain; in some cases they also provide marketing, consumer research and other services. There were some 37,000 people employed in advertising and market research in mid-1980.

Market Research

The 24 members of the Association of Market Survey Organisations (AMSO) accounted for about three-quarters of total turnover by market research companies in 1981. Excluding the largest company (the AGB

group, which had an estimated turnover of £14 million) the turnover of AMSO members increased to £57 million in 1981 from £49 million in 1980. Research on behalf of food companies accounted for 22 per cent.

Management Consultancy

There are thought to be some 5,000 management consultants in Britain, of whom 2,150 are practising members of the Institute of Management Consultants. Among the largest management consultancy companies are the 25 members of the Management Consultants Association, whose turnover amounted to £64 million in 1981. Revenue earned within Britain comprised £45 million, an increase of 14 per cent on the previous year, while overseas revenue amounted to £19 million. The Association reports a growing demand for services supporting the application of computer technology, particularly microprocessing, to all aspects of business.

Exhibition and Conference Centres

With the steady increase in new and renovated facilities, some 55 to 60 towns and cities are well equipped to hold conferences and exhibitions. Among the most modern are the National Exhibition Centre at Birmingham, the Wembley Conference Centre and the Barbican Centre in London, the Brighton Centre in Sussex, and the Harrogate Centre in North Yorkshire. Other large facilities are the Earls Court, Olympia and Wembley Arena sites in London. The Union of International Associations, based in Brussels, estimated that about 12 per cent (some 545) of the world's main international conferences were held in Britain in 1981, more than in any other country. British firms are very active overseas in the market for exhibition organising services.

Computer Services

Britain is acknowledged as a world leader in the provision of software and computer services, and software developed in Britain has contributed to developments in the applications of computers in numerous countries. The industry comprises software houses, which provide professional services such as consultancy and the writing of programs to meet the computing needs of their clients, and computer bureaux, where the main emphasis is on processing customers' data. The revenue of the industry was £612 million in 1981, about £76 million more than in the previous year. The industry has recorded an annual average growth at constant (1975) prices of 13 per cent since 1971. Some 26,600 people were employed full-time in computing services in 1981. About 200 computer service companies are members of the Computing Services Association, the leading trade association. Apart from subsidiaries of ICL many of the companies are subsidiaries of firms engaged in activities such as banking, insurance, manufacturing and distribution.

Auction Houses

Britain's chief auction houses are active in the international auction markets for works of art, trading on the acknowledged expertise of British valuers and dealers. The two largest houses, Sotheby's and Christie's, are established world-wide and had turnover of £267 million and £173 million in 1981-82 respectively.

Other Business Services

Other business services include land and estate companies, estate agents, and typewriting, duplicating, document copying, translating and employment agencies.

MISCELLANEOUS SERVICES

Film and Television

Some 106,000 people were employed in film, theatre, musical, broadcasting and related services in June 1980, and 205,000 in services connected with sport, recreation, gambling and betting.

Among major changes in the film and television industry in recent years, two main trends have been the growth of the specialised film and television services sector on the one hand, and the decline of the cinema sector, partly as a result of the growth of public television services, on the other (see also pp 370 and 386). Technical developments, such as the use of magnetic videotape instead of film, and the exploitation of computer-generated graphics, have been responsible for changes both in the production and exhibition of film and television material. They have also played a part in the growth of the specialised sector, in which relatively small studios, mostly based in London, provide a wide range of film and television services, including the making of advertising films, 'special effects' sequences for feature and other films, documentary and educational programmes, and cartoon films. In addition, new audio-visual technology is being adopted in industrial, commercial, medical and scientific contexts for information, observation and training purposes.

The Department of Trade conducts an annual inquiry into the value of overseas transactions relating to the production and exhibition of cinema and television material. For many years the inquiry has shown a surplus of receipts over expenditure. In 1981 receipts by film and television companies were £145 million, while expenditure was £104 million, a surplus of £41 million. Film companies' receipts totalled £98 million and television companies' receipts £47 million, the North American market accounting for 45 per cent of revenue in both cases. Some 237 film companies, the 15 Independent Broadcasting Authority programme contractors and the British Broadcasting Corporation were covered in the 1981 inquiry.

Hotels and Catering

The hotel and catering trades employed 921,000 people in 1980, 274,000 in hotels and other residential establishments; 183,000 in restaurants, cafes and snack bars; 271,000 in public houses; 118,000 in clubs; and 71,000 by catering contractors. A large number of self-employed people are also engaged in hotels and catering. There were about 14,000 licensed hotels in Great Britain in 1980 with a total turnover of £2,480 million. Many licensed hotels as well as most of the numerous guest houses are small, with fewer than 20 rooms, although there are also several large groups of hotels. The biggest is Trusthouse Forte Ltd, the world's largest hotel, catering and leisure company, which runs over 800 hotels including some 218 in Britain. The total turnover of holiday camps and camping and caravan sites was about £200 million in 1977. Among the largest firms running holiday centres (including holiday camps with full board, self-catering centres and caravan parks) are Butlins, Pontins, Ladbroke Holidays, Warners and Haven Leisure. There were over 11,500 licensed restaurants (with a total turnover of about £1,430 million) in Great Britain in 1980 and a further 22,700 unlicensed establishments (with a total turnover of more than £1,100 million) including snack bars, cafes, fish and chip shops and other establishments selling 'take-away' food. Britain has a very wide range of restaurants of which a substantial number specialise in the dishes of other countries such as Chinese, Italian, Indian and Greek foods. 'Fast food' catering, in which establishments sell hot food such as hamburgers or chicken to be eaten either on the premises or elsewhere, is becoming

increasingly significant. Take-away meals now account for more than one-third of all meals bought in restaurants and other catering establishments. There are about 41,000 'pubs' (public houses, which mainly sell beer, wines and spirits for consumption on the premises) in Great Britain, with a total turnover of over £4,860 million in 1980.

Other Services

In June 1980 some 488,000 people were employed in garages, petrol stations and by motor repairers and distributors in Britain. In spite of the continuing increase in the number of road vehicles, the number of petrol stations is declining and at the end of 1981 there were some 24,760 (3 per cent fewer than in 1980), of which 32 per cent were owned by oil companies. There were about 8,130 outlets selling diesel fuel. Self-service stations are becoming increasingly important and in 1981 they accounted for 27 per cent of petrol stations. There were some 20,000 retail outlets wholly or mainly engaged in motor vehicle distribution in 1980.

Other services provided include hairdressing and manicure (92,000 employees in June 1980), laundries (45,000), launderettes, dry cleaning, window cleaning, shoe repair, antique dealing, and funeral services.

TRAVEL AND TOURISM

The travel business is another growth sector and some 2,140 travel agencies with about 4,900 offices (about 90 per cent of the total) belong to the Association of British Travel Agents (ABTA). Many travel agents are small businesses but nearly half of ABTA members have more than one office. There are a few large firms (of which the biggest is Thomas Cook) with about 185 branches. There are also some 460 tour operator members of ABTA, of whom half are also travel agencies. The leading tour operators are British Airways (through its subsidiaries, Sovereign and Enterprise), Cosmos, Horizon, Intasun and Thomson. Nearly three-quarters of the package holiday market is accounted for by the 26 largest air travel organisers. ABTA operates financial protection schemes to safeguard its members' customers, maintains codes of conduct drawn up with the Office of Fair Trading, and offers a free conciliation service to help to resolve complaints against members and an independent arbitration scheme for tour operators' customers.

Overseas earnings from foreign travel increased by more than five times (at current prices) in the 1970s. It is estimated that in 1981 some 11.5 million overseas visitors to Britain (some 935,000 fewer than in the previous year) spent £2,960 million, about the same as in 1980. British residents made 19 million trips abroad and spent £3,285 million, giving a deficit on the travel account for the first time since 1967. About half of overseas visitors to Britain came from other European Community countries, 18 per cent from North America and about 12 per cent from elsewhere in Western Europe. There was an increase of 1.5 million visits abroad by British residents in 1981; the main destinations were the European Community (just over half of all visits) and elsewhere in Western Europe (just under one-third). Official support for the promotion of tourism within Britain is provided by the British Tourist Authority and the tourist boards for England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland (see p 206). Registration schemes exist for tourist accommodation throughout Britain and facilities offered by registered establishments are listed in the boards' accommodation guides. Information on tourist facilities and accommodation is available from official information centres throughout Britain and on the Prestel information service.

ENERGY AND NATURAL RESOURCES

Britain has the largest energy resources of any country in the European Community. Minerals as a whole make an important contribution to the economy. The approximate value of minerals produced in 1980 was £14,231 million, of which crude oil accounted for 53 per cent, coal 31 per cent and natural gas 5 per cent. The value of mineral production was 46 per cent higher at constant prices than in 1970, virtually all of the increase being accounted for by oil and gas.

All minerals in Great Britain are privately owned, with the exception of gold, silver, oil and natural gas (which are owned by the Crown), and coal and some minerals associated with coal. On the United Kingdom Continental Shelf the right to exploit all minerals except coal is vested in the Crown. The exclusive right to extract coal, or license others to do so, both on land and under the sea, is vested in the National Coal Board. Normally, ownership of minerals runs with the ownership of the land surface but in some areas, particularly where mining has taken place, these rights have become separated. Mining and quarrying, apart from coal, are usually carried out by privately owned companies.

Water resources are normally sufficient for domestic and industrial requirements; supplies are obtained from surface sources such as mountain lakes and from underground sources by such means as wells and boreholes.

ENERGY

Four main primary sources of energy—petroleum, coal, natural gas and nuclear power—are used in Britain, together with some water power; secondary sources produced from these are electricity, coke and very small quantities of town gas. During 1980 Britain became self-sufficient in energy in net terms as a result of the continued growth in offshore oil production, and this position should be maintained for a number of years. Coal and nuclear power are nevertheless likely to have an increasingly important role in Britain's primary energy supply particularly in the long term. Estimated operating reserves of coal, Britain's richest natural resource, are 7,000 million tonnes, equivalent to output at present rates of extraction for nearly 60 years; total coal resources are many times higher. A major capital investment programme in the coal industry is in progress. Nuclear power provided about 13 per cent of electricity available through the public supply system in 1981 and the proportion will grow as further nuclear power stations now under construction, or planned, are brought into service.

Privately owned companies predominate in offshore oil and gas production and oil refining, while publicly owned bodies are responsible for most coal production, gas distribution, and electricity generation and

distribution. The publicly owned fuel and power industries in Britain employ in total some 500,000 people, just over 2 per cent of the working population; their annual turnover is about £25,000 million and capital investment £3,000 million. In Great Britain the Secretary of State for Energy is responsible for these industries, except for electricity in Scotland which is the responsibility of the Secretary of State for Scotland.

Energy Policy

The Government's energy strategy involves ensuring the security and availability of energy supplies, using oil and gas reserves at an optimum rate, developing competitive coal production, expanding the role of nuclear power, supporting research into renewable sources of energy and encouraging measures which result in lower energy consumption. Pricing that reflects the true long-term costs of energy supplies is also central to the Government's approach, both to discourage the wasteful use of energy and to stimulate new methods of utilising and saving it.

Britain is actively engaged in international collaboration on energy questions, notably through its membership of the European Community (following a British initiative, agreement was reached in 1981 on energy pricing principles) and of the International Energy Agency (IEA, a body with 21 member countries attached to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). Since its establishment in 1974, the IEA has agreed a wide range of co-operative measures to reduce member nations' dependence on imported oil. The rapid increase of North Sea oil production, together with the Government's policies on coal, nuclear power and energy conservation, has meant that, from being a net oil importer of 41 million tonnes of oil in 1978, Britain has been able to accept, as a contribution to the European Community's response to the world economic summit in Tokyo in 1979, a target for 1985 of net exports of 5 million tonnes of oil. The Government also attaches considerable importance to a common understanding between energy producers and energy consumers.

ENERGY CONSUMPTION

Inland primary energy consumption fell by 3.5 per cent in 1981 to 317.3 million tonnes (see Table 15), the second successive annual fall in consumption since 1975, reflecting energy conservation and the economic recession. The changing pattern of consumption is illustrated in the diagram on p 246, the most noticeable feature being the growing contribution of natural gas. Energy consumption by final users in 1981 amounted

Table 15: Inland Energy Consumption (in terms of primary sources)

	<i>million tonnes coal equivalent</i>				
	1970	1975	1979	1980	1981
Oil	150.0	136.5	139.0	121.4	110.8
Coal	156.9	120.0	129.6	120.8	118.4
Natural gas	17.9	55.4	71.1	71.1	72.1
Nuclear energy	9.5	10.9	13.8	13.4	13.7
Hydro-electric power	2.3	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.3
Total	336.7	324.8	355.7	328.7	317.3

Source: Department of Energy

Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding.

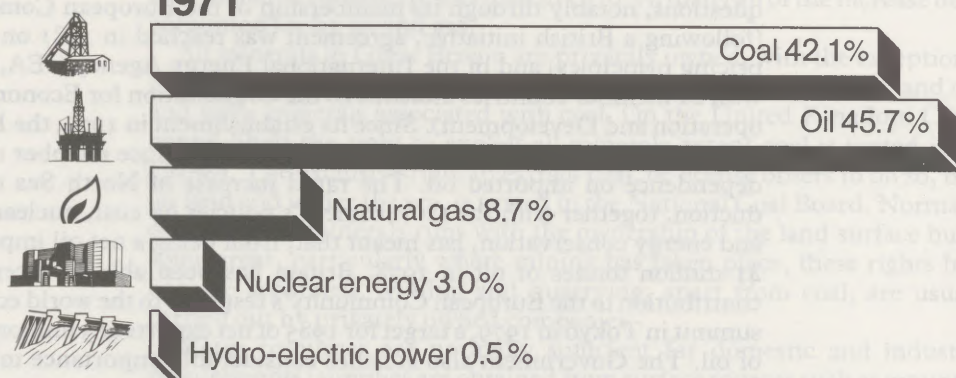
to 54,998 million therms¹ on a 'heat supplied' basis, of which industrial users consumed about 33 per cent, domestic users 29 per cent, transport 25 per cent and public services 6 per cent.

ENERGY CONSERVATION

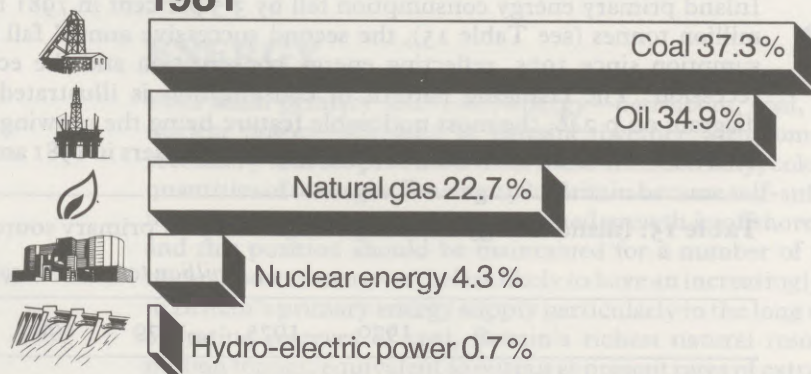
Energy conservation has a central place in the Government's energy strategy. It is based on the rational pricing of energy and supported by a campaign of information and advice to consumers including the encouragement of good energy conservation practice throughout industry. The Secretary of State for Energy is advised by an independent Advisory Council on Energy Conservation, while studies on energy conservation and alternative sources of energy are undertaken by a number of organisations, notably the Energy Technology Support Unit of the Department of Energy.

Primary Energy Consumption

1971



1981



Conservation Measures

Several schemes to help industry and commerce to conserve energy are in operation, including assistance towards the cost of consultants' surveys, energy audits in selected industries and financial assistance for research, development and demonstration projects. Firms are encouraged to appoint energy managers (of whom there are over 5,000) to draw up and be responsible for energy conservation measures in factories and offices. Many

¹1 therm = 105,506 kilojoules.

firms have achieved significant economies through measures such as better use of heating and lighting, improved operational and maintenance techniques, and the installation of draught-proofing and additional insulation. Following discussions with the Government, the motor manufacturers are working towards a voluntary target of a 10 per cent improvement between 1978 and 1985 in the average mileage per gallon achieved by new cars sold in Britain. The Government believes that in certain circumstances it is appropriate to give consumers a direct financial inducement to adopt conservation measures and, for example, under the Homes Insulation Act 1978, grants are available to householders for loft and water-tank insulation. In some areas the Government sets compulsory standards such as the maximum temperature in non-domestic buildings and the minimum insulation standard of all new buildings. Under the Energy Conservation Act 1981 the Government has powers to enable standards to be set for the efficiency of new space and water heating appliances and of gas appliances, for industrial and domestic uses. These powers will enable the Government to implement a number of European Community directives on heat generators and gas appliances.

OFFSHORE OIL AND GAS

Britain's energy position has been transformed by the discovery of substantial oil and gas reserves (estimated to be worth over £400,000 million) offshore in the United Kingdom Continental Shelf (UKCS). Seismic prospecting began in the early 1960s and full-scale exploration activities in 1964. The total area covered by production licences is some 84,000 square kilometres (32,500 square miles) out of a total designated area of about 643,000 square kilometres (248,250 square miles), over which Britain has exercised its rights to explore and exploit the seabed and subsoil. Expenditure on offshore and onshore exploration and development amounts to over £31,000 million (at 1981 prices) so far. Expenditure in 1981 was estimated at about £3,300 million.

Offshore Supplies

The Department of Energy's Offshore Supplies Office seeks to ensure that British industry can compete effectively for orders for offshore equipment by helping firms to identify the needs of offshore operators, assisting operators to identify British suppliers of offshore equipment and services, and promoting new ventures to increase British involvement in the industry. British companies increased their share of the United Kingdom offshore market, worth £2,900 million in 1981, from between 25 and 30 per cent in 1973 to 67 per cent in 1981 and are increasingly involved in supplying other offshore markets.

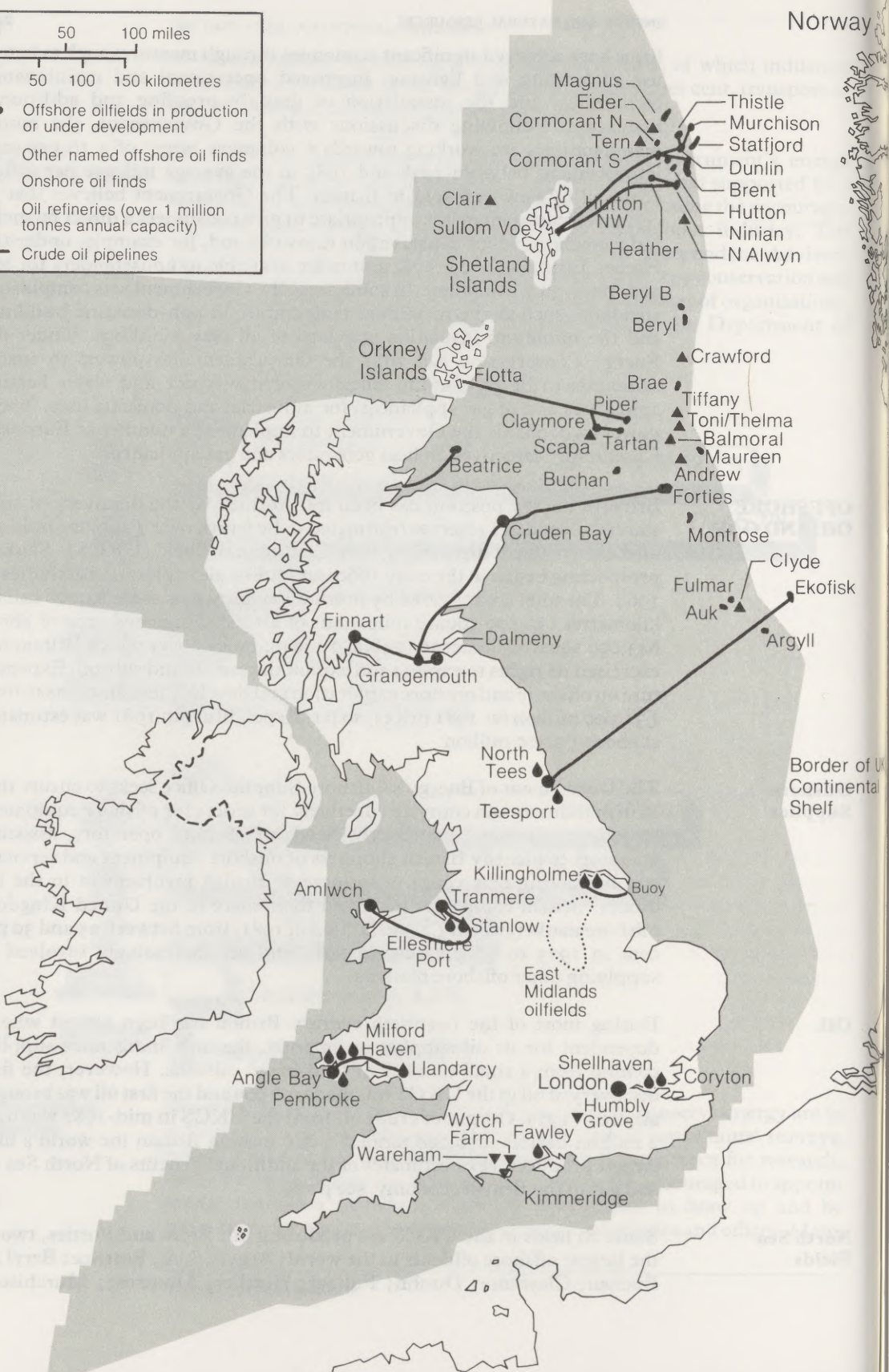
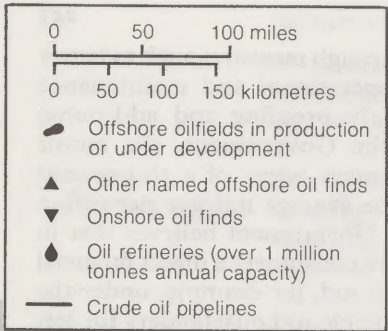
OIL

During most of the twentieth century Britain has been almost wholly dependent for its oil supplies on imports, the only indigenous supplies coming from a small number of land-based oilfields. However, the first discovery of oil in the UKCS was made in 1969 and the first oil was brought ashore in 1975. Output of crude oil from the UKCS in mid-1982 was over 2 million barrels (270,000 tonnes) a day making Britain the world's fifth largest producer. (For estimates of the additional benefits of North Sea oil and gas to the British economy, see p 189.)

North Sea Fields

Some 20 fields in the UKCS are producing oil: Brent and Forties, two of the largest offshore oilfields in the world; Argyll; Auk; Beatrice; Beryl A; Buchan; Claymore; Dunlin; Fulmar; Heather; Montrose; Murchison;

Oil



Ninian; North Cormorant; Piper; South Cormorant; Statfjord; Tartan; and Thistle. A further six fields are under development while another 20 significant finds may prove to have commercial potential after further appraisal. Production from most large fields is controlled from production platforms of either steel or concrete which have been built to withstand severe weather including gusts of wind of up to 260 km/h (160 mph) and waves of 30 metres (100 feet).

Britain's primary oil production, including condensates and petroleum gases, amounted to nearly 90 million tonnes in 1981 (see Table 16), 11 per cent more than in 1980.

Production is expected to continue to rise, reaching between 90 million and 105 million tonnes in 1982, and between 95 million and 125 million tonnes in 1984. Output should be at its highest levels in the mid-1980s, but is expected to begin to decline in the 1990s, although Britain should be a significant producer on a smaller scale until well into the twenty-first century. The Government's view is that its oil policy should encourage exploration and development with the objective of maximising economic oil production for the foreseeable future. Remaining proven reserves of oil in the UKCS amount to about 1,050 million tonnes while the total remaining reserves of the UKCS could be as high as 4,000 million tonnes.

Table 16: Oil Statistics*million tonnes*

	1970	1975	1979	1980	1981
Oil production ^a :					
land	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2
offshore	—	1.5	77.7	80.2	89.2
Refinery output	94.7	86.6	90.6	79.2	72.0
Deliveries of petroleum products for inland consumption	91.2	82.8	84.6	71.2	66.3
Exports (including re-exports):					
crude petroleum	1.1	0.8	38.8	38.5	51.4
refined petroleum products and process oils	17.3	14.3	14.4	16.1	13.1
Imports:					
crude petroleum	100.8	87.2	57.9	44.8	33.1
refined petroleum products and process oils	23.1	16.0	16.0	14.1	13.1

Sources: Department of Energy, HM Customs and Excise, and United Kingdom Petroleum Industry Association

^aCrude oil plus condensates and petroleum gases derived at onshore treatment plants.

Structure of the Oil Industry

The two leading British oil companies are British Petroleum (BP) and Shell Transport and Trading, which are the two largest industrial companies in Britain in terms of turnover. Sales by BP (in which the Government has a 39 per cent stake) averaged 3.1 million barrels a day of crude oil and petroleum products in 1981, and its gross income was £31,400 million. It has about 153,000 employees, of whom 41,000 are employed in Britain.

The British National Oil Corporation (BNOC) is a public corporation set up under the Petroleum and Submarine Pipelines Act 1975 and a major oil trader. On 1 August 1982, under the Oil and Gas (Enterprise) Act 1982,

BNOC's oil-producing business (covering substantial exploration, development and production activities on the UKCS) was transferred to a new company, Britoil, which will become an independent private sector company by a public sale of shares. BNOC will continue in existence, wholly within the public sector, as an oil trader. By virtue of its rights through agreements with other oil companies to purchase up to 51 per cent of oil currently produced, and as agent for the Government in marketing oil received as royalty for payments in kind, BNOC will remain the largest single trader in oil from the UKCS.

There are several other large oil companies operating in Britain or engaged in work on the UKCS. In addition, there are about 30 independent oil exploration companies with interests in North Sea developments.

Land-based Fields

Onshore production of crude oil in Britain is much less significant than offshore production. In 1981 it amounted to about 230,000 tonnes, over 140,000 tonnes of which was produced from Britain's largest onshore field at Wytch Farm (Dorset), which started production in 1979. Eleven other onshore fields are in operation, notably Bothamsall and Egmonton in Nottinghamshire, Gainsborough in Lincolnshire and Kimmeridge in Dorset.

Refineries

The crude distillation capacity of Britain's oil refineries stood at 125.4 million tonnes at the beginning of 1982. All but four of the 18 refineries in operation in September 1982 had a distillation capacity of over 5 million tonnes a year and are shown on the map on p 248. Two have a crude distillation capacity of over 10 million tonnes a year: Stanlow, in Cheshire (12.2 million tonnes); and Fawley, near Southampton (14 million tonnes). Existing refineries are being adapted to the changing pattern of demand by the construction of new upgrading facilities which are leading to a higher output of motor spirit and naphtha at the expense of fuel oil.

Consumption

Deliveries of petroleum products for inland consumption (excluding refinery consumption) in 1981 totalled 66.3 million tonnes including 15.6 million tonnes of fuel oil, 18.7 million tonnes of motor spirit, 17.1 million tonnes of gas and diesel oil (including derv fuel used in road vehicles), and 6.4 million tonnes of kerosene. Deliveries were 6.9 per cent less than in 1980, consumption of all the main petroleum products, except naphtha, having declined.

International Trade

With the growth in offshore oil production, the volume of imports of crude oil has fallen considerably to about 30 per cent of the level of the peak year of 1973. The main sources of imports in 1981 were Saudi Arabia (which supplied about 52 per cent by volume), Kuwait (12 per cent) and Norway (9 per cent). Exports in 1981 of 51 million tonnes offset imports of 33 million tonnes for the first time. Virtually all exports went to the markets of Britain's partners in the European Community and the International Energy Agency, the two largest markets being the United States and the Federal Republic of Germany.

Exports of crude oil accounted for over half of UKCS output in 1981. Some 13 million tonnes of petroleum products were also exported.

Oil Pipelines

Oil pipelines brought ashore about 86 per cent of offshore oil in 1981. About 950 miles (1,530 kilometres) of submarine pipeline have been built to bring

ashore oil from a number of North Sea oilfields (see map). Major crude oil onshore pipelines in operation from harbours, land terminals or offshore moorings to refineries include those connecting Finnart to Grangemouth, Angle Bay (Milford Haven) to Llandarcy, Tranmere to Stanlow, Amlwch (Gwynedd) to Stanlow, and Cruden Bay to Grangemouth. Onshore pipelines also carry refined products to major marketing areas; for example, a 300-mile (480-kilometre) pipeline runs from Milford Haven to the Midlands and Manchester.

Research

Research into petroleum technology is carried out mainly by the leading oil companies, which have extensive research and development programmes in support of oil exploration and production and on new and improved fuels. All aspects of production are covered, including the design of production facilities and enhanced oil recovery techniques. Research centres are situated at Sunbury-on-Thames (BP), Ellesmere Port in Cheshire and Sittingbourne in Kent (Shell), and Abingdon in Oxfordshire (Esso). The main government research and development effort in offshore technology is undertaken by the Department of Energy with the advice of the Offshore Energy Technology Board. In 1982–83 the Department expects to spend some £20.5 million in support of offshore technology.

GAS

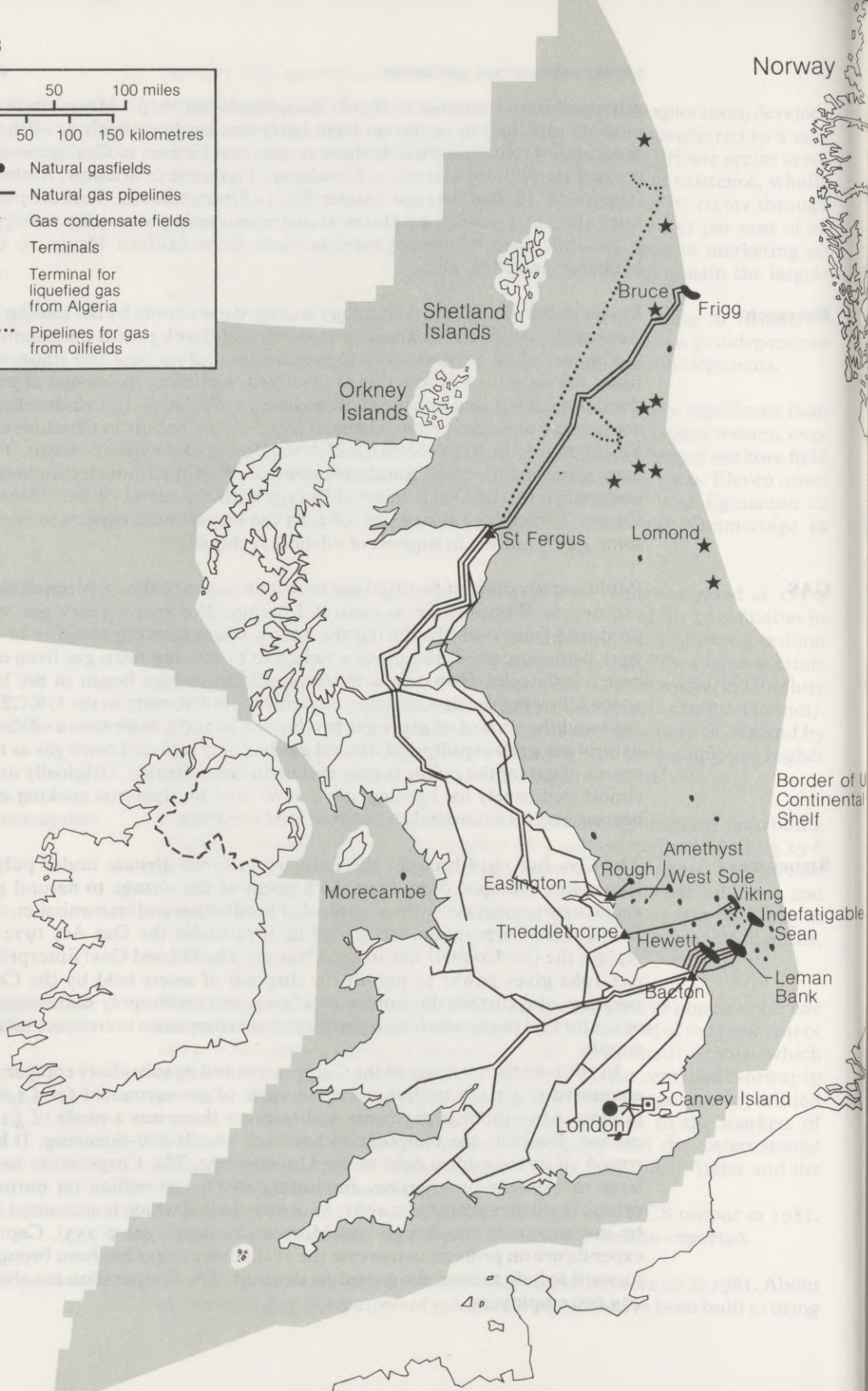
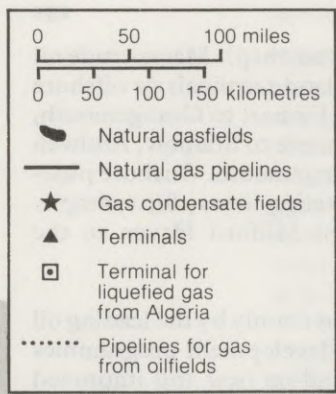
Public supply of manufactured gas in Britain began in the early nineteenth century in Westminster in central London. For many years gas was produced from coal but during the 1960s, when growing supplies of oil were being imported, there was a switch to producing town gas from oil-based feedstocks. However, a more significant change began in the late 1960s following the first commercial natural gas discovery in the UKCS in 1965 and the start of offshore gas production in 1967. Supplies of offshore natural gas grew rapidly and natural gas has now replaced town gas as the source of gas for the public supply system in Great Britain. Originally used almost exclusively for lighting, gas is now used for domestic cooking and heating and for industrial and commercial purposes.

Structure

The Gas Act 1948 brought the industry in Great Britain under public ownership and control in 1949. As a result of the change to natural gas necessitating more centralised control of production and transmission, the British Gas Corporation was set up in 1973 under the Gas Act 1972 to replace the Gas Council and area gas boards. The Oil and Gas (Enterprise) Act 1982 gives power to permit the disposal of assets held by the Corporation, and curtails the Corporation's statutory monopoly in the supply of gas for fuel purposes so as to permit private companies to compete in this supply.

In 1981–82 the turnover of the Corporation and its subsidiary companies amounted to £5,235 million, of which sales of gas accounted for £4,624 million. After interest payments and taxation there was a profit of £144 million. Recently the Corporation has been wholly self-financing. It has repaid all its long-term debt to the Government. The Corporation has a large investment programme, amounting to £4,300 million (at outturn prices) in the five years from 1981–82, nearly half of which is accounted for by investment in the Rough and Morecambe fields (see p 253). Capital expenditure on projects to increase the availability of gas has been brought forward to help to meet the growth in demand. The Corporation has about 105,000 employees.

Gas



Natural gas is not available in Northern Ireland and the industry there, which is controlled by nine municipal undertakings and four private sector companies, uses town gas produced from oil feedstocks. In 1979 the Government decided that the large-scale expenditure required for a natural gas pipeline from Great Britain to Northern Ireland could not be justified and that it could not subsidise the industry's operations. Accordingly, most of the gas undertakings have decided that without government support they would be unable to continue and began a phased run-down of the industry. However, there is a possibility of obtaining natural gas from the Irish Republic's Kinsale field, and the terms of a possible supply are being discussed with the Government of the Irish Republic to see whether such a supply could provide the basis of a financially viable industry.

Production

In 1981 home-produced natural gas accounted for about 75 per cent of total natural gas supplies, the remainder coming from Norway and Algeria. Output of natural gas from the UKCS amounted to 37,389 million cubic metres (mcm), of which 1,606 mcm were used for drilling, production and pumping operations offshore and 170 mcm supplied direct to the petrochemical industry, leaving 35,613 mcm available for the public supply gas industry. Production comes mainly from six major gasfields: Leman Bank, Indefatigable, Hewett, Viking, Frigg (UK), and West Sole. In addition, a growing amount of gas produced in association with oil in oilfields is being brought ashore, particularly from the Piper field. The British Gas Corporation is undertaking a major investment programme to develop the Morecambe field in the Irish Sea, and the first supplies should be brought ashore in 1984.

Indigenous offshore natural gas supplies are expected to be sufficient to meet the major part of British requirements into the twenty-first century. Total proven gas reserves remaining in known discoveries in the UKCS at the end of 1981 amounted to 664,000 mcm and total possible reserves in known discoveries amounted to 1.4 million mcm.

Transmission and Storage

The national high-pressure pipeline system of some 3,100 miles (5,000 kilometres) provides for the distribution of natural gas. It is supplied by feeder mains from four North Sea shore terminals and from the Canvey Island terminal which can receive tankers carrying liquefied natural gas. Four new pipelines have been built to carry gas from St Fergus (Grampian) to central Scot and northern England. In the northern North Sea two 225-mile (362-kilometre) pipelines have been laid between the Frigg field and St Fergus, while the longest offshore pipeline in the UKCS has been laid for 281 miles (452 kilometres) between the Brent field and St Fergus. A link to the Magnus, Murchison and Thistle fields to enable gas to be brought ashore from these fields via the Brent pipeline system is expected to become operational in the summer of 1983. The gas brought ashore is likely to be separated into natural gas suitable for distribution through the national pipeline system and other gases such as ethane, propane and butane which are expected to provide an important new feedstock for the petrochemical industry. The Corporation has developed the world's most advanced computerised inspection vehicle for high-pressure pipelines that detects flaws as it travels through them.

Various methods of storage of natural gas to meet peak load conditions are being developed including additional storage facilities for liquefied natural gas and the use of salt cavities. The British Gas Corporation has

acquired the partially depleted Rough gasfield and intends to use it to store natural gas. This is the first time an offshore gasfield will be used for this purpose.

Consumption

Sales of gas by the public supply industry in Britain totalled 16,622 million therms in 1981. About half of all gas sold by the British Gas Corporation to its 15.7 million consumers is for industrial and commercial purposes, most of the remainder being for household use. Gas is used extensively in industries requiring the control of temperatures to a fine degree of accuracy such as the pottery industry and certain processes for making iron and steel products. In 1981, 5,670 million therms of gas were sold to industry in Britain, 78 million therms to public supply and transport power stations and 2,110 million therms to commercial users. The domestic load includes gas for cookers, space heaters, water heaters and refrigerators, but an increasingly large part of domestic demand is for gas for central heating. In 1981, 8,764 million therms were sold to domestic users.

Research

The British Gas Corporation conducts research at five research stations into all aspects of gas supply and use. Its total expenditure on research and development and on technical service and testing amounted to £64 million in 1981-82. Work on processes for the manufacture of substitute natural gas (SNG) from either oil or coal is one of the Corporation's main research projects and it has a 20-year programme, expected to cost some £300 million, to enable it to produce commercial quantities of SNG when this is required to augment supplies of natural gas. A demonstration coal gasification plant ('slagging gasifier') has been built at the Westfield Development Centre in Fife and a prototype plant to make SNG from oil at Killingholme (Humberside) began operating in 1982.

COAL

Coalmining in Britain can be traced back to the thirteenth century. It played a crucial part in the industrial revolution of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and in its peak year, 1913, the industry produced 287.4 million tonnes of coal, exported 73.4 million tonnes and employed over a million workers. In 1947 the coal mines passed into public ownership by means of the Coal Industry Nationalisation Act 1946, which set up the National Coal Board (NCB) as a statutory corporation to manage the industry.

The National Coal Board

The NCB has, with limited exceptions, exclusive rights over the extraction of coal in Great Britain, but is empowered to license private operators to work small mines and opencast sites. It also has powers to work other minerals, where discoveries are made in the course of searching for, or working, coal; and to engage in certain petrochemical activities beneficial to the future of the coal industry. Retail sales remain largely in private hands, although the NCB makes bulk sales to large industrial consumers.

In 1981-82 the NCB's income was nearly £4,420 million including sales of coal (and other coalmining products) of some £4,270 million; there was a trading loss in the year of £84.5 million.

Production and Productivity

At the end of March 1982 there were 198 NCB collieries in operation grouped into 12 areas. The main coal-bearing areas are shown on the map on p 255 and the main trends in the coal industry are shown in Table 17. In 1981-82 output of 126.6 million tonnes comprised 108.9 million tonnes

Coal



from the NCB's deep mines, 14.8 million tonnes from opencast mines and 2.9 million tonnes from licensed mines and other sources. Britain's coal industry remains the largest in Western Europe and is one of the world's most technologically advanced. Substantial progress has been made in techniques for mining coal. Developments are concentrated on the introduction of computerised automatic monitoring and remote control of machines, together with the increasing use of heavy-duty equipment, such as powered roof supports, power loaders and armoured flexible conveyors, capable of sustained high performance with minimum maintenance. Productivity in terms of output per manshift rose to 2.4 tonnes in 1981-82, the most productive fields being in north Nottinghamshire and north Derbyshire with overall output per manshift of over 3 tonnes.

Table 17: Coal Statistics*year ended March*

	Unit	1971	1976	1980	1981	1982
Output	million tonnes	147.5	126.9	125.1	128.4	126.6
of which, opencast	million tonnes	8.5	10.7	13.4	15.7	14.8
Output per manshift ^a :						
underground	tonnes	2.92	2.91	2.95 ^b	2.94	3.03
overall	tonnes	2.24	2.28	2.31 ^b	2.32	2.40
Inland consumption	million tonnes	150.6	122.3	128.4	120.3	117.0
Average labour force ^a	'000	287.2	247.1	232.5	229.8	218.5
Collieries in operation ^a	number	292	241	219	211	198

Sources: *Department of Energy and NCB*^aNCB mines only.^bFigures for this and the following years are not directly comparable with those for earlier years.

Capital Investment

The NCB's capital expenditure amounted to £886 million in 1981-82. By far the largest NCB project is the new mining complex at Selby in North Yorkshire (which will be one of the world's most advanced deep mines) where production should build up to the full rate of 10 million tonnes a year by the late 1980s.

Although many good seams of coal have now been worked out due to the early development of the industry, total coal resources in Britain are estimated at 190,000 million tonnes, of which about 45,000 million tonnes (sufficient for at least 300 years at present rates of consumption) are considered to be recoverable using established technology.

Consumption

In 1981-82 internal consumption of coal was 117 million tonnes of which 73 per cent was by power stations, 10 per cent by coke ovens and 7 per cent by domestic users. With an increasing proportion of coal being used by power stations for electricity generation, NCB sales of coal to them totalled 82 million tonnes in 1981-82. Sales to industry are expected to grow in the long term with increased application of new coal-utilising technologies and in 1981 the Government announced a £50 million grant scheme to encourage industry to switch from oil-fired to coal-fired boilers.

Exports of coal in 1981-82 are estimated at 9.1 million tonnes, most of which went to Western European countries, while imports amounted to an estimated 4.5 million tonnes.

Research

In 1981–82 the NCB spent £41 million on research. It has two main research establishments: the Coal Research Establishment (CRE) at Stoke Orchard (Gloucestershire), concerned with the combustion and utilisation of coal; and the Mining Research and Development Establishment at Stanhope Bretby (Staffordshire), for work on mining methods and equipment, particularly improving the performance and reliability of existing equipment and developing systems for remote and automatic control. A new study has begun of the use of radar to measure stock levels in underground coal bunkers. Two CRE processes for converting coal to liquid fuels and chemical feedstocks have been developed on a small scale.

Agreements to exchange technical information have been signed by the NCB with several countries. Britain is responsible through an NCB subsidiary for managing a programme of international coal research projects under the auspices of the International Energy Agency. Five collaborative coal research projects, including a £60 million project to develop pressurised fluidised bed combustion (a method of steam-raising for power generation), are based in Britain.

ELECTRICITY

The first public supply of electricity in the world was in 1881, at Godalming (Surrey). In 1948 all municipal and private undertakings in Great Britain were acquired under the Electricity Act 1947 and vested in the British Electricity Authority and 14 regional boards, except in the north of Scotland where they became the responsibility of the North of Scotland Hydro-Electric Board (NSHEB), which had been set up in 1943. Two subsequent Acts (1954 and 1957) effected a measure of decentralisation and established the present structure of public corporations. Electricity from the public supply system is available to all premises in Britain except for very remote rural households. The public supply industry employed about 170,000 people and invested some £1,500 million in 1981–82. The main transmission system (national grid) in England and Wales is the largest fully interconnected power network under unified control in the Western world.

Structure

The Electricity Council is the central co-ordinating body of the supply industry in England and Wales. It has a general responsibility for promoting the development and maintenance of an efficient, co-ordinated and economical system of electricity supply. Electricity is generated and transmitted by the Central Electricity Generating Board (CEGB), which is responsible for the operation and maintenance of power stations and the national grid. Twelve area electricity boards are responsible for distribution and for the retail sale of electricity. In 1981–82 the income of the electricity supply industry in England and Wales was £8,471 million and its operating profit was £475 million.

In Scotland two boards, the NSHEB and the South of Scotland Electricity Board (SSEB), generate, distribute and sell electricity. The boundary separating their areas runs from Dumbarton on the Firth of Clyde to Newburgh on the Firth of Tay (see map, p 258). In 1981–82 the income of the SSEB and the NSHEB was £716 million and £270 million respectively and their net profits were £17.2 million and £13.2 million.

In Northern Ireland generation, transmission and distribution are carried out by the publicly owned Northern Ireland Electricity Service.

Consumption

Sales of electricity in 1981 amounted to 226,195 gigawatt hours (GWh). Industry took 37.4 per cent of the total, domestic users 37.3 per cent and

Electricity



commercial and other users the remainder. About one-fifth of domestic sales is for space heating, one-quarter for water heating and one-tenth for cooking. Electricity is used in industry mainly for motive power, melting, heating and lighting. The electricity industry supplies 23.3 million consumers of whom 20.6 million are in England and Wales, 1.6 million are supplied by the SSEB, 548,000 by the NSHEB and 529,000 by the Northern Ireland Electricity Service.

Generation

Generation by the public supply electricity industry in Britain amounted to 259,731 GWh in 1981. Conventional steam power stations provided 84.8 per cent of the total, nuclear stations 13.1 per cent and gas turbine, hydro-electric and diesel plant 2.1 per cent. Public supply power stations in Britain consumed 110 million tonnes of coal equivalent in 1981 of which coal accounted for 79 per cent and oil 8 per cent. The output capacity of the 199 generating stations of the electricity boards in Britain at the end of 1981 totalled 64,800 megawatts (MW) including 53,623 MW run by the CEBG, 6,316 MW by the SSEB, 2,752 MW by the NSHEB and 2,115 MW by the Northern Ireland Electricity Service. An analysis of electricity generation by and output capacity of the public supply system in Britain is given in Table 18.

Generation of electricity outside the public supply system is relatively small (18,004 GWh in 1981). The major sources outside the fuel industries are the chemical, engineering, paper, and iron and steel industries and the nuclear power plants of the United Kingdom Atomic Energy Authority (UKAEA) and British Nuclear Fuels Ltd (BNFL). In 1981 these nuclear plants supplied 3,373 GWh of electricity to the public supply system.

New large-scale power stations are based on units of 500 MW and 660 MW. Station capacities have increased and there are 111 stations each with a capacity of 2,000 MW including Kingsnorth (Kent), Europe's largest

Table 18: Generation by and Capacity of Public Supply Power Stations

	Electricity generated (GWh)			Per cent 1981	Output capacity ^a (MW)
	1970	1975	1981		
Nuclear plant	21,870	26,518	34,043	13.1	5,767
Other steam plant	199,868	219,692	220,259	84.8	52,817
Gas turbines and oil engines	1,517	699	509	0.2	3,856
Pumped-storage plant	1,125	1,153	1,003	0.4	1,060
Other hydro-electric plant	3,856	3,201	3,917	1.5	1,284
Total	228,236	251,263	259,731	100.0	64,784
Electricity supplied (net) ^b	210,904	233,236	242,106		

Source: *Department of Energy*

^aAt 31 December 1981.

^bElectricity generated less electricity used at power stations (including electricity used for pumping at pumped-storage stations).

mixed-fuel station burning either coal or oil, while Britain's largest power station is at Longannet (Fife), a 2,400 MW station. The larger units have a higher thermal efficiency (the ratio of the net electrical energy output to the heat energy input) than earlier units and their introduction, coupled with the closure of less efficient plant, has resulted in a gradual rise in overall thermal efficiency, leading to substantial savings in fuel consumption. Average thermal efficiency of conventional steam stations in England and Wales rose from 20.91 per cent in 1947-48 to 34.14 per cent in 1981-82 when the CEBG's 20 most efficient stations had an average thermal efficiency of 35.82 per cent.

About 13,000 MW of plant was under construction at the end of March 1982, including a 2,000 MW coal-fired extension to the Drax station (North Yorkshire) and five nuclear power stations (see below). Work is also in progress on the commissioning of a pumped-storage station at Dinorwic (Gwynedd), which will be the largest of its type in Europe when ready for operation in 1983 and will have an average generated output of 1,680 MW. (In pumped-storage schemes electricity generated in off-peak periods is used to pump water to high-level reservoirs from which it descends to drive turbines, rapidly providing a large supply of electricity at peak periods or to meet sudden increases in demand.) A programme to study the potential for combined heat and power (CHP) and district heating in particular locations in Britain is in progress; approval has been given for two CHP power stations, in Birmingham and Hereford.

Nuclear Power

Britain has been developing nuclear power for several decades and in 1956 the world's first large-scale nuclear power station, at Calder Hall (Cumbria), began to supply electricity to the national grid. The Government believes that nuclear power has a vital role in helping to meet Britain's long-term energy requirements. There are 11 nuclear power stations in operation controlled by the electricity authorities, while four other stations also feed electricity to the national grid: the two original Magnox stations (both with a net capacity of about 200 MW) operated by BNFL at Calder Hall and Chapelcross (Dumfries and Galloway); and two experimental or prototype stations run by the UKAEA, at Winfrith (Dorset) and Dounreay in Highland (the site of the Prototype Fast Reactor).

Nuclear Power Programme

Under the first commercial programme, nine Magnox stations with a total gross capacity of about 4,000 MW were commissioned between 1962 and 1971. They range in size from Bradwell (Essex) with a capacity of 247 MW to the most recent, Wylfa (Gwynedd), which has a capacity of 840 MW. The second main programme was based on the Advanced Gas-cooled Reactor (AGR) and the first two commercial AGRs, 1,320 MW stations at Hinkley Point B (Somerset) and Hunterston B (Strathclyde), began operating in 1976. Three AGRs (Dungeness B, Kent, 1,200 MW; Hartlepool, Cleveland, 1,320 MW; and Heysham, Lancashire, 1,320 MW) are nearing completion and the first units were commissioned in 1982. When these stations are fully operational, nuclear power stations are expected to provide nearly 20 per cent of electricity generated in Britain. Construction has also started on two more AGRs, a second 1,320 MW station at Heysham and a 1,320 MW station at Torness (Lothian). The CEBG has also applied for the consent of the Secretary of State for Energy to build a 1,200 MW pressurised water reactor at Sizewell (Suffolk). This application will be subject to a full public inquiry (to begin in January 1983) and to the

necessary consents and safety clearances being obtained. Government policy on fast reactor development is under review. Any decision to proceed with a full-scale commercial demonstration fast reactor would be subject to a full public inquiry.

British Nuclear Fuels Ltd

BNFL provides nuclear fuel services covering the full fuel cycle: that is, uranium conversion, uranium enrichment, fuel element fabrication, transport and reprocessing of spent fuel, and the manufacture of specialised fuel element components. All of BNFL's shares are held by the Government. BNFL is organised into three divisions, covering uranium enrichment, based at Capenhurst (Cheshire); fuel manufacture at Springfields (Lancashire); and reprocessing at Sellafield (Cumbria) where valuable unused uranium and plutonium are recovered from the spent fuel. The company is engaged on a large-scale investment programme costing some £3,500 million (at 1981 prices) over the next ten years. This includes the refurbishing and construction of facilities for storing and reprocessing spent fuel from Magnox power stations, the construction of further centrifuge enrichment plant at Capenhurst, the construction of a new thermal oxide reprocessing plant (THORP) at Sellafield which will deal with spent fuel from Britain's AGRs and will also reprocess spent fuel for a number of overseas customers, and the construction of a plant for vitrifying highly radioactive waste.

Research

The Electricity Council draws up a general programme of research, some of it direct research carried out by the Council and electricity boards and some of it in co-operation with selected industrial research associations and through research contracts placed with universities and other organisations. Much of the work is done in collaboration with the SSEB, the NSHEB and the Northern Ireland Electricity Service which contribute towards its cost (£79 million in 1981-82). Collaboration on research between the supply industry and the plant manufacturers is co-ordinated by the Power Engineering Research Steering Committee. The research establishments run by the CEBG comprise the Central Electricity Research Laboratories at Leatherhead (Surrey), the Berkeley Nuclear Laboratories in Gloucestershire and the Marchwood Engineering Laboratories on Southampton Water. Research on distribution technology and electricity utilisation is undertaken at the Electricity Council Research Centre at Capenhurst (Cheshire) and by the area boards.

Nuclear Research

Research on nuclear energy in support of the British nuclear power programme and for overseas organisations is carried out by the UKAEA. Its work is undertaken at the Atomic Energy Research Establishment at Harwell (Oxfordshire), the Culham Laboratory in Oxfordshire, the Atomic Energy Establishment at Winfrith (Dorset), the Risley (Cheshire) and Dounreay Nuclear Power Development Establishments, and a number of other UKAEA establishments. Work connected with the development of the fast reactor at Dounreay and its fuel cycle (including the on-site reprocessing of spent fuel) represents the largest single programme of the UKAEA.

Co-operation in nuclear energy between Britain and other countries takes place within a framework of intergovernmental agreements and membership of bodies such as the International Atomic Energy Agency,

and through direct links on research between the UKAEA and equivalent organisations overseas. Britain takes part in the co-operative research programmes of the European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom) including one on establishing the feasibility of achieving controlled thermonuclear fusion. A major component of this programme is the Joint European Torus (JET) project being built at Culham and expected to become operational in 1983.

RENEWABLE SOURCES OF ENERGY

Research is in progress on assessing the potential contribution of alternative sources of energy and the ways in which they may be harnessed. These include seawave, wind, tidal and geothermal (from hot dry rocks) energy for electricity generation; solar and geothermal (from deep aquifers) energy for low-grade heat for domestic and industrial uses; and the conversion of biomass (plant tissue or animal waste) to fuels. Development in Britain is at an early stage and they are not expected to make a major contribution to energy supplies in the next few years, although they may have a greater role in the long term as offshore oil and gas production declines. In 1981–82 the Department of Energy is estimated to have spent some £19 million in support of its renewable energy programme.

Wave energy is potentially a large resource for the British Isles, with long coastlines facing the Atlantic Ocean, but ways of tapping it at reasonable cost need to be developed. Work is in progress on a number of types of wave energy device and includes one-tenth scale trials, full-scale component development, test tank experiments and the study of problems common to all the devices. Britain has established the world's most comprehensive research and development programme to tackle the problems of harnessing wave energy.

The Department of Energy and an industrial consortium have established the technical potential for generating electricity from wind power, and are carrying out further economic and environmental studies on it. This involves the construction at Bugar Hill (Orkney) of Britain's first large-scale wind generator, a 3 MW machine which is expected to be in operation by 1983–84. A smaller machine with a capacity of 250 kilowatts has entered service on the same site and will provide useful data for the larger machine.

The Central Electricity Generating Board is building a pilot 200 kW vertical axis wind generator on the site of a power station at Carmarthen Bay, Dyfed. The board is also conducting experiments on wind speed and conditions at three other sites with a view to erecting a larger generator which could be the forerunner of a cluster of ten or 12 machines.

The solar heating programme is intended to identify its potential contribution and to stimulate the development of cost-effective solar heating technologies, particularly on water and space heating in houses (the areas of greatest potential return). Work is also in progress on assessing the potential of biomass as a source of solid, liquid and gaseous fuels. Where appropriate, demonstration facilities are being developed and there is considerable collaboration between the Department of Energy and industry on promising conversion processes.

Research on geothermal energy involves collection of data in the areas considered to have the most suitable conditions and assessment of the markets for the relatively low-grade heat produced. The first borehole suitable for commercial use was drilled in Southampton in 1981; following experimental discovery at a large aquifer below the city in 1979. The Department of Energy is also providing financial support for a project at the



TYNE AND WEAR METRO

The bridge across the River Tyne, specially constructed for the new light rapid transit Metro system which forms part of the integrated bus/train link between Newcastle upon Tyne and Gateshead.

NAVIGATION AIDS

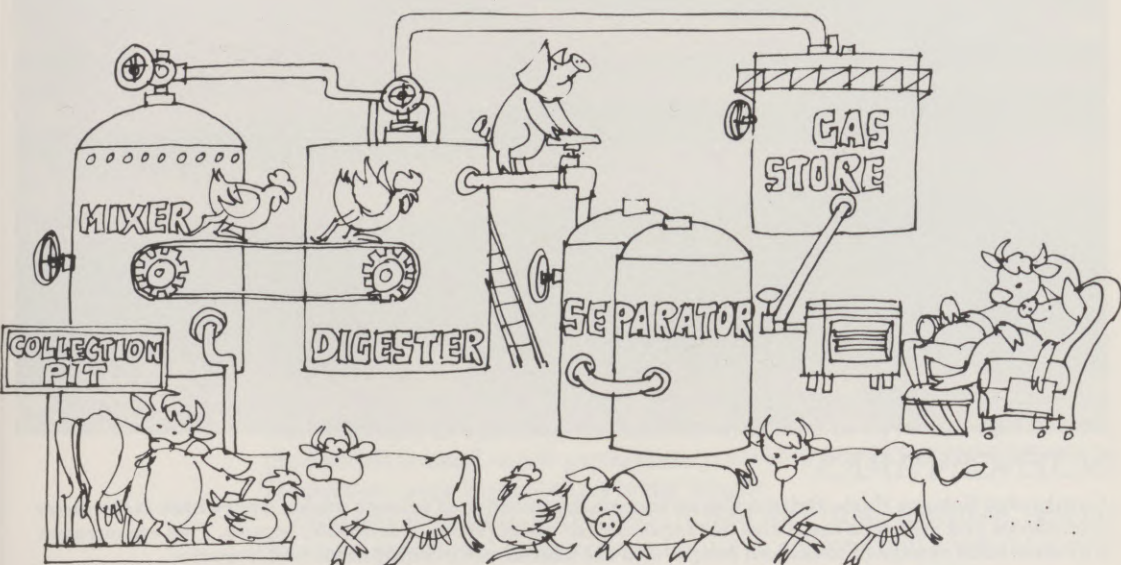
Right: This advanced navigational buoy has a wind-driven generator to power its self-charging light system; a solar-powered option is available for tropical regions.

Below: The control room at Dover coastguard station. Using automatic data processing and advanced radar scanners, it keeps constant watch on shipping in the Straits of Dover, one of the world's busiest shipping lanes.

BIOGAS

Facing page: Biogas, a mixture of methane and carbon dioxide, is an alternative source of energy produced by anaerobic digestion. Pictures show digesters of two types and the laboratory for testing the effectiveness of digestion.







SCIENCE PARKS

Cambridge Science Park. Britain has an increasing number of science parks, where high technology companies and research institutes are located near universities of scientific repute. This encourages a greater interchange of ideas and people and the shared use of equipment and libraries.

Camborne School of Mines (Cornwall) to improve ways of extracting heat from crystalline rocks at great depth.

Studies have been made of a project for harnessing the tides in the Severn Estuary, one of the world's most suitable sites for tidal power, and the Government is considering the report of an independent committee (which found that it would be technically feasible) before deciding whether to proceed with the project.

NON-FUEL MINERALS

Although much of Britain's requirements of industrial raw materials is met by imports, non-fuel minerals produced in Britain make an important contribution to the economy. Output of non-fuel minerals in 1980 totalled 298 million tonnes, valued at £1,377 million. The total number of employees in the industry was 41,000 in 1980. The geographical locations of some of the more important minerals produced in Britain are shown on the maps on p 264.

Exploration

Exploring for and exploiting indigenous mineral resources to meet the needs of industry are being encouraged by the Government to minimise dependence on imports. The Mineral Exploration and Investment Grants Act 1972 provides for financial assistance of up to 35 per cent of the cost of searching for mineral deposits in Great Britain and on the UKCS and evaluating them for commercial purposes. Minerals included in the scheme are the ores of non-ferrous metals, fluorspar, barium minerals and potash. A similar scheme was introduced in Northern Ireland in 1979. The Institute of Geological Sciences is carrying out a programme for the Department of Industry aimed at identifying areas with the potential for economic extraction of minerals. It also has a programme for the Department of the Environment to assess resources of sand and gravel, and limestone.

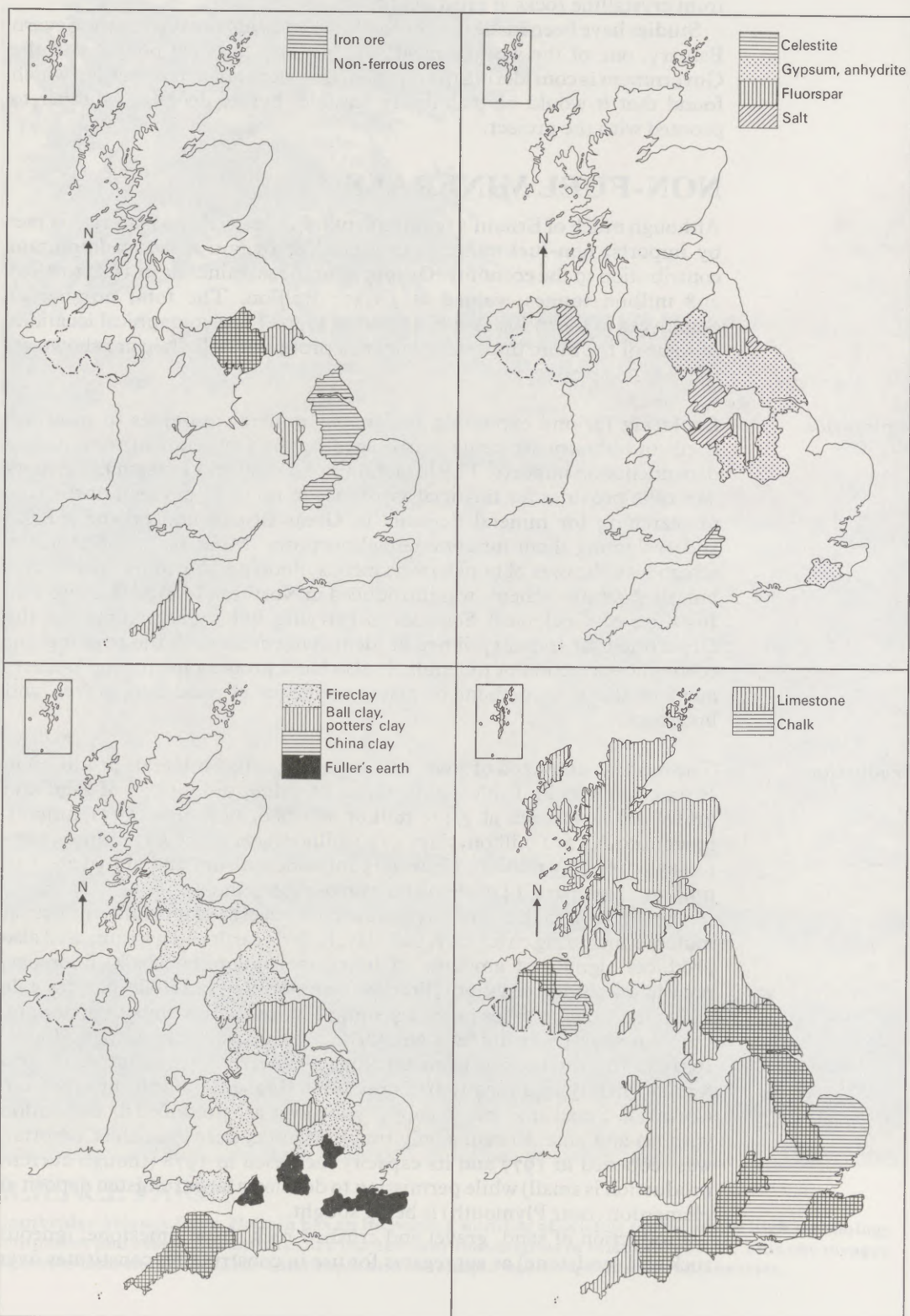
Production

The tonnage extracted of some of the main non-fuel minerals produced in Britain is given in Table 19. In terms of value, production of sand and gravel was estimated at £373 million in 1980, limestone £331 million, igneous rock £202 million, clays £140 million, sandstone £75 million, non-ferrous ores £43 million, chalk £25 million, gypsum and anhydrite £19 million, fluorspar £14 million and iron ore £4 million.

Britain is a major world producer of several important industrial minerals including china clay, ball clay, fuller's earth and gypsum, and also produces significant amounts of limestone, dolomite, chalk, fluorspar, potash, salt, industrial sands, fireclay, common clay and shale, barytes, talc and celestite, mostly for home consumption. Small amounts of diatomite, slate, calcspar, chert and flint, anhydrite and china stone are also produced. In 1980 the production of metal from non-ferrous ores totalled 11,600 tonnes, mainly lead mostly from northern England, and tin mostly from Cornwall. Small amounts of copper and silver are produced in association with tin and zinc. Britain's only tungsten mine, near Penrith (Cumbria), was reopened in 1977 and its capacity increased in 1978 (though current production is small) while permission to develop a large tungsten deposit at Hemerdon (near Plymouth) is being sought.

Production of sand, gravel and crushed rock (from limestone, igneous rock and sandstone) as aggregates for use in construction constitutes over

Some Minerals Produced in Britain



The maps above are based on county or regional boundaries and not those for geological outcrops.

Table 19: Production of Some of the Main Non-fuel Minerals
million tonnes

	1970	1975	1980
Common sand and gravel	116.4	125.0	104.5
Special sands	5.8	6.1	5.7
Igneous rock	36.1	42.0	34.7
Limestone and dolomite	89.9	95.2	88.8
Chalk	16.0	17.9	14.0
Sandstone	13.5	13.4	12.6
Gypsum	2.8	3.3	3.4
Salt including salt in brine	9.0	7.6	7.2
Common clay and shale	32.1	27.8	19.8 ^a
China clay, ball clay and potters' clay	4.0	3.2	4.0
Fireclay	2.0	1.6	1.2
Iron ore	12.0	4.5	0.9
Potash	—	0.03	0.5
Fluorspar	0.2	0.2	0.2

Source: *United Kingdom Mineral Statistics 1981*^aGreat Britain only.

half, by value, of Britain's output of non-fuel minerals. Britain is the world's second largest producer of marine-dredged sand and gravel (17 million tonnes in 1980).

WATER

Britain's water resources are normally sufficient for domestic and industrial requirements. Supplies are obtained partly from surface sources such as mountain lakes, streams impounded in upland gathering grounds and river intakes (one-third comes from rivers), and partly from underground sources by means of wells, adits and boreholes. Water consumption in Britain amounted to about 19,000 megalitres a day in 1980 and average daily consumption per head was about 340 litres. About 99 per cent of the population in Great Britain and 90 per cent in Northern Ireland are connected to the public water supply system.

In general, householders pay for their domestic water supply, sewerage and sewage disposal services through charges based on the rateable value of their property, whereas industrial users are charged for their water supply according to actual metered consumption. Optional metering for domestic users was introduced by a number of water authorities in 1981 and since April 1982 it has been available throughout England and Wales.

England and Wales

In England and Wales the Secretaries of State for the Environment and for Wales are jointly responsible for policy in relation to the conservation, augmentation, distribution and proper use of water resources and provision of water supplies; the provision of sewerage and sewage disposal services; the restoration and maintenance of the wholesomeness of rivers and other inland waters; and the use of inland waters for navigation and recreation. The Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Secretary of State

for Wales are responsible for policy relating to land drainage, and the protection and development of fisheries.

Following reorganisation of the regional water authorities involving a reduction in their membership (see below) and the establishment of a more direct relationship between them and the Government, the National Water Authority (an advisory body for ministers and water authorities) is to be dissolved.

Water Authorities

Nine regional water authorities in England and the Welsh Water Authority in Wales are responsible for the management of water services; the development of water resources; water distribution and supply; the prevention of pollution (see p 178); sewerage and sewage treatment; river management; land drainage; sea defences; recreation; and freshwater fisheries. Each water authority in England has a membership consisting of a chairman and several members appointed by the Secretary of State for the Environment, a few members appointed by the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and a majority of members appointed by the county and district councils within the area of the authority. A reorganisation of the Welsh Water Authority involving a reduction in its membership became effective in 1982 and similarly revised arrangements for the membership of the water authorities in England and Wales are to be introduced. District councils usually act as agents of water authorities for the design, construction, operation and maintenance of public sewers in their areas.

Statutory Water Companies

There are 29 statutory water supply companies, accounting for about one-quarter of total supplies, operating under the Water Act 1973. Special arrangements govern the relationship of statutory water companies to the water authorities.

Supplies

Some 32,100 megalitres a day were abstracted in England and Wales in 1980, of which public water supplies accounted for 16,200 megalitres a day. The Central Electricity Generating Board took 10,500 megalitres a day primarily for cooling in connection with electricity generation, other industry 4,800 megalitres a day and the remainder was used in agriculture. Water authorities' estimated revenue for 1982-83 is some £2,080 million.

Water authorities have powers to restrict consumption when there are severe water shortages. Under the Drought Act 1976, passed in the driest period of weather since records began in 1727, they can limit or prohibit the use of water and, if necessary, restrict domestic water supplies.

Scotland

In Scotland responsibility for public water supply, sewerage and sewage disposal rests with the nine regional and three islands councils. Additionally the Central Scotland Water Development Board, established under the Water (Scotland) Act 1967, is primarily responsible for developing large water sources and supplying water in bulk to its five constituent member authorities, the regional councils in Central Scotland.

Scotland has a relative abundance of unpolluted water from upland sources. About 826 million cubic metres of water were abstracted in Scotland in 1980 for public water supplies. The Secretary of State for Scotland is responsible for the promotion of the conservation of water resources and the provision by water authorities of adequate water supplies, and also has a duty to promote the cleanliness of rivers and other inland waters and the tidal waters of Scotland.

**Northern
Ireland**

The Water Service of the Department of the Environment for Northern Ireland is responsible for water supply and sewerage in Northern Ireland. The Department is also responsible for the conservation, cleanliness and planned development of Northern Ireland's water resources. Northern Ireland has abundant potential supplies of water for both domestic and industrial use. An average of 666 megalitres of water a day was supplied in 1981.

**Development
Projects**

Investment is taking place in projects intended to ensure that there is an adequate water supply to meet the expected rise in demand. Recent projects have included the Kielder Reservoir in Northumberland, officially opened in 1982, one of the largest man-made reservoirs in Europe. In 1981-82 capital expenditure on water supply, sewerage and sewage disposal amounted to some £700 million in England and Wales, £93 million in Scotland and £25 million in Northern Ireland.

Research

The central research organisation for the water industry in Britain is the Water Research Centre. Its membership includes water undertakings, consulting engineers, manufacturers and overseas organisations. It has three laboratories: at Stevenage (Hertfordshire), which deals with water treatment; Medmenham (Buckinghamshire), which is concerned with environmental protection (including water quality and pollution); and at Swindon (Wiltshire), which is concerned with instrumentation, water mains and sewers. Other organisations conducting research include the Hydraulics Research Station Limited, the Meteorological Office and the Natural Environment Research Council, which has a number of laboratories including the Institute of Hydrology and the Institute of Geological Sciences.

AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES AND FORESTRY

AGRICULTURE

British agriculture is noted for its high level of efficiency and productivity. Employing less than 3 per cent of the working population, the industry produces nearly two-thirds of Britain's food requirements compared with just under a half in 1960, and about three-quarters of that which can be grown in a temperate climate compared with nearly two-thirds in 1960. As befits its long tradition of innovation and efficient farming, Britain has an important programme of modern research which has increased crop and other yields. It is also a major exporter of agricultural produce and machinery, fertilisers and food products.

Land Use

Nearly four-fifths of the land area is used for agriculture, the rest being mountain, forest or put to urban and other uses. Although the area for farming is declining by about 20,000 hectares (50,000 acres) a year to meet the needs of housing, industry and transport, the land in urban use is less than a tenth of the agricultural land. There are 12 million hectares (30 million acres) under crops and grass. In hill country, where the area of cultivated land is often small, large areas are also used for rough grazing. Soils vary from the thin poor ones of highland Britain to the rich fertile soils of low-lying areas like the fenlands of eastern England. The cool temperate climate and the even distribution of rainfall ensure a long growing season; streams rarely dry up and grassland is green throughout the year.

Farming

The average area of a full-time holding (including rough grazing) is some 119 hectares (294 acres). About half of the 242,000 farming units are able to provide full-time employment for at least one person and account for 90 per cent of total output. Some 30,000 large farms capable of providing full-time employment for at least four people account for about half of total output. In Wales and Northern Ireland the output from small-scale holdings is more significant than in the rest of Britain.

In England, Scotland and Wales, some two-thirds of holdings are wholly or mainly owner-occupied. Nearly all farms in Northern Ireland are owner-occupied.

The agricultural labour force (637,000 in 1981) has continued to decline and mechanisation has increased, labour productivity rising by over 150 per cent between 1961 and 1981. Investment has increased the level of capital per person employed which is now almost the same as in manufacturing industry compared with only 60 per cent in 1960. Total farming income in 1980 was £1,059 million.

There are over half a million tractors and some 58,000 combine harvesters in use. A wide variety of other machines for harvesting and preservation of grass are also employed. Horticultural crops such as black-

currants and brussels sprouts are frequently harvested by machine and milking machines are used on the vast majority of dairy farms. Over 90 per cent of farms have a direct electricity supply, the remainder having their own generators.

PRODUCTION

Home production of the principal foods is shown as a percentage by weight of total supplies (that is, output plus imports minus exports) in Table 20.

Table 20: British Production as a Percentage of Total Supplies

Food product	1970-72 average	1980 ^a
Meat	74	84
Eggs	99	100
Milk for human consumption (as liquid)	100	100
Cheese	51	70
Butter	17	57
Sugar (as refined)	35	47
Wheat	50	88
Potatoes for human consumption	93	92

Source: Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food

^aSee footnote p 343.

Crop production and yields per hectare have risen; between 1961 and 1981 the output of wheat and barley a hectare increased by some 63 per cent and 34 per cent respectively, due largely to the introduction of new varieties and the greater use of fertilisers and pesticides. The yield of potatoes a hectare rose by 45 per cent.

There has been a substantial growth in the number of beef cattle and pigs and a less marked increase in sheep and poultry.

Livestock

Three-fifths of full-time farms are devoted mainly to dairying or beef cattle and sheep. The majority of sheep and cattle are reared in the hill and moorland areas of Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and northern and south-western England. Beef fattening occurs partly in better grassland areas, as does dairying, and partly in yards on arable farms. British livestock breeders have created many of the cattle, sheep and pig breeds with world-wide reputations, for example, the Hereford and Aberdeen Angus beef breeds, the Jersey, Guernsey and Ayrshire dairy breeds, Large White pigs and a number of sheep breeds. Because of developments in artificial insemination and embryo transfers, Britain is able to export semen and embryos from high quality donor animals.

Table 21 shows the number of livestock and output of livestock products.

Cattle and Sheep

Most dairy cattle in England and Wales and a significant proportion in Scotland and Northern Ireland are bred by artificial insemination. The average size of dairy herds in Britain increased from about 20 in 1961 to 53 in 1981 while average yields of milk per dairy cow increased from 3,491 litres (768 gallons) to 4,710 litres (1,036 gallons), a rise of 35 per cent. Average consumption of liquid milk per head in 1981 by domestic households was about 119 litres (26 gallons).

Table 21: Livestock and Livestock Products

	Average 1970-72	1979	1980	1981
Cattle and calves ('000 head)	12,992	13,589	13,426	13,137
Sheep and lambs ('000 head)	26,384	29,946	31,446	32,091
Pigs ('000 head)	8,492	7,864	7,815	7,828
Poultry ('000 head)	141,399	135,345	135,105	132,286
Milk (million litres)	12,786	15,280	15,345	15,222
Eggs (million dozen)	1,253	1,181	1,100	1,090
Beef and veal ('000 tonnes)	968	1,082	1,096	1,031
Mutton and lamb ('000 tonnes)	229	239	287	274
Pork ('000 tonnes)	646	696	693	700
Bacon and ham ('000 tonnes)	271	212	210	204
Poultry meat ('000 tonnes)	613	751	754	745

About two-thirds of home-fed beef production derives from the national dairy herd, in which the Friesian breed is predominant. While pure-bred Friesians make a substantial contribution to Britain's beef supplies, many other dairy cows are crossed with beef bulls for beef production.

Britain has a long tradition of sheep production with more than 40 breeds and many crosses between them. Research has provided vaccine and serum protection against nearly all the epidemic diseases. Although lamb production is the main source of income for sheep farmers, wool is also important.

Grass supplies 60 to 80 per cent of the feed for cattle and sheep; grass production has been enhanced by the increased use of fertilisers, irrigation and methods of grazing control, and improved herbage conservation for winter feed. Rough grazings are used for extensively grazed sheep and cattle, producing young animals for fattening elsewhere.

Pigs and Poultry

Pig production is carried on in most areas but is particularly important in eastern and southern England, north-east Scotland and Northern Ireland. There is an increasing concentration into specialist units and larger herds. Artificial insemination is available in England, Wales and Scotland.

The poultry meat and egg industries have continued to benefit from better husbandry and genetic improvements. Since 1971 poultry meat production has increased by a quarter and reached an estimated 745,000 tonnes in 1981. There is a continued trend towards larger units with just over a half of broilers in flocks of 100,000 birds or more. In 1981, egg production was an estimated 1,090 million dozen. About 60 per cent of laying birds are in flocks of 20,000 or more. Britain remains broadly self-sufficient in poultry meat and eggs.

Crops

The farms devoted primarily to arable crops are found mainly in eastern and central southern England and eastern Scotland. Large-scale potato and vegetable production is undertaken in the fens (in south Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire), the alluvial areas around the rivers Thames and Humber and the peaty lands in south Lancashire. Early potatoes are an important crop in south-west Wales, Kent and south-west England. High-grade seed potatoes are grown in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

Table 22 gives figures on the area, harvest and yield of the main crops.

Table 22: Main Crops

	Average 1970-72	1979	1980	1981 (forecast)
Wheat: area ('000 hectares)	1,079	1,372	1,441	1,491
harvest ('000 tonnes)	4,610	7,168	8,472	8,710
yield (tonnes per hectare)	4.28	5.23	5.88	5.84
Barley: area ('000 hectares)	2,277	2,347	2,330	2,327
harvest ('000 tonnes)	8,444	9,623	10,326	10,230
yield (tonnes per hectare)	3.71	4.10	4.43	4.39
Oats: area ('000 hectares)	351	136	148	144
harvest ('000 tonnes)	1,276	542	601	620
yield (tonnes per hectare)	3.64	3.99	4.07	4.30
Potatoes: area ('000 hectares)	255	204	205	191
harvest ('000 tonnes)	7,135	6,485	7,109	6,215
yield (tonnes per hectare)	28.02	31.87	34.48	32.4
Oilseed rape: area ('000 hectares)	5	74	92	125
harvest ('000 tonnes)	11	198	300	325
yield (tonnes per hectare)	2.0	2.70	3.30	2.60
Sugar beet: area ('000 hectares)	190	214	213	210
production ('000 tonnes refined basis)	959	1,154	1,106	1,080

Cereals

About a third of the wheat crop is normally used for flour milling, and two-fifths for animal feed. Between 15 and 25 per cent of the barley crop is used for malting and distilling and 50 per cent for animal feed. Exports of wheat and barley are increasing substantially and account for about a fifth of total production. There has been a rapid increase in the oilseed rape crop; the seed is crushed to obtain vegetable oil and the solid matter left is used for animal feed.

The universal use of combine harvesters has necessitated the installation of drying and storage facilities, many of which are used on a co-operative basis.

Fodder Crops

The area of traditional fodder crops (field beans, maize and kale) has declined since 1960, farmers having provided winter feed more economically by increased grass production and improved methods of conservation.

Sugar

Sugar from home-grown sugar beet provides about 50 per cent of requirements, most of the remainder being refined from raw sugar imported from developing countries under the Lomé Convention (see p 75).

Horticulture

In 1981 the land utilised for horticulture was 282,000 hectares (696,800 acres). Fruit (including dessert apples, pears, cherries, plums, strawberries, blackcurrants, raspberries and gooseberries) accounted for 62,000 hectares (153,200 acres), vegetables grown in the open, excluding potatoes, for 206,000 hectares (509,000 acres), flowers, bulbs and nursery stock for

10,000 hectares (24,700 acres) and protected crops (those grown under glass or plastic) for 4,000 hectares (9,900 acres).

Field vegetables account for some 45 per cent of the value of horticultural output and are widely grown throughout the country. Most horticultural enterprises are increasing output per unit area with the help of improved planting material, new techniques and the widespread use of machinery.

Most glasshouses (used for growing tomatoes, cucumbers and lettuce) have been re-equipped since the mid-1960s. Widespread use is made of automatic control of heating and ventilation, and semi-automatic control of watering. Experiments are being made to promote energy efficient glass-houses through the use of thermal screens and other methods. Low-cost plastic tunnels extend the season for certain crops previously grown only out of doors.

Under the European Community's Common Agricultural Policy (see p 273), a wide range of horticultural produce is subject to common quality standards.

EXPORTS

The Government is seeking to encourage the growth of exports related to agriculture, which amounted to £3,890 million in 1980. The British Agricultural Export Council, which represents the agricultural and horticultural supply industries, provides British pavilions at the world's major agricultural exhibitions, identifies suppliers for customers, and organises programmes of visits and meetings for overseas customers. Products and services offered by the Council's members include all types of machinery, seeds, fertilisers, chemicals, feedingstuffs, livestock and semen, veterinary preparations and equipment, and consultancy. There is also a British Food Export Council which provides a similar service for the fresh and processed food industries with particular emphasis on opportunities in Western European markets.

One of the world's largest agricultural events, the annual Royal International Agricultural Show held at Stoneleigh in Warwickshire, provides an opportunity for overseas visitors to see what British agriculture has to offer. Virtually every British agricultural machinery manufacturer is represented at the show which is also the most important pedigree livestock event in the country. The show's specialised sections cover livestock improvement, farm mechanisation including working demonstrations of agricultural equipment, electronics, arable cropping, horticulture, forestry, research and farming in tropical areas; there is also a food hall. A second major display of agricultural interest is the Royal Smithfield Show, held each December in London, which exhibits agricultural machinery, livestock and carcasses.

MARKETING AND CO-OPERATION

Agricultural products are marketed by private traders, producers' co-operatives and marketing boards, the latter being producers' organisations (each including a minority of independent members appointed by agriculture ministers) with certain statutory powers to regulate the marketing of milk, wool and potatoes. Most boards buy from producers or control contracts between first buyers; the Potato Marketing Board, however, maintains only a broad control over marketing conditions leaving producers free to deal individually with buyers. For home-grown cereals, meat and livestock, apples and pears, and eggs, there are marketing organisations representing producer, distributor and independent interests.

Further attention is being given to the marketing of British agricultural produce in order to ensure that it reaches customers in the best possible

condition. A special panel has been appointed to advise the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food on marketing and there is a stronger emphasis on the role of co-operatives. Recent initiatives include efforts by growers to improve the marketing of onions, carrots, dessert apples and lamb.

Agricultural co-operatives may be concerned with production, storage, marketing, services, and the supply of farmers' requirements. There are, in addition, machinery syndicates. The Government provides grants for co-operative production and marketing of agricultural and horticultural produce on the recommendation of the Central Council for Agricultural and Horticultural Co-operation, a statutory body. Plans have been announced to transform the Council into a new marketing organisation called Food from Britain. The co-operative development function would continue within the new body which would have wide powers to co-ordinate and promote marketing initiatives throughout Britain and in other countries.

ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT

Four government departments are responsible for agricultural policy—the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, the Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland, the Welsh Office Agriculture Department and the Northern Ireland Department of Agriculture.

Common Agricultural Policy

Market arrangements under the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) of the European Community are administered by the Intervention Board for Agricultural Produce, which is responsible to the agriculture ministers.

Under the CAP, producers' returns for most of the main commodities are supported by a combination of intervention buying when necessary and charges on imports into the Community. In addition, export refunds enable Community exporters to sell on world markets when world prices are below Community price levels. There is also provision for certain direct payments to producers, including beef and sheepmeat premiums. The support price levels, as well as rates of levy and subsidy, are set in European Currency Units (see p 76) and are converted into the currencies of the member states at fixed rates of exchange (commonly called 'green rates') which do not vary automatically in line with changes in real exchange rates. The green rates can thus be out of line with the market rate of exchange between each currency and the European Currency Unit, giving rise to different real support price levels in the different member states. Monetary compensatory amounts, based on the percentage difference between the green and market rates of each currency, are applied to prevent distortions in trade. They operate as import subsidies and export levies for countries whose currencies' market rates are below the green rates, and as import levies and export subsidies in the opposite case.

Britain is seeking significant improvements in the operation of the Common Agricultural Policy. In particular, it would like to see better control of the growth of surpluses achieved through action on price or additional measures appropriate to each sector.

The Community's agricultural expenditure is channelled through the European Agricultural Guidance and Guarantee Fund. The Fund's guarantee section finances market support arrangements, while the guidance section provides funds for structural reform (for example, contributions to capital and production grants—see p 274). The CAP absorbs over 67 per cent of the Community's budget; nearly half of this expenditure is attributable to the cost of export refunds.

Price Guarantees, Grants and Subsidies

Expenditure in Britain in 1981-82 on price guarantees, grants and subsidies and on Common Agricultural Policy market regulation was an estimated £374 million and £665 million respectively. About £770 million was reimbursed from the Community budget.

Potatoes and wool are not covered by the Common Agricultural Policy; British price guarantees for potatoes are operated through the Potato Marketing Board and the Department of Agriculture for Northern Ireland and a price stabilisation fund for wool is administered by the British Wool Marketing Board.

Producers also receive support through certain capital and production grants, some based on Community decisions. Grants are available to assist farmers and horticulturists with their development plans and capital investment, and there is special financial help for hill farmers in the form of headage payments on cattle and sheep (known as compensatory allowances). Community assistance may also be made to help improve facilities for the marketing and processing of agricultural products and to provide a premium payment to specialised beef producers.

Smallholdings and Crofts

Local authorities provide nearly 7,400 smallholdings in England and nearly 1,000 in Wales. In England the Government has some 530 lettable holdings. Both may make loans of up to 75 per cent of required working capital to their tenants. Land settlement in Scotland has always been carried out by the Government, which owns and maintains about 148,000 hectares (366,000 acres) of land settlement estates, comprising some 2,500 crofts and holdings.

Within the crofting areas of Scotland (in Strathclyde, Highland, Western Isles, Orkney Islands and Shetland Islands) much of the land is held by crofters, tenants whose holdings are generally either rented at a cost of not more than £100 a year or have an area not exceeding 30 hectares (75 acres). Crofting is administered by the Crofters Commission, and benefits from government grants for land improvements and some other agricultural work.

Tenancy Legislation

A code of landlord-tenant relationships protects the interests and rights of landlords and tenants. Rent is a matter for negotiation between landlord and tenant and may be varied by agreement or, failing agreement, by arbitration. Most agricultural tenants have the right to contest a notice to quit, which then lapses unless the landlord obtains consent to its operation from an independent body (in England and Wales the Agricultural Land Tribunal and in Scotland the Scottish Land Court). On termination of tenancy, the tenant is entitled to compensation in accordance with a special code. There are provisions for succession of a close relative on the death of a tenant.

Practically all farms in Northern Ireland are owner-occupied, but, under a system known as 'conacre', farmers not wishing to farm all their land let it annually to others. About one-fifth of agricultural land is so let, and is used for grazing and potato growing.

Safety at Work

The Agricultural Inspectorate of the Health and Safety Executive is responsible for enforcing regulations relating to the health and safety of workers in agriculture. These cover such matters as the guarding of field and stationary machinery, workplaces, the fitting of safety cabs to tractors, and the use of chemicals.

Advisory Services

Free and impartial professional, scientific and technical advice is given to farmers, growers and landowners in England and Wales by the Government's Agricultural Development and Advisory Service, in Scotland by three agricultural colleges and in Northern Ireland by the advisory service, agricultural colleges, research centres and the specialist divisions of the Department of Agriculture. The purpose of the advisory services is to exploit and develop new technology, to identify problems requiring investigation and research, and to contribute to possible solutions.

Animal Welfare

It is an offence to cause unnecessary pain or distress to livestock on commercial farms. Regulations control such operations as castration and tail docking, and require owners of intensive units to arrange for the daily inspection of their stock and the equipment on which it depends. Compliance is monitored by veterinary officers of the Agricultural Development and Advisory Service. Other regulations protect the welfare of farm animals in transit and at markets.

The Farm Animal Welfare Council, an independent body set up by the Government, keeps under review the welfare of farm animals on agricultural land, at markets, in transit and at the place of slaughter.

CONTROL OF DISEASES AND PESTS**Animals**

England, Scotland and Wales are free from many serious animal diseases. Foot-and-mouth disease and swine vesicular disease are combated by a slaughter policy applied to all infected animals and those exposed to infection, and by control over animal movements during outbreaks. Rigorous measures are taken to eradicate sheep scab. The incidence of bovine tuberculosis is very low; cattle (except for certain categories) are tested at regular intervals, and reactors to the test are slaughtered, compensation being paid to the owners. Because of compulsory measures to eradicate brucellosis, begun on an area basis in 1972, England and Wales were declared free of the disease for all practical purposes in 1981, following a similar declaration for Scotland in 1980. Newcastle disease has been eradicated by means of vaccination, mainly with live vaccines; their use is now prohibited and a slaughter policy will operate in the event of future outbreaks.

Strict controls are exercised on the import of animals, meat and meat products, live poultry and other captive birds, and poultry meat, so as to prevent the introduction of animal or poultry diseases. Special measures apply to non-farm animals, which are subject to import licence and six months' quarantine as a precaution against the introduction of rabies, and there are severe penalties for anyone breaking the law. There has been no case of rabies in Britain since 1970.

Northern Ireland has been kept free from the major animal diseases, including rabies, foot-and-mouth disease, and swine vesicular disease, and in 1971 was declared brucellosis-free.

Professional advice and action on the control of animal disease and the welfare of farm livestock is the responsibility of the State Veterinary Service which in England and Wales is part of the Agricultural Development and Advisory Service and has extensive laboratory facilities and investigation centres performing specialist work and advising private practitioners. In Scotland the Service has laboratory facilities and three agricultural colleges also provide services and advice. In Northern Ireland the Department of Agriculture has its own veterinary service, supplemented by a central veterinary laboratory.

Plants

The agricultural departments are responsible for limiting the spread of plant pests and diseases and for preventing the introduction of new ones. They also issue the health certificates required by other countries to accompany plant material imported from Britain. Certification schemes are operated to encourage the development of healthy, vigorous and true-to-type planting stocks.

Pesticides

Control of pesticides is exercised primarily through the Pesticides Safety Precautions Scheme. Under this the Government, advised by the independent and expert Advisory Committee on Pesticides, gives safety clearance for marketing only if it is satisfied that, as long as recommended precautions are followed, the product can be used without risk to people, livestock and domestic animals and with minimal risk to wildlife.

**Veterinary
Medicinal
Products**

The manufacture, sale and supply of veterinary medicinal products is prohibited except under licence. Licences are issued by the agriculture ministers, who are advised on safety, quality and efficacy by the Veterinary Products Committee comprising independent experts.

**EDUCATION
AND
TRAINING**

University and other degree and postgraduate courses provide training in the scientific and technological aspects of agriculture and horticulture, the emphasis being on science and economics. There are also degree and postgraduate courses in veterinary medicine. Science-based sandwich courses, leading to a Higher National Diploma and available at agricultural colleges, are designed for students wishing to enter farming or horticulture with a good knowledge of the managerial and technological aspects of the industry. The three-year Ordinary National Diploma, also organised on a sandwich basis, is a general course in agriculture with some colleges offering special subjects such as arable farming, livestock production, dairy farming and farm mechanisation. Both diploma courses normally require 12 months' previous practical experience. In addition, there are one-year full-time National Certificate courses providing a basic education in agriculture or horticulture, and a one- or two-year part-time practical course in the basic principles of agriculture, horticulture or forestry followed by more specialised study. In Scotland new and restructured courses have replaced the Higher and Ordinary National Diplomas.

In Great Britain the Agricultural Training Board runs an apprenticeship and craft training scheme for young people entering agriculture and horticulture, which includes release to attend part-time courses. Shorter courses in craft skills training are available for others working in agriculture and horticulture. In Northern Ireland agricultural training courses are the responsibility of the Department of Agriculture.

**AGRICULTURAL
RESEARCH**

Hundreds of research projects are being carried out by the agricultural research service, many being of international importance.

The Agricultural Research Council, the Government and private industry are responsible for the research effort. An autonomous body, the Council conducts its own research and supports projects in universities and elsewhere. It has eight institutes dealing with research in animal breeding, food, weeds, animal physiology, animal diseases, meat and poultry, and has four units associated with universities. In addition, the Council is responsible for 14 independent state-aided research institutes concerned with such topics as plant breeding, glasshouse crops, grassland, animal viruses, fruit and vegetable growing, dairying, poultry, soils and agricultural engineering. In Scotland the Department of Agriculture and Fisheries is

responsible for seven grant-aided institutions; four of these are concerned primarily with animal-related research, one with plant breeding and crop research, one with soil research, and the other with agricultural engineering. Research in Northern Ireland is carried out by the Department of Agriculture in association with the Queen's University of Belfast. Three teaching agricultural colleges also cover applied research in agricultural science and food technology.

Among recent research achievements of international importance are the high yielding wheats developed at the Plant Breeding Institute and in wide use in Europe, and the foot-and-mouth disease vaccines developed by the Animal Virus Research Institute and used throughout the world. The National Vegetable Research Station, in association with Oxfam, has opened a gene bank designed to preserve seed varieties which will allow plants with better growth and disease resistant characteristics to be kept to meet agricultural needs in different areas of the world. The National Institute of Agricultural Engineering has developed machinery more suitable for use in countries with labour intensive agriculture.

The Ministry of Agriculture's Chief Scientist (fisheries and food) and the Food Science Division provide advice on the scientific and technical aspects of food, particular attention being paid to safety, quality and nutritional value.

Applied and basic research is carried out by the Agricultural Development and Advisory Service. At its Central Veterinary Laboratory investigations are undertaken into most diseases affecting farm livestock and into the making and supply of certain biological products. A central laboratory is concerned with plant health, the detection of pesticide residues in treated crops and crop products, and the formulation of pesticides. Other central laboratories do research work on insects, mites and fungi affecting food storage and on harmful mammals and birds; they are also concerned with the safe use of pesticides.

FISHERIES

Britain is one of Europe's most important fishing nations. The fishing industry provides about 70 per cent of British fish supplies, and is an important source of employment and income in a number of ports. In 1981 there were 16,609 fishermen in regular employment and about 7,320 occasionally employed. It is estimated that for every fisherman there are between three and five jobs in associated trades. The maintenance of fishing opportunities through conservation of stocks and the preservation of British fishermen's access to traditional grounds are prime government concerns.

Fish Caught

Demersal fish caught on or near the bottom of the sea account for about 55 per cent by weight of the total British catch, pelagic fish caught near the surface for 35 per cent and shellfish for 10 per cent. In 1981 landings of all types of fish (excluding salmon and trout) by British fishing vessels totalled 745,400 tonnes. Cod accounted for 32 per cent of the total value of demersal and pelagic fish landed while haddock (20 per cent), mackerel (10 per cent) and plaice (7 per cent) were the other most important sources of earnings to the industry. Home production of fish meal in 1981 was about 59,700 tonnes and fish oil production about 12,000 tonnes.

The British fish farming industry is a substantial and expanding business

mainly concerned with the production of salmon and trout although shellfish and eel farming are growing. Estimated production in 1981 was 6,500 tonnes of trout and 1,000 tonnes of salmon.

Imports of fresh, frozen, cured and canned fish and shellfish in 1981 totalled 344,600 tonnes, those of fish meal 74,600 tonnes and those of fish oils 218,900 tonnes. Exports and re-exports of fish and fish products amounted to 329,600 tonnes. Following a British initiative, member states of the European Community banned from January 1982 the import of primary whale products in order to help to conserve whale populations.

The Fishing Fleet

Some 73 per cent of the British catch is taken by the 7,100 vessels of the inshore fleet employing a variety of catching methods. The deep-sea fleet, comprising 245 larger vessels, has been reduced in number as fishing opportunities and the profitability of operations in distant waters have declined. Recently the mackerel and herring stock off the west coast have provided alternative fisheries for the larger vessels. The European Community provides funds for the construction and modernisation of fishing vessels.

Administration

The agriculture departments are responsible for the administration of legislation concerning the fishing industry and for fisheries research. The safety and welfare of crews of fishing vessels and other matters common to shipping generally are provided for under legislation administered by the Department of Trade.

The Sea Fish Industry Authority provides financial aid for the purchase of new fishing vessels, vessel improvements, the provision and improvement of processing plants, cold stores and ice plants and towards the formation of fishermen's co-operatives. Other functions include research and development, training, dissemination of information, publicity and promotion and the provision of consultancy services, including those to developing countries.

Fishery Limits

Since 1977 Britain's fishery limits, like those of other Community member states outside the Mediterranean, have extended to 200 miles (or, where the distance between two countries' coasts is less than 400 miles, up to the median line or agreed boundary between the two countries).

Community countries, and non-Community countries having temporary agreements with the Community, have the right to fish up to Britain's 12-mile limit. Designated Community countries may also fish in certain areas of Britain's 6- to 12-mile zone. The only non-Community country which may fish in this zone is Norway, which has very restricted rights in some areas off the Scottish coast. No foreign vessels may fish within Britain's 6-mile limit.

Common Fisheries Policy

Fishery relations between the European Community and other countries are governed by long-term framework agreements which have been concluded with eight countries. In 1982 reciprocal agreements were in force with Norway, the Faroe Islands and Spain, and arrangements were agreed with Sweden. Non-reciprocal agreements were in force with Canada, the United States, Senegal and Guinea-Bissau. Quotas were also established in international waters in the north-west Atlantic.

With the extension of fishery limits to 200 miles, new arrangements became necessary to control Community fishing in the greatly extended area. Britain has a particularly strong interest in such control, since a sizeable proportion of the total catch within the 200-mile limits of member

states is taken in British waters, while the loss of fishing opportunities in distant waters (such as Iceland) has reduced the British industry's total catch more than that of other Community states. As a result, Britain is looking for adequate access arrangements and a fair share of the quotas proposed for the fish stocks around its coasts and in other countries' waters.

There is also a need for effective and enforceable conservation measures within the waters of member states. The Government is continuing to work towards a common fisheries policy which meets these needs. Pending the adoption of new Community measures on fish conservation, the Government has introduced a series of national measures corresponding as far as possible to measures contained in a Community conservation regulation which expired in October 1981.

Marketing Policy

The Community's fishing industry is also subject to a common organisation of the market which aims at assisting in the adaptation of supplies to marketing requirements, while ensuring, as far as possible, a reasonable return to producers, by means of the establishment of a grading and price system and rules on competition. Provision is also made for the protection of the Community market against disruption by imports from non-member countries. Market organisation is largely in the hands of the industry itself through producers' organisations. Intra-Community fish trade is tariff-free and there is a common external tariff.

Fisheries Research

The Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food has a research directorate comprising laboratories dealing with marine and freshwater fisheries, shellfish, marine pollution, fish farming, and diseases. Work on the utilisation of fish is undertaken by a research station at Torry, Aberdeen. There are also four seagoing research vessels. In Scotland the Department of Agriculture and Fisheries maintains laboratories on marine and freshwater fisheries research as well as four seagoing vessels. The two research programmes are co-ordinated. Department of Agriculture laboratories in Northern Ireland monitor marine and freshwater fisheries.

Freshwater Fisheries

The most valuable freshwater fish are salmon and sea-trout. Sea fishing for salmon is prohibited in waters outside a limit of six miles from the coasts of the British Isles. Within six miles, drift netting and certain other methods are prohibited off the coast of Scotland but are permitted under licence off England, Wales and Northern Ireland. In Scotland, salmon fishing is a private right. In England and Wales, water authority licences are required for coastal and estuary netting.

FORESTRY

Woodland covers an estimated 2.1 million hectares (5.2 million acres), about 9 per cent of the total land area in Great Britain; about 40 per cent is in England, 49 per cent in Scotland, and 11 per cent in Wales. The Government supports the continued expansion of forestry in order to reduce dependence on imports.

The area of productive forest in Great Britain is 1,769,000 hectares (4,371,000 acres), about half of which is managed by the Forestry Commission (see p 280) and the rest by private owners. The annual rate of expansion is currently 11,600 hectares (28,700 acres) by the Commission, mainly in Scotland, and some 8,700 hectares (21,498 acres) by private woodland owners. The Commission's programme includes considerable

planting in upland areas, and consists mainly of conifers because of the difficult site conditions encountered.

Total employment in state and private forests in Great Britain was estimated at about 18,500 in 1981.

Except during the two world wars, when felling was abnormally heavy, home woodlands have until recent years made only a limited contribution to the nation's consumption of wood and wood products, as less than half of the Commission's woodlands are yet in production. Britain imports over 90 per cent of its needs.

The Forestry Commission and Forestry Policy

The Forestry Commission is the national forestry authority in Great Britain. The Commissioners comply with directions given by the Minister of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Secretaries of State for Scotland and Wales. In pursuing timber production, forestry policy also takes into account amenity, environmental and employment criteria, and the Commission's activities include wildlife conservation, the landscaping of plantations, and the provision of facilities for recreation. The Commission has also encouraged the setting up of some 20 major new timber-using industries.

The Government has given the Commission greater commercial freedom to sell some of its land and plantations thereby reducing its call on public funds. However, the Commission is in control of the disposals programme, the scale and location of which is at its discretion. The Commission is financed partly by the Government and partly by receipts from sales of produce, rentals and other sources. Income from timber is expected to increase as production doubles in the next 20 years, probably leading to a reduction in grant-in-aid.

Private Forestry

A substantial number of private woods are in ownerships of under 100 hectares (250 acres) in extent. Effective management is encouraged by grants administered by the Forestry Commission, in return for which owners accept an obligation to manage their woodlands in accordance with sound forestry practice.

Forestry Education and Research

Degree courses in forestry and associated studies are provided at three universities and there are supervisory, craft and managerial level courses. The Forestry Training Council, set up by the Forestry Commission, assists the development of systematic training and the co-ordination of training in the state and private sectors. The Furniture and Timber Industry Training Board is concerned with training for private-sector employees in the home timber trade.

Forestry research, including that on 'Dutch' elm disease, is carried out by the Commission at two research stations. Aid is also given for research work in universities and other institutions, including the Commonwealth Forestry Institute in Oxford. A laboratory at Princes Risborough in Buckinghamshire conducts research into the quality and uses of home-grown timber.

Forestry in Northern Ireland

The Department of Agriculture may acquire land for afforestation and give financial and technical assistance for private planting. Financial provision is made annually by Parliament.

The state forest area has grown steadily since 1945. By 1982, 59,000 hectares (145,800 acres) of plantable land had been acquired, of which 54,000 hectares (133,400 acres) were planted. There were about 13,000 hectares (32,100 acres) of privately owned forest. Some 700 people work in state forests.

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

The application of technological developments to Britain's transport and communications network is continually increasing the speed and convenience of its operations. Major improvements in the movement of passengers and freight have resulted from the construction of a network of motorways, the extension of fast inter-city rail services (such as those operated by high speed trains), the modernisation of many ports, the increased use of containers and other modern methods in shipping, the use by airlines of larger or speedier aircraft (including the Concorde supersonic aircraft) and expansion schemes at many airports. Communications are benefiting from developments in microelectronics, computer and satellite technology, and advances in materials, for example, the invention of optical fibres used in telecommunications.

While major sectors of transport and communications operations are still publicly owned, the Government is arranging for the introduction of private capital into a number of them as part of its policy of reducing state involvement as much as possible.

INLAND TRANSPORT

Passenger and freight traffic is carried mainly by road. At the end of 1981 there were 19.3 million vehicles licensed for use on the roads of Great Britain, of which 15.3 million were motor cars, 1.7 million road goods vehicles, 1.4 million motorcycles, scooters and mopeds, and 110,000 public road passenger vehicles (including taxis). Private ownership of cars has been growing rapidly for many years and the car is the most popular form of travel. Buses and coaches account for about 10 per cent of passenger mileage within Great Britain, rail for 7 per cent and air 0.5 per cent. Road haulage has a dominant position in the movement of inland freight, accounting for about 82 per cent of tonnage carried and for some three-quarters of tonne-kilometres. Railways and, to a lesser extent, pipelines and inland waterways are important in carrying certain types of freight, particularly bulk goods. The railways and much of the bus industry are publicly owned, but road haulage is in the hands of private enterprise.

Transport policy rests on the fundamental aims of promoting economic growth and higher national prosperity, and ensuring a reasonable level of personal mobility, while improving safety, particularly on the roads, minimising damage to the environment and using energy economically. Britain is taking an active part in the development of a common transport policy by the European Community.

ROADS

Motor vehicle traffic in Great Britain amounted in 1981 to over 277,700 million vehicle-kilometres, of which cars and taxis accounted for 81 per cent. Improvements are continually being made in the network of trunk roads (which form a basic network linking major centres of population, industrial areas and ports) to accommodate the growth in traffic. A number

of motorways (roads specially designed for high speed traffic) have been built, while other improvements, such as the construction of by-passes, have helped to make travelling easier and faster, particularly over long distances and between cities. Congestion on inter-urban roads has been reduced or eliminated and many towns and villages have been relieved of heavy through traffic. Although motorways account for less than 1 per cent of road mileage, they carry 10 per cent of traffic including over one-fifth of heavy goods vehicle traffic. In 1981 the road network totalled over 227,150 miles (365,560 kilometres), of which some 1,830 miles (2,950 kilometres) were motorways. Motorways and other major roads are shown on the map at the end of the book.

Table 23: Road Mileage

	Public roads ^a	Trunk roads ^a (including motorways)	Trunk motorways ^b in use ^c	under construction
England	161,649	6,360	1,472	71
Scotland	31,049	1,971	153	—
Wales	19,803	1,086	74	—
Northern Ireland	14,652	409	70	—
Britain	227,153	9,826	1,769	71

Sources: *Department of Transport, Northern Ireland Department of the Environment, Scottish Development Department and Welsh Office*

^aAs at April 1981.

^bAs at April 1982.

^cIn addition, there were 48 miles (77 kilometres) of local authority motorway in use in England and 21 miles (33 kilometres) in Scotland.

The main aims of the Government's programme to improve trunk roads are to meet the needs of industry and to keep heavy lorry traffic away from towns and villages. In England the main priorities are the M25 London orbital route and certain routes to serve industry and the major ports. In Wales the priorities are to reconstruct the coast road in north Wales and improve roads which are important for industrial redevelopment. Most of the remaining links in the motorway/dual carriageway network in central Scotland have been completed. Accordingly, the programme is being directed mainly to the improvement of other strategic routes, particularly those to the north and north-east which are important for North Sea oil-related activities and some of the west-coast routes, and also to the construction of more by-passes. In Northern Ireland the emphasis is on building new links to the motorway network, constructing more by-passes, and improving roads in the Belfast area and other urban areas. Priority for new roads in urban areas of Great Britain is being given to those designed to meet the needs of industry and commerce, serve new industrial or housing estates, provide links to the national trunk road network or to complement traffic management schemes.

Administration

Responsibility for trunk motorways and other trunk roads in Great Britain rests in England with the Secretary of State for Transport, in Scotland with

the Secretary of State for Scotland and in Wales with the Secretary of State for Wales. The costs of construction, improvement and maintenance are paid for by central Government. The highway authority for non-trunk roads in England and Wales is, in general, the county council in whose area the roads lie, and in Scotland the regional or islands council. In Northern Ireland the Northern Ireland Department of the Environment is responsible for public roads and their maintenance and construction.

Research into all aspects of road construction, traffic engineering and safety, and into problems associated with transport is carried out by the Transport and Road Research Laboratory, jointly responsible to the Department of Transport and the Department of the Environment.

Road Safety

Great Britain's accident record is considerably better than that of most other countries even though it has one of the highest densities of road traffic in the world. In 1981, 5,800 people were killed on the roads, about 78,300 seriously injured and 240,700 slightly injured. A comprehensive framework of legislation embodied in recent Road Traffic and Transport Acts and summarised in the *Highway Code* (which sets out the standard of conduct for road users) has contributed to the decline in casualty rates. Other factors have been better road design and construction, segregating vehicles from pedestrians, and campaigns conducted nationally by government departments and the Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents and locally by local authorities to persuade people to take greater care on the roads. In recent years major publicity campaigns have been undertaken to increase the wearing of seat belts, to reduce casualties to child pedestrians and to riders of motorcycles and bicycles, and to reduce the incidence of drinking and driving.

Comprehensive regulations govern the design of vehicles, their use on the roads, and the maintenance and testing of their mechanical condition. Under a national 'type approval' scheme, all new cars must be of a type that has been certified as meeting the required standards. In Great Britain private cars and light vans which are three or more years old must be tested annually at private garages authorised as test stations. (In Northern Ireland private cars seven or more years old are tested at official vehicle inspection centres.) A compulsory type approval scheme for goods vehicles is being implemented and will apply to virtually all goods vehicles manufactured from 1 October 1982 and first used on or after 1 April 1983. Heavy goods vehicles are subject to annual tests carried out at special testing stations.

Minimum ages are laid down for driving: 16 for driving invalid carriages and mopeds; 17 for cars and other passenger vehicles with nine or fewer seats (including that of the driver), motorcycles and goods vehicles not over 3.5 tonnes gross laden weight; 18 for goods vehicles over 3.5 but not over 7.5 tonnes; and 21 for passenger vehicles with over nine seats and goods vehicles over 7.5 tonnes. All drivers of motor vehicles are required to pass the driving test before being granted a full licence to drive. Until they pass the test they must hold a 'provisional' licence, display 'L' (learner) plates on their vehicle and be accompanied while driving (with certain exceptions) by a qualified driver. There are national speed limits of 70 mph (113 km/h) on motorways and other dual carriageway roads, and 60 mph (97 km/h) on single carriageway roads, while in built-up areas a general limit of 30 mph (48 km/h) applies. To meet local needs the urban limit can be raised and the other limits lowered on specific stretches of road.

A wide range of other measures directed primarily towards road safety

include legislation and publicity to discourage drinking and driving, computer-controlled warning signals on most busy motorways to inform motorists of advisory speed limits in adverse conditions and of lane closures, and regulations governing the carriage of dangerous goods by road. The Transport Act 1981 contains a number of provisions designed to improve road safety which are expected to be brought into force in 1982-83. Measures to increase the effectiveness of the law on drinking and driving include the virtual replacement of blood testing by breath testing; the statutory limit of breath alcohol concentration for drivers will be 35 microgrammes of alcohol in 100 millilitres of breath. Provisions to improve the safety of motorcyclists include the restriction of learner drivers to the less powerful machines, a new two-part motorcycle driving test and a limit on the duration of the motorcycle provisional licence. The introduction of compulsory seat belt wearing is provided for in the Act and children will also be prohibited from riding without an appropriate restraint in the front passenger seat of many vehicles. The totting-up procedure of licence endorsements for driving offences will be replaced by a more discriminating system whereby drivers are given penalty points, varying in number according to the severity of the offence, and are liable to disqualification from driving for a period if they incur a set number of points within three years.

Traffic in Towns

Traffic management schemes are being operated in many city and town centres to minimise congestion and its environmental effects, and to improve road safety. They may include one-way systems, streets reserved for pedestrians, bus priority measures, parking controls and limited road construction. In most town centres parking is restricted and waiting limits apply. Major city centres often have controlled parking zones, where payment is required for on-street parking. Many towns have shopping precincts, some of them enclosed, which are specially designed for pedestrians and from which motor vehicles are excluded.

Urban traffic control systems, which link traffic signals and some traffic signs to a central computer, represent an important addition to local authorities' ability to control traffic. A new method for large towns and cities of continuously adapting traffic signal response to the flow of traffic is being used in Glasgow and Coventry. It will also be used in replacing a number of signals in London's urban traffic control system which, with some 1,200 sets of traffic signals, is the largest traffic management scheme in Britain and one of the largest in the world. A compact form of urban traffic control, sponsored by the Department of Transport, is operating in Torbay, Hull and a number of other towns.

ROAD HAULAGE

Road haulage traffic amounted to about 94,400 million tonne-kilometres in 1981. There has been a move towards larger and more efficient vehicles carrying heavier loads—about 67 per cent of the traffic, in terms of tonne-kilometres, is carried in vehicles of over 28 tonnes gross laden weight. Much of the traffic is moved over short distances, with more than three-fifths of the tonnage being carried on hauls of 50 kilometres (31 miles) or less. Public haulage (private road hauliers carrying other firms' goods) accounts for 61 per cent of freight carried in Great Britain in terms of tonne-kilometres. The growth in road haulage has been concentrated on long-distance traffic, particularly international road haulage.

The environmental problems caused by lorries have become a matter of

public concern. Following an independent inquiry, the Government has proposed a number of measures to bring economic benefits and increased protection to the environment and the public. If maximum lorry weights were increased, the higher load capacity should enable industry to meet demands for freight services with fewer vehicles than would otherwise be needed. Safeguards on the design of lorries (including their dimensions and axle arrangements) would mean that the effect of heavier vehicles on roads and bridges would be marginal and, in some respects, slightly favourable. Other measures include more by-passes to keep lorries away from places where people live, and a programme of research and development, involving vehicle and engine manufacturers, to reduce the noise from heavy lorries to less than half the 1981 level and produce a quiet heavy vehicle for the 1990s.

Structure of the Industry

Road haulage is predominantly an industry of small, privately owned businesses. Many of the 127,700 holders of an operator's licence in 1981 had only one vehicle and the average size of a vehicle fleet is only about four. The biggest operator in Great Britain is the National Freight Consortium set up by a consortium of managers and employees to acquire the National Freight Company from the Government. The acquisition, completed in February 1982, was the largest staff/management 'buy-out' ever undertaken in Britain and the first for a nationalised industry.

Licensing and Other Controls

Those operating goods vehicles over 3.5 tonnes gross weight (with certain special exemptions) require an operator's licence, obtained on showing good repute and ability to maintain vehicles properly and control loading and drivers' hours. Licences are divided into restricted licences for firms carrying their own goods and standard licences, sub-divided into 'national only' and 'international', for hauliers operating for hire or reward. (In Northern Ireland operators carrying their own goods do not require a licence.) Proof of professional competence is required to obtain a standard licence. Regulations lay down limits on the hours worked by drivers of goods vehicles, and there are also minimum rest periods. Under a European Community regulation a tachograph (a device which automatically records a vehicle's speed and distance covered, driving time and stopping periods) must be fitted and used in most goods vehicles over 3.5 tonnes gross weight in Great Britain. International road haulage is governed mainly by bilateral agreements which are in force with 26 other countries.

PASSENGER SERVICES

Bus and urban railway services in Britain are provided mainly by publicly owned operators, coach services partly by publicly owned bodies, and taxis and hire cars almost entirely by privately owned businesses.

Buses and Coaches

The largest single public sector bus and coach operator in Britain is the National Bus Company, which operates in England and Wales through 35 locally based subsidiaries and has a network of long-distance coach services; it has a fleet of some 14,700 vehicles. Legislation is being enacted to enable the Government to sell shares in any of the Company's subsidiaries and it intends to invite private sector participation in the coach operations side of the business.

Vehicles run by other public sector operators include 3,400 run by the Scottish Transport Group (which operates the main bus services in Scotland outside the major cities and also runs ferries to the islands off the west

coast of Scotland), 10,400 by the seven passenger transport executives (responsible for the day-to-day management and operations of local transport in Strathclyde and the metropolitan counties of Greater Manchester, Merseyside, West Midlands, Tyne and Wear, South Yorkshire and West Yorkshire), 6,400 by the London Transport Executive and 5,700 by other local authority undertakings. There are some 5,500 privately owned undertakings (of which the majority have fewer than five vehicles) comprising about 27,400 vehicles; only a small proportion of these operators are concerned with scheduled bus services. Double-deck buses are an important feature of urban passenger transport in Britain and there are some 25,600 in operation. In addition, there are 43,500 single-deck buses and coaches, and some 75 trams (at Blackpool and Llandudno which have Britain's only remaining tramway systems).

In Northern Ireland almost all road passenger services are provided by subsidiaries of the Northern Ireland Transport Holding Company. Citybus Ltd operates services in the city of Belfast and Ulsterbus Ltd operates most of the services in the rest of Northern Ireland. These companies have 370 and 1,040 vehicles respectively.

Services

There has been a long-term decline in the use of bus and coach services (except in the area of contract and private hire), mainly because of the growth in ownership of private cars, and in 1981 some 6,300 million journeys were made by bus or coach in Great Britain, 27 per cent fewer than in 1971. Bus operators have taken action to contain costs and to improve productivity by introducing larger buses, increasing the proportion of bus services operated by one man and reducing or rationalising services. Many uneconomic bus services have been withdrawn, particularly in the rural areas. However, in some rural areas new 'postbus' services (Post Office minibuses carrying mail and passengers), community-run minibus services or social car-sharing schemes have been introduced.

One of the aims of the Transport Act 1980, which contained the biggest series of reforms in road passenger transport for 50 years, was the encouragement of competition and new types of service. It removed restrictions on operating long-distance express coach services and excursions and tours, allowing free competition between operators. The result has been reductions in long-distance coach fares and a sharp rise in the number of services and of passengers carried.

Great Britain is divided into 11 traffic areas, each with a body of traffic commissioners responsible for licensing operators of buses and coaches to ensure their suitability for carrying the public safely. In addition, local bus services cannot be provided except under road service licences. The commissioners are required to grant applications for licences unless satisfied that to do so would be against the public interest.

Taxis

There are about 35,000 licensed taxis and 70,000 licensed taxi drivers in Great Britain, mainly in urban areas; London has some 13,000 and 18,000 respectively. In London and a number of other cities taxis must be purpose-built to conform to very strict requirements and drivers must have passed a test of their knowledge of the area. Hire cars with drivers may be booked only through the operator and not hired on the street; in some areas hire cars are licensed.

Urban Railways

There are underground railway services in three British cities: London, Glasgow and Liverpool. London Transport has 4,300 railway cars and

serves 277 stations, while its trains operate over 260 miles (418 kilometres) of railway, of which about 100 miles (161 kilometres) are underground. A light rapid transit system under construction on Tyneside involves the electrification of two suburban railway lines, linked by new tunnels under Newcastle upon Tyne and Gateshead, and a new bridge over the Tyne. The first section was opened in 1980 and the whole of the system, which will eventually be 34 miles (55 kilometres) long with over 40 stations, should be in operation by 1983. The project is the largest provincial urban transport scheme in Britain in the twentieth century.

RAILWAYS

Railways were pioneered in Britain, and the Stockton and Darlington Railway, opened in 1825, was the first passenger public railway in the world to be worked by steam power. Under the Transport Act 1947 the four large railway companies in Great Britain were brought under public ownership and in 1963 the British Railways Board was set up to manage railway affairs and subsidiary activities. In Northern Ireland the Northern Ireland Railways Company Ltd, a subsidiary of the Northern Ireland Transport Holding Company, operates the railway service on some 200 miles (322 kilometres) of track.

Operations

British Rail's operating statistics are shown in Table 24. In 1981 the Board's turnover, including financial support and income from other activities but excluding internal transactions, was £2,899 million and there was a net deficit of £37.2 million. Financial support for British Rail includes compensation for the financial burden of operating the rail passenger system as a public service and grants for level crossings. In 1981 the British Railways Board received £810 million from the Government and the passenger transport executives in respect of the public service obligation. At the end of 1981 the British Railways Board employed 227,300 people.

Table 24: Railway Statistics

	1976	1979	1980	1981
Passenger journeys (<i>million</i>)	707	748	760	718
Passenger-miles (<i>million</i>)	17,700	19,900	19,700	19,100
Freight train traffic (<i>million tonnes</i>)	176	169	153	154
Freight train traffic (<i>million net tonne-miles</i>)	12,794	12,361	10,961	10,877
Assets (at end of year):				
Locomotives	3,689	3,571	3,379	3,131
HST power cars and passenger carriages	193	669	772	845
APT power cars and passenger carriages	—	20	36	36
Other coaching vehicles	22,222	20,963	20,408	18,268
Freight vehicles	187,000	137,589	119,507	87,955
Stations	2,865	2,821	2,787	2,739
Route open for traffic (<i>miles</i>)	11,189	11,020	10,964	10,831

Source: *British Railways Board*

Passenger Services

The passenger network (see map, p 289) comprises a fast inter-city network, linking the main centres of Great Britain; local stopping services; and commuter services in and around the large conurbations, especially London and south-east England. The introduction of faster trains, together with the raising of standards of track and signalling, has brought significant reductions in journey time on many routes. Inter-city rail services in Great Britain are among the best in the world in speed, frequency and comfort. Two major projects, the High Speed Train (HST) and the Advanced Passenger Train (APT), have been designed to raise speeds using existing track. British Rail introduced the world's fastest diesel rail service, known as Inter-City 125 and operated by HSTs travelling at maximum sustained speeds of 125 mph (201 km/h), in 1976 on the route from London to Bristol and south Wales. Similar services have also been introduced on the London-Edinburgh-Aberdeen route, the London-Plymouth-Penzance route, the London-Sheffield route and the route linking Edinburgh, Newcastle upon Tyne, Birmingham and south-west England or south Wales. British Rail is continuing to develop the APT, also capable of speeds of 125 mph (201 km/h) but with the ability to take curves up to 40 per cent faster than conventional trains, and is concentrating its resources on the design of the first production APTs. Three pre-production APTs are being used for testing purposes.

Electrification is continuing, with a £30 million scheme to extend electrified services to Ipswich, Norwich and Harwich. The Government has invited British Rail to draw up a ten-year programme of schemes for electrifying potentially profitable main line routes, following a review by the Department of Transport and British Rail. Government approval of particular electrification projects will depend on the profitability of the investment and on the achievement of improvements in productivity.

British Rail is looking at ways of reducing costs on its local passenger services by the installation of automatic level crossings and radio signalling, track rationalisation, and replacing existing diesel multiple-unit trains by lightweight vehicles which are cheaper to build and maintain.

Freight

The most important freight commodities handled in 1981 were coal and coke (95.2 million tonnes), iron and steel (18.2 million tonnes), earth and stones (12.5 million tonnes) and petroleum products (12.3 million tonnes). British Rail is concentrating on traffic particularly suitable for carriage by rail, especially long-distance and bulk trainload traffic.

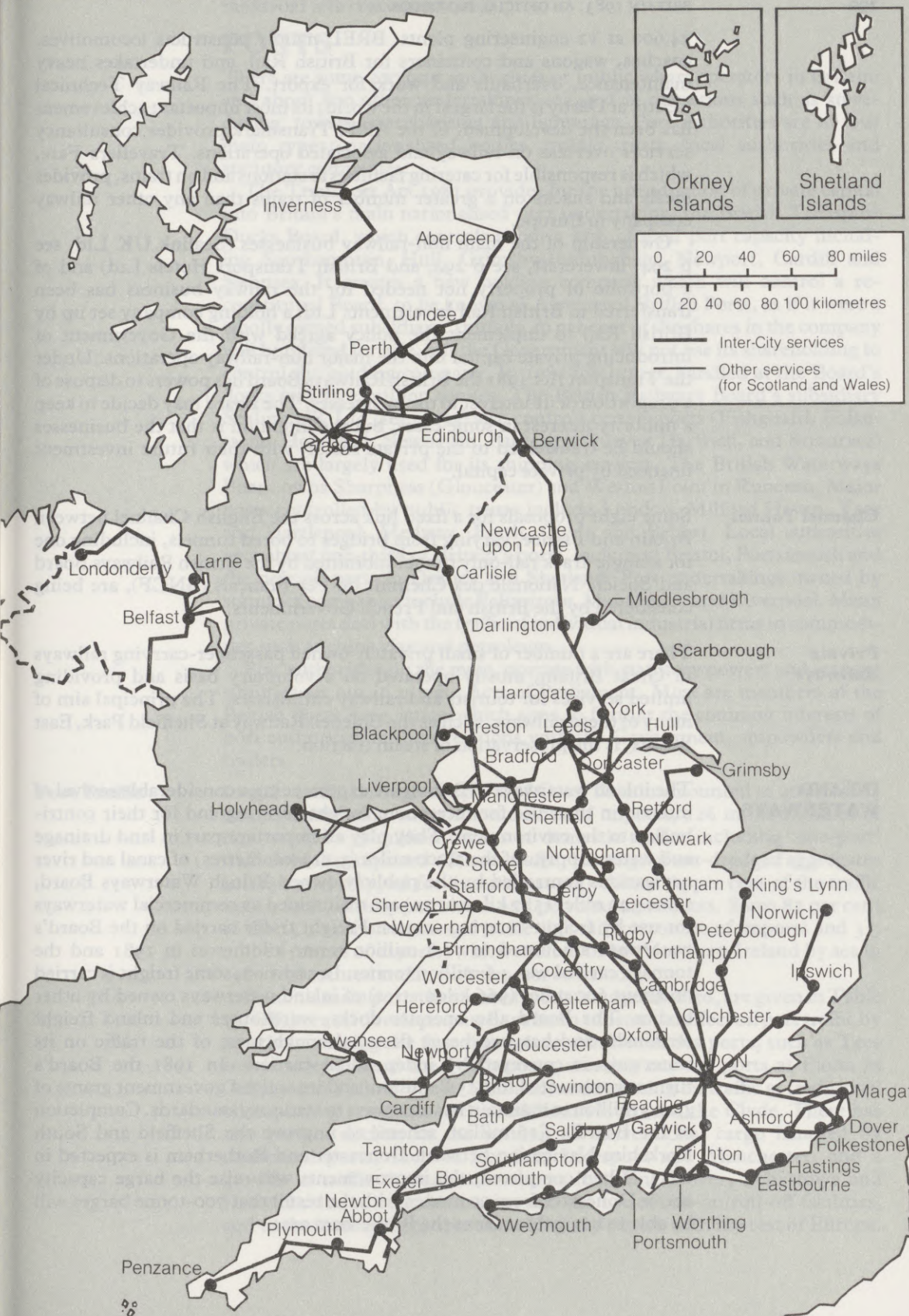
Increased efficiency is being obtained as new types of wagon are introduced with larger capacities and which are capable of higher speeds. A network of some 80 scheduled 'Speedlink' high-speed freight services using these new wagons has been established between the major industrial centres. A computer-based total operations processing system, which monitors all consignments and freight train and wagon movements in Great Britain, has reduced costs by allowing the more intensive use of rolling stock and the withdrawal of many obsolete wagons.

To encourage the use of railways for the carriage of freight, grants of up to 50 per cent are available towards the cost of construction or modernisation of privately owned rail freight facilities where there are significant environmental benefits by the removal of heavy goods vehicle traffic from the roads.

Other Activities

British Rail has a group of other companies, of which British Rail Engineering Ltd (BREL) has the largest number of employees, about

Main Railway Passenger Routes



34,600 at 12 engineering plants. BREL mainly constructs locomotives, coaches, wagons and containers for British Rail, and undertakes heavy maintenance, overhauls and work for export. The Railway Technical Centre at Derby is the largest in the world; its most important achievement has been the development of the APT. Transmark provides consultancy services overseas on railway and associated operations. Travellers-Fare, which is responsible for catering facilities at stations and on trains, provides meals and snacks on a greater number of trains than any other railway company in Europe.

Ownership of the main non-railway businesses (Sealink UK Ltd, see p 294, hovercraft, see p 294, and British Transport Hotels Ltd) and of a portfolio of property not needed for the railway business has been transferred to British Rail Investments Ltd, a holding company set up by British Rail to implement the policy agreed with the Government of introducing private capital into the major non-railway operations. Under the Transport Act 1981 the British Railways Board has powers to dispose of a proportion of its interest in the businesses. The Board may decide to keep a minority interest in some cases, but the intention is that the businesses should be transferred to the private sector, with their future investment financed by private capital.

Channel Tunnel

Some eight proposals for a fixed link across the English Channel between Britain and France, varying from bridges to bored tunnels, including one for a single-track rail-only tunnel submitted by the British Railways Board and Société Nationale des Chemins de Fer Français (SNCF), are being considered by the British and French Governments.

Private Railways

There are a number of small privately owned passenger-carrying railways in Great Britain, mostly operated on a voluntary basis and providing limited services for tourists and railway enthusiasts. The principal aim of many of these railways, such as the Bluebell Railway at Sheffield Park, East Sussex, is the preservation of steam traction.

INLAND WATERWAYS

The inland waterways of Britain are experiencing a considerable revival of interest in their use for recreation, freight-carrying and for their contribution to the environment. They play an important part in land drainage and water supply. Of the 2,000 miles (3,219 kilometres) of canal and river navigations controlled by the publicly owned British Waterways Board, some 340 miles (547 kilometres) are maintained as commercial waterways for use by freight-carrying vessels. Freight traffic carried on the Board's waterways amounted to 71.8 million tonne-kilometres in 1981 and the tonnage carried was 4.6 million tonnes. In addition, some freight is carried on about 600 miles (966 kilometres) of inland waterways owned by other bodies. The Board also operates docks, warehouses and inland freight terminals, and has two barge fleets, although most of the traffic on its waterways is conveyed by independent carriers. In 1981 the Board's turnover amounted to £15.8 million, and it received government grants of £27.3 million to maintain its waterways to statutory standards. Completion of the Board's £16 million scheme to improve the Sheffield and South Yorkshire Navigation between Doncaster and Rotherham is expected in 1983. When completed, the improvements will raise the barge capacity above Doncaster from 90 tonnes with the result that 700-tonne barges will be able to navigate as far as the Rotherham area.

PORTS

There are some 200 port authorities or public wharf operators in Britain, and about 800 other undertakings engaged in operations such as stevedoring, towage, warehousing and lighterage. Port authorities are of four main types: nationalised bodies, public trusts, local authorities and statutory companies.

The Transport Act 1981 provides for the introduction of private capital into Britain's main nationalised port undertaking, the British Transport Docks Board, which controls about a fifth of total port capacity including Southampton, Hull, Grimsby/Immingham, Newport, Cardiff and Swansea. It creates a new holding company which will control a re-constituted Board, to be known as Associated British Ports, as if it were a wholly owned subsidiary. Initially 49 per cent of the shares in the company will be offered for sale, but the Government will not use its shareholding to control the holding company. In 1981 total cargo handled at the Board's docks was 75.2 million tonnes. The British Railways Board's subsidiary Sealink UK Ltd (see p 294) also controls certain ports (Fishguard, Folkestone, Holyhead, Newhaven, Parkeston Quay at Harwich, and Stranraer) which are largely used for its shipping services. The British Waterways Board owns Sharpness (Gloucester) and Weston Point in Runcorn. Major ports controlled by public trusts include London, Milford Haven, Tees and Hartlepool, Medway, Forth, Clyde and Belfast. Local authorities own about one-third of Britain's ports, including Bristol, Portsmouth and the new oil ports in Orkney and Shetland. Port undertakings owned by statutory companies include Felixstowe, Manchester and Liverpool. Many private ports deal with the traffic of individual industrial firms in commodities such as china clay and petroleum.

Port authorities, in the main, operate with statutory powers and responsibilities set out in private Acts of Parliament. Most are members of the British Ports Association which aims to further the common interests of port authorities in their relations with the Government, shipowners and traders.

Port Traffic

In 1981 traffic through the ports of Great Britain amounted to 405 million tonnes comprising 124 million tonnes of imports, 126 million tonnes of exports and 155 million tonnes of domestic traffic (including 'one-port' traffic which comprised offshore traffic, landings of sea-dredged aggregates and material shipped for dumping at sea). About 64 per cent of the traffic was in fuels, mainly petroleum and petroleum products. Some 82 per cent of the 13.1 million tonnes of traffic (9.8 million tonnes of imports and 3.3 million tonnes of exports) which entered or left Northern Ireland by sea in 1981 represented traffic with the rest of Britain.

Britain's main ports, in terms of total tonnage handled, are given in Table 25. Offshore oil developments have had a substantial effect on port traffic by greatly increasing the flow through certain North Sea ports, such as Tees and Hartlepool and the Forth ports, creating new oil ports at Flotta in Orkney and Sullom Voe in Shetland, and reducing oil traffic at traditional oil importing terminals such as Milford Haven and the Clyde. There has also been a decline in the volume of conventional cargo handled by traditional ports, such as London, Liverpool and Manchester, and a growth in traffic through other ports including Dover, Felixstowe and Harwich, due to containerisation and the use of roll-on/roll-off facilities, and to the increasing proportion of Britain's trade with the rest of Europe.

While non-fuel traffic has been growing only slowly, container and roll-on traffic has more than doubled since 1971 to 43 million tonnes in 1981 and now accounts for over one-third of non-fuel traffic. The leading ports for this type of traffic are Dover, Felixstowe, Southampton, Liverpool, London and Hull.

Table 25: Traffic through the Principal Ports of Great Britain

million tonnes

	1971	1976	1979	1980	1981
Shetland	<i>na</i>	<i>na</i>	20.4	29.0	39.6
London	53.2	44.2	40.2	39.4	35.3
Tees and Hartlepool	22.2	30.5	37.1	37.7	34.0
Milford Haven	43.2	43.2	38.9	38.7	31.7
Forth	9.3	13.7	28.8	28.5	26.3
Grimsby and Immingham	17.8	23.4	24.7	21.1	25.0
Southampton	28.0	26.6	22.6	21.8	20.1
Orkney	<i>na</i>	<i>na</i>	17.8	17.6	15.6
Medway	22.7	20.7	18.6	16.9	15.4
Liverpool	31.8	22.2	13.1	13.0	11.9
Manchester	16.2	14.9	11.9	11.0	9.9

Source: *Department of Transport*

na = not available

Notes: Foreign and coastal traffic only; excludes one-port traffic.

Belfast and Larne are the main ports in Northern Ireland and handled 5.5 million tonnes and 4.9 million tonnes respectively in 1981.

Development

Modernisation of Britain's ports has been carried out primarily to accommodate the increase in the proportion of goods carried in container ships and roll-on vessels, and the changing nature and direction of Britain's trade. Most current developments are concerned with specific energy or industrial needs or to accommodate specialised container or roll-on services rather than with general purpose port facilities. Recent major schemes have included a £32 million scheme to provide two deep-water container berths at Felixstowe, which became operational in 1981, and a £12 million scheme for two roll-on berths, with multi-level access, at Dover, completed in 1980. At Portsmouth a £15 million scheme is in progress to add two new ferry berths by 1983, doubling the port's cross-Channel capacity.

The first purpose-built terminal for oil from the British sector of the North Sea was completed at Hound Point on the Forth in 1975 and other terminals have been built on the Tees, at Flotta and Sullom Voe. Sullom Voe is expected to become the largest oil exporting port in Europe by the mid-1980s. Three of the four jetties are able to handle oil tankers of up to 350,000 deadweight tons. The fourth jetty handles the export of liquefied petroleum gases and can accommodate vessels with a capacity of up to 75,000 cubic metres. A natural gas liquids terminal is being built in the Firth of Forth. Other developments related to offshore oil and gas have included the construction of supply bases for offshore vessels at a number of ports mostly on the east coast, including Great Yarmouth, Leith, Dundee, Montrose, Aberdeen, Peterhead, and Lerwick in Shetland.

SHIPPING

The British merchant fleet in mid-1981 at 25.4 million gross tons¹ (41.3 million deadweight tons) was the fifth largest after those of Liberia, Greece, Japan and Panama. The oil tanker fleet (12.2 million gross tons) was the fourth largest and the fleet of fully cellular container ships (1.5 million gross tons) was the third largest. The fleet reached its peak of 33.2 million gross tons in 1975, but has declined since then, mainly owing to the world recession in shipping and increasing international competition. A large tonnage of ships, particularly of tankers, has been scrapped or sold. Nevertheless, the British fleet still, modern and technically advanced, contains a substantial number of ships.

THE MERCHANT FLEET

In July 1981, 33.8 million deadweight tons of trading vessels of 100 gross tons and over were both owned and registered in Britain: 21.6 million tons usually employed as tankers, 8.7 million tons as tramps and 3.6 million tons as cargo or passenger liners or cellular container ships. The merchant fleet figure of 41.3 million deadweight tons also includes non-trading vessels, such as fishing vessels, tugs and dredgers, and shipping registered in Britain but owned in other Commonwealth countries.

Ownership

Virtually all of the British merchant fleet is privately owned. Nearly two-thirds of the tanker fleet belongs to the oil companies, although there are a few independent tanker operators. British liner tonnage is dominated by a relatively small number of large groups, the largest liner company being the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company (P & O). Some shipowners have delegated the management of their fleets to specialist ship management companies. Several companies are participating in consortia, particularly where heavy investment is required, as with container vessels. Chartering of ships of all nationalities takes place on the Baltic Exchange, the largest market of its type in the world. The representative body for shipowners (excluding owners of fishing vessels) is the General Council of British Shipping.

SERVICES

About 95 per cent of Britain's overseas trade by weight, about three-quarters by value, is carried by sea, while the proportion of passengers travelling to or from Britain by sea is over one-third, compared with about one-half in the early 1960s.

Cargo Services

In 1980 British seaborne trade amounted to 232 million tonnes (valued at over £75,150 million) or 755,950 million tonne-miles (1.2 million million tonne-kilometres). Ships registered in Britain carried 34 per cent by weight, 28 per cent in terms of tonne-miles and 40 per cent by value. Tanker cargoes accounted for nearly half this trade by weight, but only about 16 per cent by value, and foodstuffs and manufactured goods accounted for over three-quarters by value.

Container and roll-on/roll-off vessels are responsible for a growing proportion of general cargo trade. Many of the deep-sea liner services from Britain are operated by container ships. Roll-on services, accommodating passengers and their cars and, in some cases, commercial vehicles, are increasing in number, particularly between Britain and the continent of

¹One gross ton = 100 cubic feet (2.83 cubic metres). One deadweight ton = 1 tonne (1,000 kilogrammes or 2,205 lb). Gross tonnage indicates the total capacity of the enclosed space on a ship. Deadweight tonnage denotes the maximum load which a vessel can carry before submerging the load-line.

Europe. Several freight-only roll-on services operate to the Irish Republic, the continent of Europe, and to more distant countries.

British shipping companies operating liner services have associated with each other and with the companies of other countries operating on the same routes in a series of 'conferences' designed to secure standardisation and stability of rates, and to maintain frequency and regularity of services. The essential principle of a conference is a common tariff of freight rates and other conditions of service to be applied by each member line. There are about 100 conferences dealing with trade to and from Britain.

Passenger Services

Almost all of the 25.2 million passengers who arrived at or departed from British ports in 1981 travelled to or from the continent of Europe or the Irish Republic, services on other routes having been withdrawn as a result of the growth of air services. Remaining long-distance passenger ships are used for cruising and in 1981 some 81,000 passengers embarked on pleasure cruises from British ports. Services from British ports are shown on the map at the end of the book.

Cross-Channel traffic accounts for a substantial proportion of traffic to the continent of Europe. Sealink UK Ltd, a subsidiary of the British Railways Board, is the largest short-sea ferry operator in Europe. The company and its continental partners (SNCF of France, Régie des Transports Maritimes Belges and Stoomvaart Maatschappij Zeeland of the Netherlands) operate about 60 ships on short-sea routes. Sealink UK Ltd and the other major British operators, including Townsend Thoresen and P & O Ferries, have invested heavily in new ships in recent years, resulting in a substantial increase in cross-Channel ferry capacity. Competition between the operators has led to reductions in fares on many routes.

Cross-Channel hovercraft services are provided by Hoverspeed (formed in 1981 by the merger of British Rail Hovercraft Ltd and Hoverlloyd Ltd) with routes between Dover and Boulogne, and Dover and Calais, and a summer-only route between Ramsgate and Calais. A hovercraft crossing takes about one-third of the time taken by ships, and hovercraft carry over one-quarter of the traffic on the short-sea crossings to the continent of Europe. Hoverspeed operates six hovercraft including two British Hovercraft Corporation SR.N Super 4s which have been structurally enlarged so that each accommodates 424 passengers and 55 cars, making them the largest hovercraft in the world.

Passenger and freight ferry services are also operated to many of the offshore islands, such as the Isle of Wight, Orkney, Shetland and a number of other Scottish islands.

ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT

The Department of Trade is the government department responsible for most matters connected with merchant shipping, including general policy towards the industry and Britain's relations with other governments and international organisations on shipping matters. The general policy is one of minimum intervention by the Government and the encouragement of free and fair competition. Under the Merchant Shipping Acts the Department does, however, administer many regulations for marine safety and welfare, and for preventing and cleaning up pollution from ships. For instance, it certifies the load-line (or Plimsoll line) that shows that a ship is not overloaded; ensures that standards of safety are observed in ship construction; ensures the provision of adequate life-saving, fire-fighting and radio equipment; and deals with the discipline, professional standards,

health and accommodation of seamen. The Acts also contain certain reserve powers for protecting shipping and trading interests from measures adopted or proposed by overseas governments.

Outside London the Department's responsibilities for the enforcement of marine safety are carried out from marine offices located at various ports. In the offices of the Registrar General of Shipping and Seamen, at Cardiff, a record is kept of all ships registered in Britain and its dependencies.

SAFETY AT SEA

Britain's merchant fleet is one of the safest in the world with a lower record of ship losses than the world average.

The Coastguard Service, administered by the Department of Trade, is responsible for initiating and co-ordinating civil marine search and rescue action in the United Kingdom Search and Rescue Region (SRR). This is divided into six coastguard SRRs, each controlled by a maritime rescue co-ordination centre (MRCC) supported by sub-centres, all of which maintain continuous telecommunications watch on marine distress frequencies. In addition, at times of casualty risk a watch is kept at some 250 other stations around the coast. The Coastguard Service is able to call upon the lifeboats of the Royal National Lifeboat Institution (a voluntary body which operates 259 lifeboats), Ministry of Defence aircraft (including helicopters from 11 airfields around the coast), a long-range civilian helicopter based at Sumburgh (Shetland), and any other ships or aircraft available to assist in search or rescue action. In 1981 the Coastguard Service took action in 3,965 incidents (including cliff rescues) in which over 7,750 people were assisted.

The lighthouse authorities (for England and Wales the Corporation of Trinity House, for Scotland the Northern Lighthouse Board and for Ireland the Commissioners of Irish Lights) control about 350 lighthouses, many minor lights and buoys, and a number of lightships, some of which are being replaced by unattended sea marks or by light towers. In Britain there are 47 pilotage authorities for the 87 pilotage districts and about 1,300 licensed pilots. Trinity House is the largest pilotage authority, licensing some 600 pilots in 40 districts in England and Wales. In some cases the harbour authority or local council is the pilotage authority.

Compliance with traffic separation schemes around the shores of Britain is mandatory for all vessels of countries party to the 1972 International Collision Regulations. The most important scheme affecting British waters is in the Dover Strait, the world's busiest seaway. It consists of traffic lanes for shipping passing through the strait and inshore traffic zones for use by local shipping. The number of collisions in the strait has fallen considerably since the scheme was introduced. Britain and France operate radar surveillance of the strait to keep watch on ships not conforming to the scheme and, through the Channel Navigation Information Service, broadcast navigational information to ships in the Dover Strait. The MRCC at Dover, which monitors ships passing through the strait, has a data processing system for detecting and tracking vessels automatically, making it probably the most advanced centre of its kind in the world.

CIVIL AVIATION

Britain's substantial civil air transport industry is continuing to develop to meet the generally increasing demand for air travel, particularly international travel. Airline services are operated by British Airways and by a

number of independent airlines. Their fleets contain some of the most modern types of equipment including wide-bodied aircraft and the Concorde supersonic aircraft with which British Airways inaugurated in 1976, jointly with Air France, the world's first scheduled supersonic passenger services. Many airports are being substantially modernised and extended.

Role of the Government

The Secretary of State for Trade is responsible for international matters (including negotiation of air service agreements with more than 100 other countries, the licensing and control of public transport operations into Britain by overseas operators and British participation in the activities of international aviation bodies), airports policy, amenity matters (such as aircraft noise), aviation security policy and investigation of accidents.

Civil Aviation Authority

The Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) is an independent statutory body, responsible for the economic, technical and operational regulation of the industry. It is also responsible for the aerodrome navigation services at certain British airports and, jointly with the Ministry of Defence, for the provision by the National Air Traffic Services of air navigation services. The CAA also operates eight aerodromes in Scotland. Members of the CAA are appointed by the Secretary of State for Trade.

Under the Civil Aviation Act 1980 the Authority's primary objectives are to ensure that British airlines provide air services to satisfy all major categories of public demand at the lowest charges consistent with a high standard of safety and an economic return for efficient operators, and to further the reasonable interests of air transport users. Other duties are to ensure that British airlines compete effectively on international routes, to secure the most efficient use of airports in Britain and to have regard to the need to minimise the adverse effects of civil aviation on the environment. In 1981-82 the Government paid a grant of £9.8 million to the CAA to cover its loss-making operations: the operation of its Scottish aerodromes, which received a subsidy of £3.8 million from the Scottish Office; and the provision of air navigation services in British airspace, for which a grant of over £5.9 million was paid (and for which grants will continue to be paid until the arrangements for providing the services can be altered by international agreement).

Air Traffic

In 1981 a total of some 43.7 million passengers travelled by air (international terminal passengers) to or from Britain, 2.1 per cent more than in 1980. Total capacity offered on all services by British airlines amounted to 13,087 million capacity-tonne-kilometres in 1981: 9,936 million tonne-kilometres on scheduled services and 3,151 million tonne-kilometres on non-scheduled services. British Airways accounts for some 80 per cent of scheduled services flown by British airlines, whereas the charter market is dominated by independent companies.

In 1980 the value of Britain's overseas trade carried by air was some £18,200 million and the proportions carried by air amounted to approximately 18 per cent of the value of exports and of imports. Air freight is important for the carriage of goods with a high value-to-weight ratio, especially where speed of movement is essential. Precious stones, live animals, medicinal and pharmaceutical products, clothing, leather and skins, and scientific instruments are major categories where a relatively high proportion of exports is sent by air.

British Airways

British Airways is one of the world's leading airlines, and in terms of international passengers carried and of international passenger-kilometres flown it is the largest in the world. During 1980-81 British Airways' turnover was £2,061 million (including £1,750 million from airline operations) and it recorded a net loss of £145 million. The Civil Aviation Act 1980 makes legislative provision for the Government's intention to change British Airways from a nationalised industry to a private sector company. At the appropriate time the Government will effect this change and it intends to sell a controlling shareholding in the new company to private investors.

Airline Operations

British Airways' route network, covering some 578,000 kilometres (359,200 miles) of unduplicated route, is among the largest in the world. The airline serves 140 destinations in 70 countries and in 1981-82 carried some 15.3 million passengers on scheduled services. International scheduled services are operated to the rest of Europe, the Middle East, the Far East, Australasia, East and South Africa, and North America. Within Britain it runs 1,200 services a week to 14 towns and cities. Scheduled Concorde services are operated from London (Heathrow) to New York and to Washington, covering these routes in about half the time taken by subsonic aircraft.

Other activities carried out include helicopter services, engine overhaul work, airport technical services and investments in a number of hotel companies and air companies in other countries.

British Airways operated 154 aircraft and 39 helicopters in June 1982 (see diagram, p 298). A large investment programme is under way to replace the older aircraft, and major orders for new aircraft include 19 Boeing 757s.

Independent Airlines

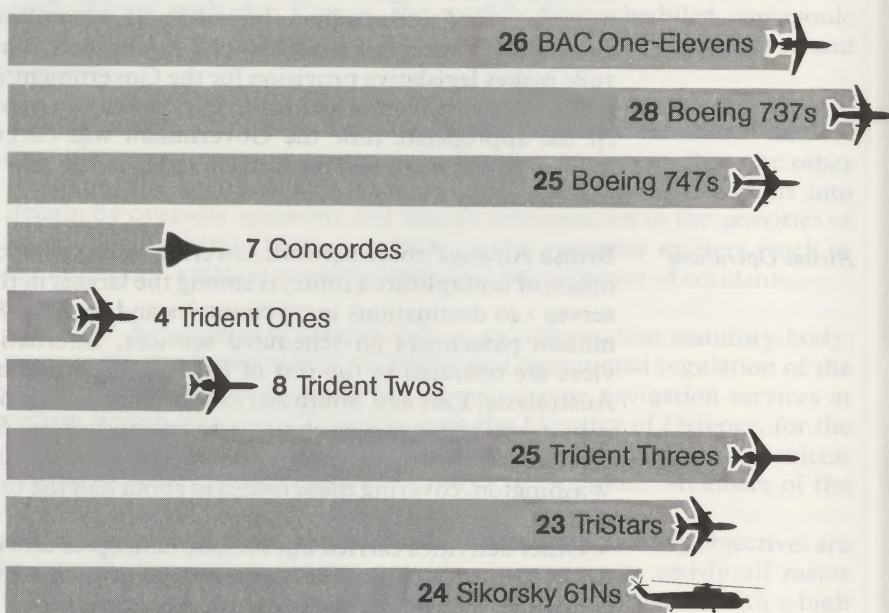
The independent airlines carry 6 million passengers a year on scheduled services and 12 million on charter flights. The main independent scheduled airline is British Caledonian Airways, which operates a fleet of 25 aircraft and carried 1.9 million scheduled service passengers in 1981. Its scheduled services are primarily to the continent of Europe; North, West and Central Africa; South America; the United States; and the Middle East and Hong Kong. Other operators of scheduled passenger services include British Midland Airways, Air UK and Dan-Air Services. Britannia Airways, Dan-Air Services, Monarch Airlines and Air Europe are the leading independent airlines operating charter passenger services.

Helicopters are engaged on a variety of work, but are mainly employed on the large-scale operations connected with the development of Britain's offshore oil and gas resources. Bristow Helicopters, which operates a fleet of more than 50 helicopters in Britain, is the world's largest helicopter contracting business. There are a small number of scheduled helicopter passenger services in Britain, including a link between Heathrow and Gatwick airports, and routes between Penzance and the Isles of Scilly, and Glasgow and Fort William. Light aircraft and helicopters are also involved in other activities, such as charter operations, search and rescue services, crop-spraying, and aerial survey and photography.

Safety

The CAA is responsible for air safety, both airworthiness and operational safety. Its Operations Division deals with the preparation and application of safety requirements concerning airline and private aviation operations, flight crew licensing and training, aerodromes, and fire and rescue services.

Aircraft and Helicopters Operated by British Airways in June 1982



Other aircraft
2 Boeing 707s
6 HS 748s

Other helicopters
4 Sikorsky S76s
6 Boeing Vertols
1 Jet Ranger
2 Bell 212s
2 Westland 30s

The Airworthiness Division is responsible for the airworthiness standards of aircraft registered in Britain, the licensing of aircraft maintenance engineers and the approval of work schedules to which British transport aircraft are maintained. The CAA is advised in its airworthiness duties by the Airworthiness Requirements Board.

Every company operating aircraft used for public transport must possess an Air Operator's Certificate which is granted by the CAA when it is satisfied that the operator is competent to secure the safe operation of its aircraft. The CAA's flight operations inspectors (who are experienced airline pilots) check that satisfactory operating standards are maintained.

Each member of the flight crew of a British registered aircraft must hold the appropriate official licence issued by the CAA. Except for pilots with acceptable military or other qualifying experience, all applicants for a first professional pilot's licence must have undertaken a full-time course of ground and flying instruction at a training body approved by the CAA.

Responsibility for civil and military air traffic control over Britain and the surrounding seas rests with the National Air Traffic Services (NATS). The Controller of the NATS reports to both the CAA and the Ministry of Defence. The function of the NATS is to secure the safe, orderly and expeditious flow of air traffic within British airspace. It also provides air traffic services for aircraft flying over the north-eastern quarter of the North Atlantic. At some 20 civil aerodromes, including most of the major British

airports, the NATS provides the navigation services necessary for the operation of aircraft taking off and landing, and integrates them into the flow of traffic within British airspace. To provide its services, the NATS uses radar, some 100 navigational beacons, landing aids, air/ground communications and an extensive telecommunications network.

Airports

Of the 127 licensed civil aerodromes in Britain, about one-quarter each handles more than 100,000 passengers a year. In 1981 Britain's civil airports handled a total of 59 million passengers (57·8 million terminal passengers and 1·2 million in transit), and 725,500 tonnes of freight. London's Heathrow airport is the world's busiest airport for international travel, and is Britain's most important airport for passengers and air freight, handling 26·4 million passengers and 447,000 tonnes of freight in 1981. Gatwick, the second major airport in the London area, and the world's fourth busiest international airport, handled 10·7 million passengers in 1981. Other leading airports were Manchester, Glasgow, Luton, Birmingham, Belfast, Aberdeen and Edinburgh.

Ownership and Control

The British Airports Authority (BAA), a statutory body, owns and manages seven airports—Heathrow, Gatwick and Stansted in south-east England, and Glasgow, Edinburgh, Prestwick and Aberdeen in Scotland—which handle about 75 per cent of air passengers and 85 per cent of air cargo traffic in Britain. In 1981-82 the BAA's income was £278 million and it recorded a pre-tax profit of £38·6 million.

Sumburgh airport and seven small aerodromes in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland are controlled by the CAA and Belfast's airport (Aldergrove) is managed by Northern Ireland Airports Ltd, a subsidiary of the Northern Ireland Transport Holding Company. Most of the other public airports are controlled by local authorities. Except for those controlled by the CAA, all airports used for public transport and training flights must be licensed by the CAA. Stringent requirements, such as the provision of adequate fire-fighting, medical and rescue services, suitable physical characteristics and visual aids, must be satisfied before a licence is granted. Strict aviation security measures are in force at airports.

Development

The Government's policy is that the growing demand for air transport facilities in south-east England should be met by the provision of additional capacity at existing airports, especially Heathrow, Gatwick and Stansted. It is also encouraging the maximum use of other main regional airports.

A fourth major terminal to be built at Heathrow will raise the airport's capacity from 30 million to 38 million passengers a year and should be open by 1986. At Gatwick a £100 million redevelopment programme has been completed, increasing the airport's annual capacity to some 16 million passengers. A second passenger terminal, which will ultimately increase Gatwick's capacity to about 25 million passengers a year, is proposed and should be in operation by 1987 if planning permission is given. The BAA is proposing to build a new terminal and associated facilities at Stansted which would increase the airport's capacity to 15 million passengers a year. Its planning application is being examined at a public inquiry.

Work is in progress to develop facilities at several of Britain's other airports. A new terminal complex, which will be able to handle up to 3 million passengers a year, is to be built at Birmingham airport at a cost of some £50 million. It is expected to be open in 1984. Major expansion of

existing terminals is being implemented at Luton, Newcastle upon Tyne and Belfast airports, while the runways at Manchester and Leeds-Bradford airports are being substantially extended. Offshore oil and gas activities have also stimulated expansion schemes at airports in north-east Britain, such as at Aberdeen where a new terminal was opened in 1977.

COMMUNICATIONS

A new framework for the structure of communications services has been established under the British Telecommunications Act 1981. This provided for the separation of the Post Office into two corporations, one for postal and banking services and the other for telecommunications, both of which are responsible to the Secretary of State for Industry.

BRITISH TELECOM

Britain has the world's fourth largest public telecommunications business. There are some 29 million telephones, 19 million exchange connections, 92,000 telex connections and 93,000 data transmission terminals (more than in any country except the United States). British Telecommunications (known as British Telecom), established under the British Telecommunications Act 1981 to operate telecommunications and data processing services, employs 245,900 people, has assets of £15,300 million, and runs eight factories and a fleet of 54,000 telecommunications vehicles.

The Government intends to introduce legislation to change British Telecom from a nationalised industry to a company operating under the Companies Acts and plans to offer up to 51 per cent of the shares on the market. It has begun to relax the statutory monopoly in telecommunications in the interests of encouraging competition, and is to allow private sector firms to supply, install and maintain equipment attached to the telecommunications network with the exception of a customer's first telephone and the maintenance of certain private branch exchanges. Private sector organisations are also able, under licence, to provide a wide range of added value services offered via the public network such as computer and word processing bureaux, message handling systems and information retrieval systems. In February 1982 the Government issued a licence to enable the Mercury Consortium, a joint venture between Cable and Wireless, British Petroleum and Barclays Merchant Bank, to run an independent telecommunications system for business, and the Consortium hopes to connect its first customers in London early in 1983.

Telephone Services

In 1981-82 some 21,093 million telephone calls were made in Britain comprising 17,360 million local calls, 3,446 million trunk calls and 287 million international calls. Customers dial virtually all local and trunk telephone calls, and about 97 per cent of international calls. Britain's telephone customers can dial direct to 121 countries.

Several specialised services are available by telephone, including the '999' emergency dialling service enabling customers to be connected rapidly and free of charge to the police, ambulance or fire services. British Telecom provides a number of 'Guidelines' services, the most popular being Timeline (the Speaking Clock) which received 362 million calls in 1981-82. Other services include Discline, weather forecasts, cricket scores, racing results and a service for visitors and tourists. A radiopaging service, providing direct dialling access over the public telephone network to small lightweight portable receivers, has been extended to the whole of Britain to

form one of the largest networks of its kind in the world. An international facsimile service, known as 'Bureaufax', provides high-speed facsimile links from a number of cities to 60 other countries.

Exchanges

Over 1,500 electronic exchanges are in use and some 630 more have been ordered. They are more reliable than conventional electro-mechanical exchanges as they have very few moving parts and so require less maintenance. Most electronic exchanges are of the TXE2 type, with a capacity of up to 7,000 lines. Larger TXE4 exchanges, with a capacity of up to 40,000 lines, have been brought into service since 1976, and the first of an improved version, the TXE4A, was brought into service in 1981. A series of new switching and associated systems for telephone exchanges, known as System X, using microelectronics technology, integrated digital transmission and switching, stored program (software) control and common channel signalling, has been developed. Four System X exchanges are in operation and four more are due to enter service in 1983.

Overseas Services

The demand for international calls is doubling every four or five years and British Telecom has increased the amount of equipment in its international exchanges substantially. By the end of 1982 there will be some 26,000 cable and satellite circuits linking Britain with other countries compared with nearly 3,000 in 1970. A substantial proportion of the intercontinental telephone traffic to or from Britain is carried by satellite. Britain has the second largest interest in the International Telecommunications Satellite Organisation (INTELSAT) and is the third largest user of facilities provided by the International Maritime Satellite Organisation (INMARSAT). Satellite earth stations at Goonhilly in Cornwall and Madley near Hereford provide access to the geostationary satellites which form the basis for both systems. Between them the earth stations operate about 7,000 circuits via five satellite paths to over 80 countries. Britain also participates in EUTELSAT, a European telecommunications satellite body which has developed from an initial organisation set up by the telecommunications administrations of over 20 European countries.

There are 29 submarine cables from Britain to the continent of Europe, the Irish Republic and the Faroe Islands, and three cables from Britain to North America.

Prestel

British Telecom's 'Prestel', the world's first public viewdata service, was inaugurated in 1979. It enables information and messages to be transmitted through the telephone network from a computer for display on a suitably equipped television set in words, figures and simple graphics. About 210,000 'pages' of information are being provided from over 800 sources. Information is available on a wide range of subjects but with special emphasis on the needs of selected business sectors such as travel agents, investment managers, farmers and lawyers. Prestel has more than 17,000 sets attached to its network and is the largest information service of its kind in the world. Prestel's 'Gateway' facility, which connects private computer databases to the Prestel database and allows a wide range of services (such as booking holidays, travel tickets or placing an immediate order with a mail order company), came into operation in March 1982.

Prestel software has been sold to telecommunications authorities in a number of countries. In 1981 British Telecom opened Prestel to overseas access as the first international public viewdata service. Direct access is

available from anywhere in the world and the service is being used in 24 countries. Local support and marketing are available in Australia, the Federal Republic of Germany, Hong Kong, the Netherlands, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States. ('Teletext' information services transmitted by broadcasting instead of the telephone network are operated by the British Broadcasting Corporation and the Independent Broadcasting Authority, see p 391).

Data Communications

British Telecom's Datel services provide for transmission of information for computers and other automatic processors at speeds from 200 up to 9,600 bits a second over the public telephone network and up to 48,000 bits a second on private networks. Datel services are available internationally at speeds up to 2,400 bits a second. The services consist of a suitable telegraph or telephone line and, when necessary, a modem (which converts digital signals into voice frequencies for transmission). In 1980 British Telecom started a commercial packet switching service for computer data, and in 1981 this was extended to all the main centres in Britain. A packet switching service is also available for computer communications with a number of other countries including Canada, the Federal Republic of Germany, Japan and the United States, and was extended to several more countries during 1982.

Telex

The telex service is fully automatic. Customers can dial direct to more than 170 countries and over 99 per cent of all international calls are dialled direct. Britain's first computer-controlled telex exchange handling international automatic calls was installed in London in 1978 and a second was brought into operation in June 1982. Teletex, a very fast form of telex capable of transmitting messages at up to 3,500 words a minute (as against 80 for telex), will be inaugurated later in 1982.

Telegrams

International telegrams are transmitted through a computer-controlled Telegram Retransmission Centre in London. It is one of the largest in the world, and has direct access via satellite, cable and radio circuits to over 87 terminals in 81 countries.

Developments

British Telecom is developing several new telecommunications services. At the beginning of 1982 it inaugurated a new range of digital transmission services known as X-Stream. They comprise MegaStream and KiloStream (private circuit services), SwitchStream (a switched digital service in two versions, the first of which is in operation as the public packet switched service, see above and SatStream (a service due to start in 1984, which is intended for private business telecommunications across Western Europe and will use small-dish aerials linked by microwave radio beams to two European communications satellites).

Optical fibres (very thin strands of glass capable of carrying large numbers of telephone calls simultaneously) are being installed in the telephone cable network. They are expected to result in substantial savings as they are smaller than conventional cables and require less amplifying equipment to boost long-distance calls. By August 1982 over 25,000 kilometres (15,500 miles) of fibre had been ordered, made up into 3,250 kilometres (2,020 miles) of cable. Over 750 kilometres (470 miles) of cable have been brought into service including the world's longest optical fibre link, stretching 205 kilometres (127 miles) from London to Birmingham, with the remainder due to begin operation by 1984-85.

British Telecom has an extensive research and development programme, amounting to some £158 million in 1981–82, mostly carried out at its research centre at Martlesham Heath (Suffolk).

THE POST OFFICE

The Post Office, founded in 1635, pioneered postal services and was the first to issue adhesive postage stamps as proof of advance payment for mail. The Royal Mail provides deliveries to 22 million addresses and handles more than 35 million letters and parcels each working day (10,000 million items a year). Mail is collected from over 100,000 posting boxes, as well as from post offices and large postal users. The Post Office has a monopoly on the conveyance of letters, but under the British Telecommunications Act 1981 the Secretary of State for Industry has the power to suspend the monopoly in certain areas or for certain categories of mail and to license others to provide competing services. The Government has relaxed the monopoly on express mail, the transfer of mail between document exchanges and the delivery of Christmas cards by charities.

Mechanisation of mail handling is in progress and 50 of the 84 offices which will eventually take over the work of hundreds of sorting offices handling letters manually are in operation. All addresses in Britain have a postcode and the British system is the most sophisticated in the world, allowing mechanised sorting down to part of a street on a postman's round and, in some cases, to an individual address. Some 35 large parcel centres, each serving a group of counties, have taken over the work of 1,200 offices which handled parcels manually.

There are 22,500 post offices, of which 1,600 are operated directly by the Post Office and the remainder on an agency basis by sub-postmasters. Besides using postal and National Girobank facilities at a post office, a person may, among other transactions, draw a pension or a family allowance, buy a dog licence or television licence, renew a motor vehicle licence, obtain a British visitor's passport, buy national insurance stamps, and use the facilities of the National Savings Bank. In much of its counter service the Post Office acts as agent for government departments and local authorities.

Specialist Services

The Post Office provides a range of specialist services. 'Datapost', a door-to-door delivery service, has overnight links throughout Britain and international services to 21 countries including most of Europe, North America and the People's Republic of China. An 'Expresspost' messenger service provides a rapid delivery within or between 29 main cities and towns. Intelpost, the world's first international public facsimile transmission service sending letters and other documents by satellite, was inaugurated in 1980 between London and Toronto. The system has been expanded to provide high-speed electronic mail links between 50 towns and cities in Britain as well as to and from the United States, the Netherlands and further cities in Canada. The Philatelic Bureau in Edinburgh handles about one-third of the Post Office's philatelic business, much of it involving sales to overseas collectors or dealers. The British Postal Consultancy Service offers advice and assistance on all aspects of postal business to overseas postal administrations, and over 30 countries have used its services since 1965.

As a major industrial country, Britain has a labour force with high levels of technical and commercial skill, but it is acknowledged that the increasing pace of technological change calls for even greater flexibility in the workforce and improvements in training, which are being made. With developments in microtechnology affecting much of industry, there is considerable public discussion about the balance between employment opportunities created by new technology and jobs lost as a result of increasingly rapid automation. The Government deplores the major human problems of the high levels of unemployment which Britain, in common with other industrialised countries, has suffered in recent years (in September 1982, 3.3 million or 14 per cent of the working population were unemployed), and has introduced a range of measures to provide work and mitigate hardship during a period of decline of traditional industries, which is seen as an unavoidable process in the restructuring of industry and employment on a technologically advanced basis. Market forces are considered to be a major determinant in this, but the Government plays an important role in the labour market by providing employment services; by supplementing the training undertaken by employers; by policies to promote regional development and labour mobility; by measures to alleviate unemployment and promote better use of manpower; through legislation to regulate terms and conditions of employment and improve industrial relations; and through legislation relating to health and safety at work.

TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT

The total workforce in June 1981 was 26.1 million, 60 per cent of the total population aged 16 and over. If the unemployed, the self-employed, and

Table 26: Manpower in Britain 1971-81

Thousands

Year (June)	Employees in employment ^a	Self-employed	Unemployed ^b	Armed forces	Total working population
1971	22,122	1,909	724	368	25,123
1972	22,121	1,899	804	371	25,195
1973	22,664	1,947	575	361	25,547
1974	22,789	1,925	542	345	25,601
1975	22,710	1,937	866	336	25,849
1976	22,543	1,909	1,332	336	26,120
1977	22,619	1,880	1,450	327	26,276
1978	22,757	1,868	1,446	318	26,389
1979	22,920	1,856 ^c	1,344	314	26,434
1980	22,511	1,856 ^c	1,660	323	26,350
1981	21,198	1,856 ^c	2,681	334	26,069

Source: *Employment Gazette*

^aPart-time workers are counted as full units.

^bExcluding adult students.

^cEstimates.

the armed forces are omitted from the working population, there remained 21.2 million employees (12.3 million men and 8.9 million women) in employment. The percentage of women in employment (particularly those working part-time) continues to rise, although at a reduced rate compared with previous years. The great majority of the working population work for a wage or salary, but nearly 2 million are self-employed. Despite the increase in the population of working age, the labour force has not grown significantly in the early 1980s.

The distribution of employees by industry in 1971 and 1981 is shown in Table 27. There has been a substantial change in the pattern of employment

Table 27: Analysis of Civil Employment in Britain 1971 and 1981

Industry or Service	1971		1981 ^a	
	Thousands	Per cent	Thousands	Per cent
Primary sector				
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	734	3.1	657	2.7
Mining and quarrying	397	1.7	345	1.4
Manufacturing industries				
Chemicals and allied industries	483	2.0	471	1.9
Metal manufacture	558	2.3	402	1.6
Textiles, leather and clothing	1,147	4.8	831	3.4
Engineering and allied industries	3,650	15.2	3,150	12.9
Food, drink and tobacco	777	3.2	690	2.8
Other manufactures	1,565	6.5	1,385	5.7
Other production industries				
Construction	1,594	6.6	1,672	6.9
Gas, electricity and water	377	1.6	347	1.4
Services				
Transport and communications	1,639	6.8	1,582	6.5
Distributive trades	3,088	12.9	3,159	13.0
Professional, financial, scientific and miscellaneous services ^b	6,512	27.1	8,081	33.2
National and local government service	1,509	6.3	1,596	6.5
<i>Total in civil employment</i>	24,031		24,367	
of whom employees	22,122		22,511	
Self-employed	1,909		1,856 ^c	

Source: *Department of Employment*

^aProvisional estimates.

^bExcludes private domestic service.

^cJune 1979 estimate.

The differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding.

during the last decade, with the growth of employment in service industries and its decline in manufacturing industries. New and, in some cases, cheaper services have been introduced through advances in technology, while improvements in living standards have led to an increasing demand for services. Within manufacturing, over the same period, there has been a rise in the proportion of non-manual workers from 27·4 per cent in October 1971 to 29·6 per cent in September 1981.

UNEMPLOYMENT

With some fluctuations unemployment rose sharply during the 1970s and by 1982 reached the highest level since the 1930s. While remaining relatively low in the south-east of England, it has been consistently higher in those parts of the country which have the greatest dependence on traditional industries. Government measures to assist the unemployed have been expanded for 1982-83 and are expected to cost £1,500 million.

Special emphasis has been placed on those for unemployed young people and especially school leavers, whose numbers are growing partly because of the birth-rate 'bulge' of the 1960s but mainly due to the general increase in unemployment. The main measure for young people is the Youth Opportunities Programme, which in 1982-83 will provide around 630,000 young people with work experience and training opportunities designed to improve their prospects of obtaining permanent jobs. There is also the Community Industry scheme for unemployed young people who suffer additional personal or social disadvantages.

As part of a new training initiative (see p 309) it is intended to replace the Youth Opportunities Programme in 1983 with a comprehensive Youth Training Scheme which will provide a bridge for a year between school and work for all 16-year-old school leavers. One of the ultimate aims of the new training initiative is to reach the position where all young people under 18 have the opportunity of continuing in full-time education or entering a period of planned work experience combined with work-related training and education. A Young Workers' Scheme encourages employers to take on more young people at wage rates which reflect their lack of training and relative inexperience.

While it recognises that special measures cannot achieve as much for the adult unemployed as for the young, the Government wants to ease the transition as far as possible to a situation where new jobs can be founded on sound economic development. The emphasis in adult schemes is placed on work of environmental improvement, with encouragement for projects arranged by voluntary agencies. A new nationwide scheme for the longer term unemployed, incorporating the Community Enterprise Programme, is to be introduced in October 1982. The scheme will be based upon projects for community work put forward by sponsors such as local authorities, voluntary organisations and churches. Other measures for the adult unemployed include: a scheme to encourage employers to use short-time working as an alternative to redundancies; a 'job release' scheme to encourage older workers to take early retirement and release jobs for unemployed people; a 'job introduction' scheme for disabled people; a scheme (to be introduced at the beginning of 1983) to encourage job sharing; and support for training places in industry. Experimental new enterprise allowance schemes, to encourage the growth of new businesses, have been set up in five areas; longer term unemployed people who live and work in these areas can claim an allowance of £40 a week while they start a new business. Various other government measures to stimulate economic

activity by assistance and encouragement to small firms (see p 207) and the establishment of enterprise zones (see p 171) may assist job creation.

FINDING EMPLOYMENT

In Great Britain the Department of Employment is generally responsible for employment policy, industrial relations and pay policy and for the payment of unemployment benefit, but the Manpower Services Commission (MSC) advises the Government on manpower policy issues.

Manpower Services Commission

The MSC, on which employers, employees, local authorities and educational interests are represented, is separate from the Government but accountable to the Secretaries of State for Employment, Scotland and Wales. Scottish and Welsh committees of the MSC consider special Scottish and Welsh aspects of manpower issues. Most of the MSC's activities are financed from public funds. It is advised by a network of district manpower committees on which employers, employees and other local interests are represented.

The MSC's main duty is to help people to select, train for, obtain and retain jobs, and to assist employers to obtain employees. The services in Northern Ireland are run on similar lines by the Department of Economic Development.

Employment Services

The main public employment services (other than the careers service) are provided in Great Britain by the MSC's Employment Service which provides a comprehensive service for employers needing staff and for people, whether or not already in employment, seeking jobs. It operates through a network of about 1,000 local jobcentres which handle all occupations except professional, scientific, technical and managerial, for which the MSC's Professional and Executive Recruitment is responsible. Jobcentres, where the provision of self-service facilities for job-seekers is a standard feature, have largely replaced employment offices where such facilities do not always exist.

From October 1982 registration for employment will be voluntary for all unemployed people, whether or not they wish to claim benefits. Employers will continue to notify vacancies on a voluntary basis. In the year to March 1982, 6.3 million people registered for employment, 1.8 million vacancies were notified and 1.5 million people were placed in employment; these statistics include job-seekers who were registered for work and placed in a job more than once during the year.

Services for Disabled People

The public employment service has long provided a resettlement service to disabled people. Over 500 specially trained Disablement Resettlement Officers advise on rehabilitation and training courses and on the comprehensive range of special schemes and facilities available. They can also advise employers about employing disabled people, and the grants available for adaptation to premises and equipment so that they can employ or retrain a disabled person. In 1981-82 the MSC found jobs for some 35,000 disabled people. The Disabled Persons (Employment) Act 1944 requires employers who employ 20 or more people to include 3 per cent registered disabled people within their workforce. The quota scheme has, however, become less effective over the years and is now under review. As part of its 'Fit for Work' campaign to improve the employment prospects of disabled people, the MSC has instituted a scheme of annual awards to give public recognition to firms which excel in carrying out constructive policies on the employment of disabled people.

The MSC's Employment Service runs a network of 27 Employment Rehabilitation Centres, which provide facilities for those who have been ill or injured or are handicapped to return to working fitness (some 16,000 a year). The Service also supports a number of agency centres run by local authorities and voluntary bodies specialising in the employment rehabilitation of the blind, the mentally ill and people with cerebral palsy.

Sheltered employment is provided for the severely disabled in Great Britain by Remploy Ltd, a non-profit-making company, and in Northern Ireland by Ulster Sheltered Employment Ltd, a company constituted similarly to Remploy, and by local authorities and voluntary organisations. Sheltered Employment Procurement and Consultancy Services is a unit of the MSC set up to offer consultancy, and other services, to sheltered workshops.

Geographical Mobility Schemes

In order to help to fill vacancies which cannot be filled locally, the MSC can provide grants, allowances and other financial help under the Job Search and Employment Transfer Scheme to assist people who are unemployed, or under threat of redundancy, to look for and move to jobs in other areas. The help available includes the cost of attending interviews, visiting new areas to look for work, and living away from home and moving home to the new area. The National Mobility Scheme (see p 166) makes movement easier for public sector housing tenants in England and Wales. Similar aims in Scotland are promoted by provisions in the Tenants' Rights (Scotland) Act 1980.

Professional and Executive Recruitment

Professional and Executive Recruitment (PER) is a specialist branch of the MSC which helps employers looking for professional, managerial, scientific or technical staff and assists people seeking employment at this level. PER operates nationally, through a network of offices, and offers a comprehensive recruitment service based on a weekly jobs newspaper which is issued to all enrolled job-seekers. For them the service is free, while employers are charged a fee based on the type of service used. There is a broadly similar service, known as Professional and Executive Personnel and free to both employers and candidates, in Northern Ireland.

Careers Service

Local education authorities must under the Employment and Training Act 1973 provide a careers service to include vocational guidance for people attending all educational institutions (except universities, which have their own careers service) and an employment service for those leaving them. Authorities also provide an employment service for people, especially young people, in their early years at work. They work closely with the MSC's Employment Service which also caters for those who have left school and choose to use its facilities in preference to those of the careers service.

In Northern Ireland the careers service is an integral part of the Department of Economic Development.

The MSC Careers and Occupational Information Centre publishes a wide range of material to help people looking for jobs to make an informed choice, and distributes careers literature to some 15,000 schools, careers offices and other centres.

TRAINING SERVICES

The main responsibility for carrying out industrial and commercial training lies with individual employers, but in recent years the MSC, with government support, has evolved a comprehensive strategy to help to

improve the supply of trained manpower needed by the economy, to provide opportunities for people to acquire new skills, and to improve the effectiveness of training generally. The MSC's Training Services Division is responsible for putting these programmes into effect. In 1981 the Government announced a new initiative on training, spelling out three important objectives for the 1980s and beyond: better arrangements for skilled training to agreed standards; improving the vocational education and training of all young people; and opening up more opportunities for adults to train. This was followed by a White Paper setting out the Government's plans for achieving these objectives. There will be increased incentives for employers to provide better training for young people in jobs and also a new Youth Training Scheme for young people generally, setting a target date of 1985 for recognised standards for all the main craft, technical and professional skills to replace time-serving and age-restricted apprenticeships. There will also be an 'Open Tech' programme to make training at a technical and supervisory level accessible to all adults who can benefit from it. Seven or eight major operational projects are to be commissioned by the end of 1982.

Training in Industry

There are a number of statutory industrial training boards and other industrial training organisations concerned with the promotion of training within their respective industries. Statutory industrial training boards may raise funds by a levy on employers within the industry. Following a re-appraisal of the effectiveness of the boards, their number is being reduced and will be funded entirely by the industry concerned. The Government has encouraged the development of effective voluntary training arrangements in industries where boards are being abolished.

Training Opportunities Scheme

The Training Opportunities Scheme (TOPS) complements the training given in industry and commerce by providing people aged 19 and over with the opportunity to acquire new skills. Training is carried out at the Training Services Division's own skillcentres and annexes and at many colleges and employers' establishments. Skillcentre courses concentrate mainly on engineering, construction and automotive trades and those elsewhere on clerical and commercial, management, technician and other skills. Special priority has been given to expanding and developing technician training and, in particular, electronics engineering courses biased towards microprocessor applications. In all, about 500 different courses are available in a wide range of occupations. Trainees are paid allowances which vary with domestic responsibilities and may receive, among other things, travelling expenses and lodging and meals allowances. Some 61,000 adults were trained under TOPS in 1981-82.

Training Services to Industry

Through its training services to industry the MSC provides training in the construction and engineering trades designed to equip selected employees with new or improved skills of direct and immediate benefit to their companies. This training, specially tailored to the employer's needs, is carried out either at the local skillcentre or in the company's own workshop. The MSC also provides regular courses in instructional techniques for skilled craftsmen and programmes of training in supervisory skills in the broad areas of leadership and safety. Training services at skillcentres and courses at instructor training colleges are also available to trainees from overseas.

CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT

Britain has been a pioneer in the introduction of protective legislation for the safety, health and welfare of employees. The determination by statute of minimum wages, holidays and holiday pay is limited to certain trades and industries where the organisation of employers or workers, or both, is inadequate to negotiate collective agreements and to ensure their observance. The Employment Protection (Consolidation) Act 1978 provides considerable safeguards for employees in their terms of employment.

An employer must give employees written information on their terms and conditions of employment, the disciplinary rules applicable to them and the procedure available to employees wishing to raise complaints; minimum periods of notice when employment is to be terminated are also laid down for both employers and employees. Employees with a minimum period of service of two years are entitled to lump-sum redundancy payments if their jobs cease to exist (for example, because of technological improvements or a fall in demand) and their employers cannot offer suitable alternative work, the cost being partly met from a fund subscribed to by both sides of industry. Protection against unfair dismissal is provided by machinery under which an employee who has been in continuous employment for one year or more may complain against an employer of unfair dismissal, and, if successful, obtain reinstatement, re-engagement or compensation; under the Employment Act 1980, however, new employees in companies employing 20 or fewer people must be employed for two years before they have the right to complain of unfair dismissal. Legal support is given to the right to trade union organisation by making it unfair to dismiss a person because of membership or participation in the activities of an independent trade union; rights of employees are also protected in regard to penalisation short of dismissal because of trade union membership or activities. Other rights include limited payment when work is not available for reasons other than as a result of trade dispute, and maternity rights for female employees, including protection from dismissal because of pregnancy, time off for antenatal care, maternity pay for the first six weeks of absence, and the right, within certain limits, to return to work after confinement.

Immigrant Workers

In general, people coming to Britain for employment need a work permit issued by the Department of Employment. People admitted as holders of work permits may change their jobs only with the approval of the Department of Employment but the Home Office will consider an application to remove the conditions attached to their stay after four years in approved employment, and, if granted, a worker may change employment without restriction. Among other conditions, work permits are issued only for work requiring a recognised professional qualification, or a high degree of skill or experience, where the Department of Employment is satisfied that the worker is necessary and there is no suitable worker in Britain or in other European Community countries to fill the post, and where the wages and conditions are not less favourable than for similar work. In general, the age limits for permits in most categories are 23–54 years. People coming for certain kinds of specialist employment (for example, doctors or dentists taking up professional appointments; ministers of religion; representatives of overseas newspapers, news agencies or broadcasting organisations; the self-employed) do not require work permits but may require entry clearances issued by a British Consulate or High Commission.

Permits are also issued under the Training and Work Experience

Scheme for nationals of countries outside the European Community who are undertaking limited periods of training or work experience leading to the acquisition of a particular occupational skill or qualification and to young people from outside the European Community to undertake short periods of employment to broaden their industrial or commercial experience and, if appropriate, to improve their knowledge of English.

European Community workers entering another member state have the same rights as nationals of that state as regards facilities of the national employment services, pay and working conditions, trade union rights, vocational training and retraining facilities, access to housing and property, and social security and industrial injury benefits.

Discrimination

The Race Relations Act 1976 (see p 29) makes it unlawful to discriminate on grounds of colour, race, nationality (including citizenship) or ethnic or national origin, in employment, training and related matters. The Department of Employment operates a Race Relations Employment Advisory Service with advisers based in the main areas where ethnic minorities have settled. Its general aim is to promote equal opportunity in employment and its advisers offer help and guidance to employers and unions on a wide range of issues which arise in the employment of a multiracial workforce.

Employment of Women and Children

Legislation forbids any employment of children under 14 years of age, and employment in any industrial undertaking of children who have not reached the statutory minimum school-leaving age (16); of women and young people underground in mines and in certain other dangerous occupations (for example, certain processes connected with lead manufacture); and of women in factories and workshops within four weeks after childbirth. It also limits and defines the permissible hours of employment for women and young people.

The employment provisions of the Sex Discrimination Act (see p 28) make it unlawful to discriminate on the grounds of sex or marital status in employment, training and related matters. The Equal Pay Act 1970 requires that a woman doing the same or broadly similar work as a man, or work that has been given equal value by job evaluation, should receive equal pay and conditions of employment.

Earnings

Pay for manual occupations, and increasingly for non-manual occupations, is normally set by collective bargaining (see p 317). In a small number of industries and trades legally enforceable minimum rates are set by wages councils.

Basic rates of pay vary widely, and in private industry rates paid locally often exceed the rates specified in national agreements. Higher rates are usually paid for overtime and shift work, and weekly earnings may be further increased by incentive bonus schemes. Piecework, or payment-by-results, is still common, though of declining importance as production methods in many industries increasingly influence the pace of work.

According to the latest annual survey conducted by the Department of Employment into the earnings and hours of work of manual workers, the average weekly earnings in April 1981 of full-time male workers aged 21 and over were, including overtime, £140.50, while for full-time female workers aged 18 and over they were £91.40. Women's earnings are thus markedly lower than those of men, partly because on average they work shorter hours, with less overtime paid at premium rates, and partly because they tend to be concentrated in the less well-paid jobs.

Remuneration in commercial, technical and professional careers is normally by annual salary paid monthly, often on a scale carrying annual increments. Starting salaries may be in the range of £3,000 to £3,500 (lower for 16- to 18-year-old trainees and higher for some graduates entering industry). Most of the senior posts in business, the professions and the Civil Service command salaries in the range of £14,000 to £20,000 a year gross before tax. The posts with salaries in the range of £20,000 to £50,000 a year include those of Cabinet Ministers, top-ranking judicial appointments, the highest positions in government departments and the largest municipal authorities, editors of daily newspapers, leading members of professions and in the higher managerial posts in industry, commerce and banking. Salaries of chairmen of major companies may exceed £75,000 a year gross, and other people such as star entertainers often receive more through fees or fixed contracts. The range of net incomes in the country as a whole is reduced by a system of progressive direct taxation.

Hours of Work

The basic working week in Britain is in the range 37·5–40 hours for manual work and 35–38 for non-manual work; a five-day week is usually worked. Actual hours worked in manual occupations differ from their basic hours; in 1981 they were 44 for men compared with 39·5 for women. Men and women in non-manual occupations generally work less overtime than manual workers.

National legislation limits and defines permissible hours of work for women and young people in industrial work—the maximum, with limited exceptions, being 48 hours a week and 10 hours a day (9 hours a day for 6-day-week workers) in premises covered by the Factories Act for adult women over 18 and young people between 16 and 18. The employment of women and young people at night is in principle prohibited in industrial undertakings, except for young men over 16 working in some continuous-process industries (subject to certain conditions). The Health and Safety Executive can make exemptions from these restrictions to maintain or increase efficiency. In general, the hours of work of adult men, or of people not working in factories, are not restricted by statute.

Holidays with Pay

Apart from industries where conditions are controlled by wages councils (see p 319), there are no general statutory entitlements to holidays and holiday entitlements are normally determined by collective agreements. These generally provide for at least four weeks' paid holiday a year, and more than 60 per cent of manual workers covered by agreements have entitlements of more than four weeks. Non-manual workers tend to have longer holidays than manual workers. Additional holidays, dependent upon length of service, are also quite common.

Additional Benefits

Additional benefits exist in varying degrees. About half of employees in employment are covered by pension schemes provided by their employers. Many employees are also covered by occupational sick pay schemes which are additional or complementary to the state schemes, and by schemes to provide private medical treatment. A smaller number are covered by schemes for redundancy payments above the statutory minimum. Such benefits are more usual among clerical and professional employees receiving a standard salary than among manual workers, who are more likely to have the opportunity to augment their pay. Employees may have use of a company car and some firms provide profit-sharing and

share-saving schemes. In accord with its view that share ownership and profit-sharing can help in developing employees' understanding of, and commitment to, business and industry, the Government has extended fiscal measures designed to encourage profit-sharing.

Social security benefits, which include unemployment, sickness and industrial injury benefits, are described in the Social Welfare chapter.

Employers' Health Services

Many employers voluntarily maintain medical services for their employees over and above the statutory requirements. The big employers, including the State and the boards of nationalised industries, have taken the lead but a number of smaller factories also provide medical services and in a few cases have joined together in group medical services.

Other Amenities

An increasing number of firms pay part or all of the cost of recreational facilities. Some have their own rehabilitation centres or support convalescent homes. The provision of low-priced meals at the place of employment has become usual in large undertakings and quite common in smaller ones. Many offices and shops which are unable to provide canteen facilities for their staff have adopted luncheon voucher schemes.

Human Relations in Industry

Research has been sponsored or conducted by the Social Science Research Council and the Medical Research Council into the factors affecting human relationships and efficiency in industry. A number of independent bodies also research and advise on matters such as management and job satisfaction. The Department of Employment's Work Research Unit, advised by a steering group chaired by a minister on which the CBI (for industry) and the TUC (for trade unions) are represented, advises employers and trade unions on improving the quality of working life.

TRADE UNIONS

In nearly all industries and occupations some workers (and in some industries nearly all workers) are organised into trade unions. These have grown up gradually and independently over many years and, consequently, their form and organisation vary considerably, as do their traditions. During the 1970s trade unionism increased particularly among clerical, supervisory, technical and administrative workers but rising unemployment has led to a decline in union membership, especially in unions representing manual workers. Trade unions may be organised either by occupation (for example, they may recruit clerks or fitters wherever employed) or by industry. Some are based on a combination of both principles. In some companies membership of the relevant trade union is required by agreement between the employer and union ('closed shops'). At the end of 1980 the total membership of British trade unions was 13 million. There were 438 unions, but nearly 80 per cent of all trade unionists were in the 25 largest unions, each with a membership of 100,000 or over. Among the largest unions are the Transport and General Workers Union (1.9 million members), the Amalgamated Union of Engineering Workers (1.3 million) and the General and Municipal Workers Union (916,000); of the non-manual workers' unions, which have grown considerably in size in recent years while manual workers' unions have tended to decline, the largest is the National and Local Government Officers' Association (782,000 members).

The Certification Officer appointed under the Employment Protection

Act 1975 is required to maintain a list of trade unions. To be eligible for entry on the list a trade union must show that it consists wholly or mainly of workers and that its principal purposes include the regulation of relations between workers and employers, or between workers and employers' associations. Certain rights and privileges are reserved for independent trade unions.

The central organisation of most large unions consists of a national executive council, usually elected by and responsible to the annual conference of delegates from local branches. Between conferences, councils are the highest authority of unions, and carry out policy decisions made by the conference delegates. Most unions also have regional and district organisations. At the level of the individual member there are local branches, covering one or more workplaces. Members may attend branch meetings, make suggestions about terms and conditions of employment, discuss the work of the union, and take part in the election of the union's officers. The branch takes action on certain matters considered to be entirely, or mainly, of local interest and forwards its views on wider issues for action by the union's national or regional bodies. The organising of members in individual places of work, and the negotiation of local pay agreements with managements at the factory or plant, may be done by full-time district officials of the union, or, increasingly, by 'shop stewards', who are chosen by their fellow members in the place of work to represent them. Trade unions vary in the degree to which shop stewards are integrated into their organisation. Where two or more unions have members in the same workplace, shop stewards' committees may be formed to discuss matters of common concern.

Many unions provide 'strike pay' for members involved in official industrial action which may vary from an amount equal to full net pay to a largely nominal sum. They also provide legal advice for members who suffer injury or contract diseases at work, and may pay members' legal costs where a case for compensation goes to court. Some unions pay benefits in case of illness, accident, death and retirement (additional to those payable under the national insurance scheme) financed out of membership contributions. Many trade unions are affiliated to the Labour Party. Any trade union wishing to use money for political purposes must set up a separate fund, subject to special rules, one of which must allow any member who objects to contributing to the fund to opt out.

Trades Union Congress

In Britain the national centre of the trade union movement is the Trades Union Congress (TUC), which was founded in 1868. The TUC's objects are to promote the interests of its affiliated organisations and to improve the economic and social conditions of working people. Its affiliated membership comprises 108 trade unions which together represent 11.6 million workpeople, or 90 per cent of all trade unionists in Britain, and it exercises power less through a formal structure than through influence. The TUC deals with all general questions which concern trade unions both nationally and internationally and gives assistance on questions relating to particular trades or industries. Through membership of the National Economic Development Council (see p 190), it participates in discussions relating to the national economy. There are eight TUC regional councils for England, and a Wales Trades Union Council.

The annual Congress convenes in September to discuss matters of concern to trade unionists and to employees generally. It elects a General

Council which represents it between Congresses and is responsible for carrying out Congress decisions, watching economic and social developments, providing educational and advisory services to unions, and presenting to the Government the trade union viewpoint on economic, social and industrial issues. The council is also empowered to mediate in inter-union disputes in certain circumstances, and uses its authority to deal with unauthorised and unconstitutional stoppages of work, as well as official disputes.

The TUC, as well as many individual unions, conducts extensive educational services for members, mainly concerned with industrial subjects, trade unionism and the principles and practice of industrial relations.

The TUC plays an active part in international trade union activity, through its affiliation to the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions and the European Trade Union Confederation. It also nominates the British workers' delegation to the annual International Labour Conference.

Scotland and Northern Ireland

Trade unions in Scotland also have their own national central body, the Scottish Trades Union Congress, which in many respects is similar in constitution and function to the TUC. Trade unions in Northern Ireland are represented by the Northern Ireland Committee of the Irish Congress of Trade Unions (ICTU), though the majority of trade unionists in Northern Ireland belong to unions based in Great Britain. Almost 90 per cent of Northern Ireland trade unionists are members of organisations affiliated to the ICTU, while the majority belong to unions which are also affiliated to the TUC.

Legal Framework

The Trade Union and Labour Relations Act 1974 defines the status of trade unions and employers' associations and sets out certain legal requirements which they must observe. The Act confers immunities on those organising actions taken in support of a trade dispute, allows peaceful picketing, and also provides that collective agreements shall not be legally enforceable unless they are written agreements and specifically provide for this.

The Employment Protection Act 1975 placed the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service on a statutory basis, provided for the appointment of a Certification Officer and for the setting up of the Central Arbitration Committee. It also established an Employment Appeal Tribunal to hear appeals concerning decisions of the Certification Officer and of industrial tribunals. (Industrial tribunals are independent judicial bodies which deal, in general, with complaints from employees on infringements of individual rights under a number of Acts concerning, for example, redundancy payments, contracts of employment, equal pay, unfair dismissals and sex discrimination.)

The Employment Act 1980 and 1982 Employment Bill seek to redress the balance between rights and responsibilities in industrial relations, seen by the Government as having shifted too much against the interests of employers and employees in favour of the trade unions. The 1980 Act enables the Government to make funds available to encourage the wider use of secret union ballots and to produce codes of practice to promote good industrial relations. It limits lawful picketing to the picket's own place of work and restricts the scope for secondary action such as blacking and sympathetic strikes. It provides greater protection for the individual in relation to the closed shop and removes legal protection from any new

closed shop which has not been approved in a secret ballot by 80 per cent of the employees affected. It makes a number of changes to employment protection legislation, particularly to help small firms. As provided for in the Act, the Government has published codes of practice on the conduct of picketing and the closed shop.

The 1982 Bill is designed to carry the process further. It would increase the compensation for employees unfairly dismissed for non-membership or membership of a union and introduce compensation (from government funds) for certain employees dismissed because of non-membership of a union in a closed shop between 1974 and 1980, when they had no protection. The Bill would also remove legal protection from all closed shops (not only from new ones, as in the 1980 Act) where within one or two years of the legislation taking effect the closed shop had not been supported in a secret ballot held in the previous five years by 80 per cent of the employees affected or by 85 per cent of those voting in the ballot. Where legal protection was removed, any dismissal for non-membership of a union would be unfair. Terms in commercial contracts specifying the use of union labour only would be made unenforceable and discrimination on the basis of union membership in the awarding of contracts would be made unlawful. Industrial action which sought to persuade employers to discriminate in this way or to interfere with the supply of goods or services on grounds of union membership would be unlawful. The Bill would also end the position which gives trade unions almost complete immunity from all civil actions by bringing their position into line with that of their individual officials and members. This would mean that trade unions would have immunity only for action taken in furtherance or contemplation of a lawful trade dispute. There are also proposed changes to the definition of a trade dispute upon which immunity for civil actions depends. Disputes between employer and employees (that is, most industrial action) would continue to qualify as lawful trade disputes. Disputes which would become unlawful are those where there is no disagreement between employer and his employees, or those which have little to do with the normal subject of a trade dispute (such as terms and conditions of work) or concern matters wholly outside Britain, and other such disputes which do not involve employers.

Northern Ireland has a broadly similar but separate system of industrial relations legislation.

EMPLOYERS' ORGANISATIONS

Many employers in Britain are members of employers' organisations, some of which are wholly concerned with labour matters although others are also concerned with commercial matters or trade associations. The primary aims of such organisations are to help to establish suitable terms and conditions of employment, including a sound wage structure and proper standards of safety, health and welfare; to promote good relations with employees and the efficient use of manpower; and to provide means of settling any disputes which may arise. Combined employers' organisations and trade associations may also represent members' points of view as manufacturers or traders to the Government on commercial matters.

Employers' organisations are usually organised on an industry basis rather than a product basis, for example, the Engineering Employers' Federation. A few are purely local in character or deal with a section of an industry; most are national in scope and are concerned with the whole of an industry. In some of the main industries there are local or regional

organisations combined into national federations, while in others, within which different firms are engaged in making different principal products, there is a complex structure with national and regional federations for parts of an industry as well as for the industry as a whole. Altogether there are some 150 national employers' organisations, which negotiate the national collective agreements for their industry with the trade unions concerned; most of these national organisations belong to the Confederation of British Industry.

Confederation of British Industry

The Confederation of British Industry (CBI) is the largest central employers' organisation in Britain, representing directly or indirectly some 300,000 companies which together employ 12 million people. It exists primarily to ensure that Government, national and international institutions and the public understand the needs, intentions and problems of businessmen. Membership ranges from the smallest to the largest companies, private and nationalised, and covers a broad spectrum which includes manufacturing, agriculture, construction, distribution, mining, finance, retailing and insurance. Most national employers' organisations, trade associations and some chambers of commerce are members. Policy is determined by a council of 400 members, and there is a permanent staff of 350 including regional offices and an office in Brussels. The CBI is the British member of the Union of Industries of the European Community. The CBI nominates the employers' representatives on the National Economic Development Council, and on the Manpower Services Commission, the Health and Safety Commission and the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

The structure of industrial relations in Britain has been established mainly on a voluntary basis. The system is based chiefly on the organisation of employees and employers into trade unions and employers' associations, and on freely conducted negotiations between them at all levels. The State is ready to provide assistance where the organisation of employees, employers, or both, is inadequate to conduct negotiations, or where the usual methods of resolving disagreements have failed. The number of stoppages of work due to industrial disputes in 1981 was the lowest since 1941, while the number of working days lost was well below the 1980 figure and less than a third of the annual average for the period 1971-80. Because of the publicity they receive, strikes are commonly thought to occur much more frequently in Britain than in other countries. International comparisons show, however, that Britain's record on industrial disputes is better than those of a number of other major industrial countries, ranking about half-way in a list of 19 countries drawn up by the International Labour Office.

Collective Bargaining and Joint Consultation

In most industries terms and conditions of employment and procedures for the conduct of industrial relations are settled by negotiation and agreement between employers and trade unions. Agreements may be industry-wide, supplemented as necessary by local agreements in companies or factories (plant bargaining). In the public sector, agreements are generally reached at industry level. In some industries, companies and factories, negotiations are conducted by meetings held when necessary, while in others, joint negotiating councils or committees have been established on a permanent basis. The scope of the various joint bodies (from the national joint in-

dustrial councils for whole industries to the works councils and committees in individual workplaces) varies widely, and has frequently been extended to cover such additional matters as production plans, absenteeism, training, education and welfare. Normally these arrangements for collective bargaining suffice to settle all questions which are raised, but provision is sometimes made for matters not so settled to be referred for settlement to independent conciliation or arbitration. The Employment Protection Act 1975 made provision for information needed for collective bargaining purposes to be disclosed by employers to trade unions, subject to certain safeguards.

There are standing arrangements for consultation at national level between the Government, the TUC, the CBI, and the nationalised industries through the National Economic Development Council on matters in which employers and workers have a common interest. The operation of collective bargaining has from time to time been restricted in an attempt to control inflation.

*Advisory,
Conciliation and
Arbitration Service*

The Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service (ACAS) has the general duty of promoting the improvement of industrial relations, and in particular of encouraging the extension of collective bargaining and the development and (where necessary) reform of collective bargaining machinery. ACAS is under the control of a council consisting of an independent chairman and nine other members experienced in industrial relations, of which three are nominated after consultation with the CBI, three after consultation with the TUC, and three are independent. The service conciliates in industrial disputes in both the public and private sectors of industry on a voluntary basis where this is thought to be helpful. ACAS assistance is sought in about 2,000 disputes each year. In addition, there are requests for ACAS to provide arbitration in a further 250–300 disputes, which it may do either by appointing single arbitrators or boards of arbitration or by referring cases to the Central Arbitration Committee (see below).

Although ACAS has prime responsibility for intervention in disputes, the Secretary of State for Employment retains powers to appoint a court of inquiry or committee of investigation into a dispute, but these are rarely used.

The service gives advice on all aspects of industrial relations and personnel management. It conducts surveys to diagnose the causes of industrial relations problems and suggests remedial action to management and trade unions or employee representatives. It carries particular responsibility for attempting conciliation on complaints of infringement of individual employee rights (such as individual complaints of unfair dismissal, complaints under the Equal Pay Act 1970 and complaints on employment matters under the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 and the Race Relations Act 1976). The service is also required to inquire into questions concerning wages councils (see p 139) referred by the Secretary of State for Employment.

The Central Arbitration Committee is an independent body working nationally in industrial relations. It provides boards of arbitration for the settlement of trade disputes referred to it with the consent of the parties concerned; adjudicates on claims made under the disclosure of information provisions of the Employment Protection Act and the Equal Pay Act; and decides questions of compliance with the Fair Wages Resolution (concern-

ing wages and conditions of employment to be observed by government contractors), and similar 'fair wage' provisions in a number of statutes.

*Office of
Manpower
Economics*

The Office of Manpower Economics is an independent non-statutory organisation responsible for servicing independent review bodies which advise on sectors of public service pay where negotiating machinery is not appropriate. These are the Top Salaries Review Body (covering the higher judiciary, senior civil servants and senior officers of the armed forces), the Armed Forces Pay Review Body (covering more junior ranks) and the Doctors' and Dentists' Review Body. The Office also services the Pharmacists Review Panel, the Police Negotiating Board, the Civil Service Arbitration Tribunal, and other bodies of inquiry, convened as necessary.

**Statutory
Negotiating
Machinery**

In a small number of industries and trades where the organisation of employers or employees or both is not strong enough to provide a basis for successful voluntary arrangements, there are statutory wage-regulating bodies, known as wages councils. These are composed of equal numbers of representatives of employers and employees in the respective sectors of industry, with three independent members. Wages councils publish proposals for minimum remuneration, holidays, holiday remuneration and other terms and conditions of employment. After considering any representations the councils make orders giving statutory force to such proposals. The Department of Employment's Wages Inspectorate enforces the provisions of these wages orders. About 2.7 million workers are covered by such arrangements.

The Secretary of State for Employment has power to convert a wages council into a statutory joint industrial council (SJIC), a body which functions in the same ways as a wages council, except that it has no independent members. Such conversion is intended to assist in the development of collective bargaining, an SJIC being seen as a half-way stage between the statutory system and full voluntary collective bargaining.

Agricultural wages boards (there are boards for England and Wales, for Scotland and for Northern Ireland) perform similar functions in relation to employment in agriculture.

**HEALTH AND
SAFETY
AT WORK**

Employers have a duty at civil and criminal law to take reasonable care of their employees, and others affected by their work activities, and to provide a safe system of working, while employees have a duty of care towards each other and also to take care of their own safety. The principal legislation is the Health and Safety at Work etc Act 1974. Its purpose is to secure the health, safety and welfare of people at work and to provide for the protection of the public whose health and safety might be affected by work activities. The Act places general duties on everyone concerned with work activities, including employers, the self-employed, employees; manufacturers, designers, suppliers, importers of articles and substances for use at work; and those in control of premises.

The 1974 Act is superimposed on earlier health and safety legislation, such as the Mines and Quarries Act 1954, the Factories Act 1961 and the Offices, Shops and Railway Premises Act 1963 and the various regulations made under them. The earlier legislation imposes specific obligations and standards on, for example, occupiers of particular types of premises or employers engaged in particular activities and covers such matters as the

fencing of machinery, precautions against the exposure of people to toxic dusts and gases, precautions against fire, dangerous substances and special risks, the safe condition of premises, and cleanliness, lighting, temperature and ventilation.

Some of the earlier legislation was replaced immediately by the 1974 Act, but the remainder continued in force pending its progressive replacement by regulations and codes of practice approved by the Health and Safety Commission. Replacement regulations have been introduced to require the notification of accidents and dangerous occurrences and to control work with lead, each set being supported by either an approved code of practice or other guidance material, and there are others in the course of development.

The Health and Safety Commission

The Health and Safety Commission, established by the Health and Safety at Work Act and accountable to Parliament through the Secretary of State for Employment, has responsibility for developing policies, including guidance, codes of practice, or proposals for regulations to further the implementation of the Act. In the case of proposals for changes in legislation, the Commission consults the people who will be affected by them and makes recommendations to the Secretary of State concerned. The Commission has an independent chairman, three members appointed after consultation with the Confederation of British Industry, three after consultation with the Trades Union Congress, and two after consultation with local authority associations. The Commission has three subject advisory committees (on toxic substances, on dangerous substances and the Medical Advisory Committee), two committees concerned with particular hazards (major hazards and nuclear installations), and nine industry advisory committees, for agriculture, ceramics, construction, foundries, health services, oil, paper and board, printing and railways.

The Health and Safety Executive

The Act also set up the Health and Safety Executive, which includes government inspectorates covering a range of work activities: the Factory Inspectorate (which also deals with a large number of activities outside factories such as hospitals and educational establishments) and inspectorates for mines and quarries, agriculture, major sources of industrial air pollution, nuclear installations, and hazardous installations. It also includes the Employment Medical Advisory Service and the Research and Laboratory Services Division. The inspectors, who have powers of entry and enforcement, seek compliance with health and safety legislation in individual workplaces and give advice. The Employment Medical Advisory Service provides a nationwide service of advice on the medical aspects of employment problems to employers, employees, trade unions, doctors and others. It carries out medical examinations of workers in hazardous occupations and surveys of employment hazards, advises the staff of the Manpower Services Commission on medical aspects of job placement, rehabilitation and industrial training, and co-operates with school medical officers and careers officers in helping to solve the employment problems of handicapped school leavers.

The Research and Laboratory Services Division provides scientific and medical support and testing services, and carries out research both in its own laboratories and through universities and other institutions on a contract basis, often jointly funded by industry. Areas of study include explosion risks, fires, protective equipment, methods for monitoring and measuring airborne contaminants, occupational medicine and hygiene, and the safety of engineering systems.

Health and safety legislation is enforced in most offices and shops by inspectors appointed by local authorities, working under guidance from the Health and Safety Executive. Some other official bodies work under agency agreements with the Health and Safety Executive, for example, the Railway Inspectorate (concerned with worker safety on railways), the Industrial Pollution Inspectorate for Scotland and the Department of Energy (concerned with health and safety in the oil and gas industry).

A basic principle underlying the Health and Safety at Work Act is that employers, in consultation with their employees, should have the responsibility of working out health and safety arrangements, within the broad obligations of the law, to suit their own workplaces. Employers with five or more employees must draw up a written policy for safety and health, including arrangements for implementing it and keeping it up to date, and communicate it to their employees. Recognised and independent trade unions may appoint safety representatives to be the employees' official channel for representation and consultation over safety matters. Two safety representatives may make a written request to the employer to establish a safety committee, which must then be set up within three months.

Northern Ireland

In Northern Ireland, the Health and Safety Agency, roughly corresponding to the Health and Safety Commission, and an Employment Medical Advisory Service, were set up by the Health and Safety at Work (NI) Order 1978. The Northern Ireland Department of Economic Development, through its Factory Inspectorate, is responsible for seeking compliance with health and safety legislation, which is broadly similar to that for Great Britain.

Through the public finance system government raises money from individuals and companies by taxation, borrowing and other means, and spends it on behalf of the community in the provision of goods and services such as education, health and defence, in payments to people and organisations, and in capital investment. The term public finance also covers the raising of revenue and its expenditure by local authorities and certain other public bodies and the financial relationship between these agencies and central government.

The broad principle of public finance is based on an assessment of expenditure needs, accompanied by proposals for raising the required amounts of money. Public expenditure plans are normally published annually, in recent years at the same time as the Budget, which consists of proposals for changes in taxation necessary to raise the revenue to finance public spending. Tax revenue and other receipts are paid into the Consolidated Fund, the Government's account at the Bank of England from which most of the Government's sterling expenditure is financed. Any excess of expenditure over receipts is met by borrowing, most of it from the National Loans Fund, also operated as an official sterling account at the Bank of England.

THE PUBLIC SECTOR

The public expenditure planning total includes the planned current and capital expenditure of central government and local authorities (collectively known as general government), finance for the nationalised industries and the capital expenditure of certain other public corporations. This definition is used for published figures of public expenditure totals, in particular for the Government's annual public expenditure White Paper. The planning total also includes a contingency reserve to cover essential unforeseen or unquantifiable expenditure. It does not include payment of debt interest. The estimated outturn for the 1981-82 planning total was £106,000 million; net debt interest is estimated to have been £6,200 million.

Expenditure by central government (including finance for the nationalised industries) accounted for just under three-quarters of the planning total in 1981-82 and that by local authorities for about one-quarter. Social security accounted for 27 per cent of the total, while health and personal social services and defence each accounted for 12 per cent. The planning total for 1982-83 was £115,000 million, which incorporates the changes made in the 1982 Budget to the figure given in the public expenditure White Paper of March 1982. The total (excluding the Budget changes) is analysed in the diagram on p 323.

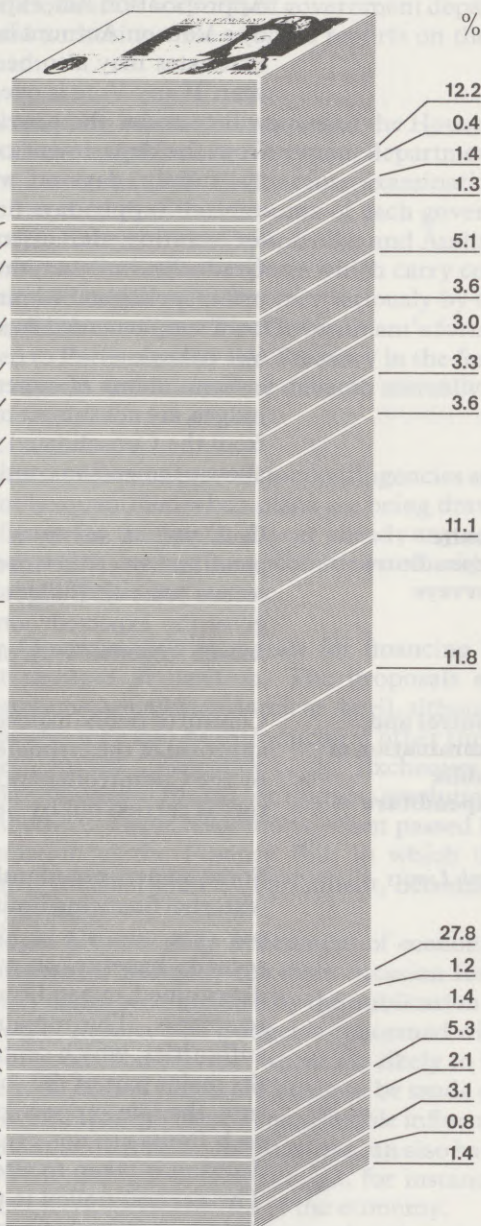
Current expenditure in 1981-82 accounted for 89 per cent of total expenditure (excluding certain minor adjustments) and capital expenditure for 11 per cent. The major item of current expenditure was wages and salaries, closely followed by grants to individuals (mainly social security benefits). Nearly half of capital expenditure consisted of fixed investment.

The planned rate of increase of public expenditure between 1981-82 and 1982-83 is 8.5 per cent, with increases of 5.1 per cent in 1983-84 and 6 per cent in 1984-85. Public expenditure as a proportion of gross domestic product (GDP) at market prices in 1981-82 is estimated at 45 per cent.

Planned Public Expenditure 1982-83

£000m

Defence	14.1
European Community contributions	0.5
Other overseas aid and other overseas services	1.6
Agriculture, fisheries, food and forestry	1.5
Industry, energy, trade and employment	5.8
Transport	4.2
Housing	3.5
Other environmental services	3.7
Law, order and protective services	4.1
Education, science, arts and libraries	12.8
Health and personal social services	13.6
Social security	32.0
Other public services	1.4
Common services	1.6
Scotland	6.1
Wales	2.4
Northern Ireland	3.5
Nationalised industries' total net borrowing	0.9
Contingency reserve and special sales of assets	1.7



The 1982 public expenditure White Paper expressed the plans in cash instead of the volume terms used in previous years. This change embodies the principle, already well established in the system of cash limits, that levels of service must be determined in the light of the finance available.

The Estimates

Each December government departments submit to the Treasury estimates of their cash requirements for the financial year beginning in the following April. After approval by the Treasury the Supply Estimates are presented to Parliament at the same time as the Budget (see p 325) which is introduced in March or April. They are approved in July as the annual

Appropriation Act, expenditure between April and this date being covered by a Vote on Account before the start of the financial year. Supplementary Estimates may also be presented to Parliament during the course of the year. If any Vote is overspent the Public Accounts Committee (see p 325) will consider the provision of an Excess Vote and may ask for evidence from the department concerned. In each parliamentary session there are 29 'supply' days on which the Opposition may choose the subject for debate. Supply days originally provided Parliament with an opportunity for scrutiny and discussion of government proposals for expenditure. Gradually, however, the debates evolved into general discussions of departmental policy and administration, and debates on the Supply Estimates have been supplemented by other means of controlling government expenditure (see below).

Some items of expenditure, for example, the salaries and pensions of judges, are not subject to annual approval by Parliament but are paid directly from the Consolidated Fund in accordance with Acts of Parliament which allow payments to continue from one year to the next.

Public Expenditure Surveys

Each year, a survey is made of the whole range of projected public expenditure over the medium term. This culminates in the publication (in recent years on Budget day) of the public expenditure White Paper, which gives the expected outturn for the current financial year (ending on 31 March) together with plans for the following three years.

Control and Examination of Public Expenditure

Control of public expenditure additional to control inherent in parliamentary approval of the estimates is exercised through the system of cash limits and by the Comptroller and Auditor General. Examination of public expenditure is carried out by Select Committees of the House of Commons.

Cash Limits

Some 40 per cent of public expenditure is subject to control by cash limits (external financing limits in the case of nationalised industries). Another 40 per cent consists of 'demand-determined' services (for example, social security benefits) on which, once policy and rates of payment have been determined, expenditure in the short run depends on the number of eligible recipients. The remaining 20 per cent is current expenditure of local authorities, which central government does not directly control; however, the major part of the contribution by central government to such expenditure, the rate support grant (see p 66), is subject to cash limits. Once fixed, cash limits are not usually revised during the course of the year unless a decision is taken to alter the level of provision for the service concerned. The general policy is that, if any overspending occurs, a corresponding deduction is made from the cash limit for the following year. As in the case of overspending on votes, the Public Accounts Committee may ask for evidence from the department concerned when overspending occurs.

Comptroller and Auditor General

The Comptroller and Auditor General, a crown official independent of the Government and Parliament, has two functions. As Comptroller General he has the duty to ensure that all revenue and other public money payable to the Consolidated Fund and the National Loans Fund is duly paid and that all payments out of these funds are authorised by statute. As Auditor General he audits, on behalf of the House of Commons, accounts of the transactions of the Consolidated Fund and the National Loans Fund,

Appropriation Accounts and various other accounts of government departments and statutory boards and authorities. He submits reports on these and other accounts to Parliament.

*Select Committees
of the House of
Commons*

Public expenditure is also examined by Select Committees of the House of Commons, which study in detail the activities of government departments and require the attendance of ministers and officials for cross-examination. The Public Accounts Committee considers the accounts of each government department and the reports on them of the Comptroller and Auditor General. The Committee submits to Parliament reports which carry considerable weight, and its recommendations are taken very seriously by the departments and organisations that it examines. The Government's formal reply to the reports is presented to Parliament by the Treasury in the form of a Treasury minute and the reports and minute are debated annually in the House of Commons.

**Contingency
Reserve**

Planned expenditure includes an unallocated reserve for contingencies and other requirements that cannot be quantified when plans are being drawn up. The reserve is a control figure for the financial year ahead; any new decisions to incur expenditure which cannot be accommodated within existing programmes are contained within the reserve.

THE BUDGET

The Budget incorporates the Government's proposals for financing its expenditure, particularly for changes in taxation. The proposals are announced to the House of Commons, usually in March or April, although supplementary budgetary measures may also be introduced at other times of the year. The Budget speech by the Chancellor of the Exchequer is followed by the moving of a set of Ways and Means (or Budget) resolutions in which the proposals are embodied. These resolutions, when passed by the House, become the foundation of the Finance Bill, in which the proposals are set out for detailed consideration by Parliament, becoming law as the Finance Act, usually in July.

A major function of the Budget is to act as an instrument of economic management. The Budget statement is normally the main occasion for a review of general economic policy and is accompanied by the publication of the *Financial Statement and Budget Report*. The Budget is concerned with the balance between the total of goods and services which are likely to be available to the nation and the total claims which are likely to be made on them. Through taxation the Government can exert a considerable influence on the volume of demand for goods and services; its measures can also have a broader influence on the pattern of demand and through, for instance, increasing incentives, on the long-term performance of the economy.

The bulk of taxation proposals in the Budget are concerned with changes in the rates or coverage of existing taxes, the introduction of new taxes or the abolition of existing ones and changes in the administrative machinery relating to taxation. In two cases (income tax and corporation tax), however, annual Ways and Means resolutions followed by a Finance Act clause are necessary to maintain the taxes in existence at all, since they are annual taxes. Thus a Budget at or about the beginning of each financial year is a necessity.

Changes in tax coming into effect before the Finance Bill has received Royal Assent, usually from Budget Day or from the start of the tax year, are dealt with under the Provisional Collection of Taxes Act. This enables the

Government to collect certain taxes provisionally; income tax, for example, either at the rates previously in operation or at new rates following the passage of the appropriate Ways and Means resolutions. Some changes affecting expenditure, such as increases in pensions and family allowances, are usually announced in the Budget statement. Such measures, however, are generally given effect by separate legislation, statutory instruments or administrative action. Other ways of changing taxation are by special legislation or the use of the regulator, which permits limited changes between Budgets in the rates of value added tax (by up to 25 per cent) and the main excise duties (by up to 10 per cent).

Table 28 shows estimated total revenue from taxation and other sources in 1981-82 and the forecasts for 1982-83.

SOURCES OF REVENUE

The three principal sources of tax revenue are: taxes on income, which include income tax and corporation tax; taxes on capital, which include capital transfer tax and capital gains tax; and taxes on expenditure (including taxes on the ownership or use of certain assets), which include customs and excise duties, value added tax (VAT), the national insurance surcharge, local rates (see p 66), stamp duties and licence duties (for example, on motor vehicles). Taxes on individual incomes are progressive in that larger incomes bear a proportionately higher rate of tax. The Inland Revenue assesses and collects the taxes on income and capital and the stamp duties. The Customs and Excise collects the most important taxes on expenditure (the customs and excise duties and VAT), while a variety of authorities is responsible for the collection of the remainder.

Taxes on Income

Income Tax

Income tax is imposed for the year of assessment beginning on 6 April. The basic rate of 30 per cent applies to the first £12,800 of taxable income. A rate of 40 per cent applies to the £12,801-£15,100 band of taxable income, 45 per cent to the £15,101-£19,100 band, 50 per cent to the £19,101-£25,300 band and 55 per cent to the £25,301-£31,500 band, ending with a maximum rate of 60 per cent on taxable income over £31,500. These rates apply to both earned and investment incomes. Investment incomes are also liable to a surcharge of 15 per cent on their excess over £6,250. The tax imposed on an individual is graduated by means of personal allowances (£1,565 for a single person or a wife and £2,445 for a married man) and reliefs. These are given for, among other things, premiums on a life assurance policy. As part of the business start-up scheme, certain investors in new companies are able to obtain relief on up to £20,000 invested in any one year.

In general, the income of married couples is taxed as one but a husband and wife may choose to have the wife's earnings charged separately for tax on condition that the husband receives the single instead of the married personal allowance. Any investment income is taxed jointly.

In 1982-83 a single person earning £5,000 a year pays £1,031 in income tax while a married man with the same earned income pays £767. The amount of tax payable by a single person varies from, for example, £131 on an earned annual income of £2,000 to £14,231 on one of £35,000.

Most wage and salary earners pay their income tax under a Pay as You Earn (PAYE) system whereby tax is deducted (and accounted for to the Inland Revenue) by the employer, thus enabling them to keep as up to date as possible with their tax payments.

In general, income tax is charged on all income which originates in Britain and on all income arising abroad of persons resident in Britain.

Table 28: Sources of Tax and Other Receipts 1981-82 and 1982-83

	1981-82 outturn £m	1982-83 Budget forecast £m	Percentage of total ^a
Inland Revenue^b			
Income tax ^c	28,726	30,777	37.1
Corporation tax ^d	4,926	4,850	5.9
Petroleum revenue tax	2,390	2,290	2.8
Supplementary petroleum duty	2,029	2,040	2.5
Capital gains tax	525	600	0.7
Development land tax	38	40	—
Estate duty ^e	17	10	—
Capital transfer tax	481	465	0.6
Stamp duties	797	810	1.0
Special tax on banking deposits	355	—	—
Total Inland Revenue	40,284	41,882	50.5
Customs and Excise^f			
Value added tax	12,300	14,750	17.8
Oil	4,550	5,100	6.2
Tobacco	3,325	3,525	4.3
Spirits, beer, wine, cider and perry	3,000	3,275	4.0
Betting and gaming	500	550	0.7
Car tax	525	600	0.7
Other excise duties	20	20	—
European Community own resources ^g			
Customs duties, etc	920	1,060	1.3
Agricultural levies	210	270	0.3
Total Customs and Excise	25,248	29,150	35.2
Vehicle excise duties	1,640	1,854	2.2
National Insurance surcharge	3,597	3,443	4.2
Total taxation	70,769	76,329	92.1
Miscellaneous receipts ^h	5,765	6,568	7.9
Total	76,534	82,897	100.0

Sources: *Financial Statistics and Financial Statement and Budget Report 1982-83*^aThe totals of percentages may not equal sums of the sub-totals because of rounding.^bThe breakdown for Inland Revenue taxes shows the amounts received by the Inland Revenue. The totals of these do not equal exactly the total paid into the Consolidated Fund.^cIncluding surtax. This was absorbed with income tax into a unified form of personal taxation in 1973 but sums are still due from before the time of abolition.^dReceipts include payments of advance corporation tax:

Net of repayments 2,076 2,170 2.6

^eSuperseded by capital transfer tax in 1975 but sums are still due in respect of deaths that occurred before abolition.^fThe breakdown for Customs and Excise duties is provisional and the sums of the component parts do not equal the totals exactly.^gCustoms duties and agricultural levies are accountable to the European Community as 'own resources'.^hIncludes broadcast receiving licences, interest and dividends, gas levy, oil royalties, proceeds from special sales of assets and other miscellaneous receipts.

Interest on certain British government securities belonging to persons not ordinarily resident in Britain is exempt. Britain has entered into agreements with many countries providing for relief from double taxation; where such agreements are not in force unilateral relief is often allowed. Individuals who are resident in but domiciled outside Britain and who work for non-resident employers are entitled to a special allowance under which only half of their gross salary (or three-quarters after nine years of residence) is considered for purposes of British taxation.

Corporation Tax

Companies pay corporation tax on their profits, but the amount of taxable profit is that remaining after deduction of allowances for investment and certain other costs. Only a proportion of any capital gains is included in total profits, with the result that chargeable gains as a whole are subject to a lower effective rate of tax. A company which distributes profits to its shareholders is required to make to the Inland Revenue an advance payment of corporation tax. In general, this payment is set against a company's liability to corporation tax on its income and the recipient of the distribution in respect of which the advance payment was made is entitled to a tax credit, which satisfies his or her liability to income tax at the basic rate.

The rate of corporation tax is fixed retrospectively in the Budget for the past financial year; for the financial year 1981 (1 April 1981–31 March 1982) it is 52 per cent with a reduced rate of 40 per cent for small companies (such companies being defined in the relevant Finance Act). The system of corporation tax is designed to encourage expansion and reinvestment, particularly when an enterprise is relatively new, and substantial incentives and reliefs are available. Companies are encouraged to invest by generous tax allowances while stock relief reduces the liability to tax by taking account of increases in the cost of holding stock. As part of its policy for encouraging small businesses the Government has raised the qualifying profits limits for the small companies rate of corporation tax to £90,000 for full relief and £225,000 for marginal relief. If all allowances and reliefs are taken into account, British companies in aggregate pay only 15 per cent of their historic cost profits in corporation tax (excluding advance corporation tax). The tax is assessed on the profits of accounting periods, the rate of tax being the rate for the financial year in which the accounting period falls. Where an accounting period straddles 31 March the profits are apportioned on a time basis.

Special Tax on Banking Deposits

In the Budget of 1981 a special tax, for one year only, was imposed on banking deposits. The tax was payable by banks on non-interest-bearing sterling deposits in excess of £15 million at the rate of 2 per cent on the first £200 million and 2.5 per cent on the remainder.

Oil Taxation

Under the Oil Taxation Act 1975, petroleum revenue tax (deductible in computing profits for corporation tax) is charged on profits from the production, as opposed to the refining or other forms of processing, of oil and gas under licence in Britain and on its continental shelf. The rate of tax is 75 per cent. Each licensee of an oilfield is charged on the profits from that field after deduction of certain allowances and reliefs, computed at half-yearly intervals. A recent development is the introduction, from 1983, of a new system of advance payments of petroleum revenue tax in the early years of production from a field. These payments will be credited against petroleum revenue tax subsequently due, with any balance repaid after five

years from the first payment. The bulk of both taxes will be collected in monthly instalments.

Taxes on Capital

Capital Transfer Tax

Capital transfer tax applies to transfers of personal wealth in three main areas: lifetime gifts; transfers on death; and transfers relating to settled property (that is any property held in trust). The tax is chargeable on a cumulative basis in respect of lifetime transfers as they occur and on death as if the deceased had given away the whole of his or her estate immediately before death. In both cases the tax on a particular transfer is arrived at by adding to it the value of the chargeable transfers made within 10 years up to the date of the transfer in question. The rates of tax applicable are progressively higher on successive slices of the cumulative total of chargeable transfers, with a lower scale of tax for lifetime transfers than for transfers on death. The higher scale applies to transfers made on death or up to three years before the transferor's death. Under both scales the first £55,000 of transfers is exempt. The rates on amounts over this figure rise from 30 per cent (higher scale) and 15 per cent (lower scale) on the slice between £55,000 and £75,000 to 75 per cent (higher scale) and 50 per cent (lower scale) on the excess over £2.5 million.

Capital Gains Tax

Capital gains accruing on the disposal of assets are liable to capital gains tax or, in the case of companies, to corporation tax. The rate of tax is 30 per cent but individuals are exempt from tax in respect of total net gains of up to £5,000 in any one year. The effects of inflation are taken into account when measuring gains. For small businesses the tax on gifts and certain deemed disposals of business assets may be deferred until the assets are sold. Certain assets, including the principal private residence, chattels worth less than £3,000 (and any chattels, except those used for the purpose of trade, with a predictable life of less than 50 years), private motor cars and National Savings Certificates are normally exempt. Gains on government securities are exempt from the tax if they have been held for more than 12 months.

Development Land Tax

Under the Development Land Tax Act 1976 any assessable development value realised on the disposal of an interest in land is chargeable to tax at the rate of 60 per cent but the first £50,000 of any such development value realised in any financial year is completely exempt. Other exemptions include the sale or development of owner-occupied residences.

Taxes on Expenditure

Value Added Tax

Value added tax (VAT) is a broadly-based tax, currently chargeable at 15 per cent. It is collected at each stage in the production and distribution of goods and services by taxable persons (generally those carrying on a business with a turnover of more than £17,000 a year). The final tax is borne by the consumer. The taxable person is charged by suppliers of goods and services with VAT (input tax) and then charges the customer with VAT on goods and services supplied (output tax). It is the difference between output and input tax that is paid to Customs and Excise.

There are two methods by which certain goods and services are relieved from VAT: one is by charging VAT at a zero rate (a taxable person does not charge tax to a customer but reclaims any input tax paid to suppliers); the other is by exemption (a taxable person does not charge a customer any output tax and is not entitled to deduct or reclaim the input tax). Zero-rating applies to most types of food (except in the course of catering); books, newspapers and periodicals; fuel (except for petrol and other fuels for road use); construction of, and certain alterations to, buildings; exports; public transport fares; young children's clothing and footwear; and

drugs and medicines supplied on prescription. Exemption applies to land (including rents), insurance, postal services, betting, gaming (other than by gaming machines and lotteries), finance, education, health, and burial and cremation.

Customs Duties

Customs duties are chargeable in accordance with the Common Customs Tariff of the European Community (no such duties are chargeable on goods which qualify as Community goods). Special customs import and export procedures are operated under the Common Agricultural Policy and Community levies are chargeable on a wide range of agricultural products from non-Community countries.

Excise Duties

Oils used for road fuel bear duty at the basic rate. Heavy oil not used for road fuel and light oil used for furnace fuel bear a lower duty and, except for lubricating oil, are zero-rated for VAT. Oil used as chemical feedstocks or otherwise than as a fuel or lubricant in manufacturing is relieved from duty. There are duties on spirits, beer, wine, madewine, cider and perry, mainly related to alcoholic strength. The cigarette duty is based partly on a charge per 1,000 cigarettes and partly on a percentage of retail price. Duty on other tobacco products is based on the weight of the finished product. The principal betting duties are the general betting duty, which is charged at a rate of 8 per cent of the stake money, except for on-course betting, which is charged at 4 per cent; pool betting duty (which applies to football pools), charged at a rate of 42.5 per cent of the stake money; and bingo duty, charged at 10 per cent. Revenue is also raised from duties on the operation of gaming machines and casinos.

The licence duty on a private motor car is £80 a year; for motorcycles and three-wheel vehicles, etc., it amounts to £8, £16 or £32 a year according to engine capacity. Goods vehicles are taxed by gross weight and, if over 12 tonnes, according to the number of axles. Taxis and buses are taxed by seating capacity.

Car Tax

New cars, motorcycles, scooters, mopeds and caravans, whether British made or imported, are chargeable with car tax at 10 per cent on the wholesale value. VAT falls on the price including car tax.

Stamp Duty

Transfers of property (other than of stocks and shares, which are liable to duty at 2 per cent) up to a value of £25,000 are exempt from stamp duty. Above this threshold stamp duty is chargeable at rates of 0.5 per cent, 1 per cent and 1.5 per cent on transfers valued up to £30,000, £35,000 and £40,000, respectively, with the full rate of 2 per cent applying to values above £40,000.

National Insurance Surcharge

The National Insurance surcharge took effect from the start of the 1977-78 financial year. It is in the form of a levy paid by employers, along with their National Insurance contributions, of 2.5 per cent (2 per cent until 5 April 1983) of employees' earnings of between £29.50 a week and £220 (churches and charities are exempt). The proceeds are not paid into the National Insurance Fund but, together with other tax proceeds, go into the Consolidated Fund.

PUBLIC SECTOR BORROWING

To raise the money it requires over and above tax revenue and other receipts the Government issues marketable and non-marketable debt.

Marketable debt consists of Treasury bills and government stock (known as gilt-edged stock as there is no risk of default). Each Friday the

Government sells by tender a quantity of Treasury bills with a life of 91 days. These are bought by the discount houses (see p 336), which guarantee to take up the whole of any offer. The discount houses may hold the Treasury bills or sell them to the banks (which do not bid directly at the tender).

Gilt-edged stock is marketed on the Stock Exchange by the Government broker; some stocks are also available at post offices through the National Savings Stock Register. In 1981 the Government began to issue indexed stock on which both principal and interest are linked to the movement in retail prices.

Non-marketable debt comprises the various forms of national savings designed to attract the smaller saver. These enable the Government to raise funds from the personal sector and have, over the last few years, increased relative to gilt-edged stock as a source of funds (see p 336) and certificates of tax deposits.¹ The bulk of public corporations' borrowing is met by central government through the National Loans Fund, although public corporations' temporary borrowing needs are met largely from the market under Treasury guarantee. That part of local authority borrowing met by central government is dealt with through the National Investment and Loans Office (set up in 1980 as a result of the merger of the Public Works Loan Board and the National Debt Office) which has recourse to the National Loans Fund. The local authorities also borrow directly from the market, both short-term and long-term, through a range of different investments. Some public corporations and local authorities also borrow, under special statutory power and with Treasury consent, in foreign currencies.

The Government has also, in the past, borrowed from abroad on the international capital markets, from international agencies such as the International Monetary Fund and from governments, as with the North American government loans.

After allowing for the changes introduced by the 1982 Budget the central government borrowing requirement for 1982–83 is expected to be £9,300 million, compared with £7,600 million in 1981–82, and the public sector borrowing requirement (PSBR) £9,500 million compared with £8,800 million in 1981–82. A continuing reduction in the PSBR as a percentage of gross domestic product is an important part of the Government's medium-term financial strategy. As part of the policy of controlling the money stock, the Government seeks to finance most of its borrowing requirement (the excess of expenditure over tax revenue and other receipts) by sales of long-term debt to the public outside the banking system.

The National Debt

Net central government borrowing each year represents an addition to the National Debt. At the end of March 1982 the National Debt amounted to some £118,000 million of which £2,000 million was in currencies other than sterling. Of the £116,000 million sterling debt, £91,000 million consisted of gilt-edged stock; of this, 28 per cent had a maturity of up to five years, 37 per cent a maturity of over five years and up to 15 years and 34 per cent a maturity of over 15 years or undated. The remaining sterling debt was made up mainly of national savings, certificates of tax deposits, Treasury bills, and Ways and Means advances (very short-term internal government borrowing).

¹ The certificate of tax deposits scheme is operated by the Inland Revenue. Certificates may be purchased by individuals or corporate bodies to be tendered in settlement of a wide range of taxes.

BANKING AND FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Britain's position as a major financial centre reflects the wide range of specialised financial services provided. The City of London has the greatest concentration of banks in the world, the world's biggest insurance market and a Stock Exchange with a larger listing of securities than any other exchange, and remains the principal international centre for transactions in a large number of commodities. Its tradition of informal dealing and its position between the time zones of the United States and the Far East enable it to complete large-scale transactions with economy and speed. Among the major developments in the activities of financial institutions in recent years have been the rapid growth of overseas bank representation in London and the establishment of new futures markets.

The main institutions which form the British banking system are the Bank of England (the central bank), the clearing banks (offering a wide range of services), the National Girobank, the Trustee Savings Banks, the overseas banks, the merchant banks, the discount market and the National Savings Bank. Specialised financial services outside the banking system are provided by, among others, finance houses, leasing companies, factoring companies, finance corporations, pension funds, investment and unit trusts, building societies, credit unions, the insurance market, the Stock Exchange, the foreign exchange market, the London gold market, commodity markets and futures markets.

The Bank of England

The Bank of England was established in 1694 by Act of Parliament and Royal Charter as a corporate body; the entire capital stock was acquired by the Government under the Bank of England Act 1946. The Bank's main functions are to act as note-issuing authority, to advise the Government on financial matters, to execute monetary policy and to act as banker to the Government. It also exercises prudential supervision over the banking system and manages the Exchange Equalisation Account on behalf of the Treasury.

The Bank of England has the sole right in England and Wales of issuing bank notes. The note issue is fiduciary, that is to say, it is no longer backed by gold but by government and other securities. The Scottish and Northern Ireland banks have limited rights to issue notes; these issues, apart from an amount specified by legislation for each bank, must be fully covered by holdings of Bank of England notes. Responsibility for the provision of coin for circulation lies with the Royal Mint, a government department.

The Government's economic policy, of which the reduction of inflation is a major aspect, accords considerable importance to control of the money supply. The Bank seeks to influence the trend of the growth of the money supply in accordance with target rates of growth. Announced monetary

targets were adopted in 1976 and are incorporated in the Government's medium-term financial strategy. Figures announced in the 1982 Budget give targets for 1982–83 and illustrative ranges for 1983–84 and 1984–85. The ranges for the two later years will be reconsidered nearer the time and account will be taken of structural and institutional changes which may affect the economic significance of the different monetary aggregates.

As banker to the Government, the Bank of England is responsible for arranging the financing of government borrowing and for managing the National Debt.

The Bank is able to influence money market conditions through its dealings with the discount houses (see p 336), which developed in the nineteenth century as bill brokers for industrialists. The discount houses hold mainly Treasury, local authority and commercial bills financed by short-term loans from the banks. If there is a shortage of cash in the banking system as a result, for example, of large tax payments or heavy sales of government securities, the Bank relieves the shortage either by buying bills from the discount houses or by lending directly to them. This permits the banks to replenish their cash balances at the Bank by recalling some of their short-term loans to the discount houses.

The methods by which the Bank operates in the money markets, however, have undergone some change. Until August 1981 the Bank was ready to lend directly to the discount houses at rates at or near its announced Minimum Lending Rate, in addition to its open-market dealings with the discount houses in bills. Under subsequent arrangements, the Bank no longer undertakes to announce continuously the rate at which it will supply cash to the market, but conducts its operations in such a way as to keep short-term interest rates within an unpublished band. More emphasis is now put on open-market operations in bills than on direct lending to the discount houses.

Under the Banking Act 1979 deposit-taking businesses require authorisation from the Bank of England and are subject to its continuing supervision. Institutions may be authorised either as recognised banks or as licensed deposit-takers.

On behalf of the Treasury the Bank manages the Exchange Equalisation Account (EEA), which holds Britain's official reserves of gold, foreign exchange, Special Drawing Rights (SDRs) on the International Monetary Fund and European Currency Units (ECUs). Using the resources of the EEA, the Bank may intervene in the foreign exchange market to check undue fluctuations in the exchange value of sterling.

The Deposit Banks

The major deposit (or clearing) banks are Barclays, Lloyds, Midland and National Westminster and, in Scotland, the Bank of Scotland, Clydesdale Bank and the Royal Bank of Scotland. Their primary business is receiving, transferring and paying deposits, together with providing overdraft and other loan facilities to personal and commercial customers. Customers may deposit money in two main types of account, current accounts and deposit accounts. Although no interest is paid on current accounts, withdrawals may be made on demand and amounts transferred by cheque. Interest is paid on deposit accounts but seven days' notice is required for withdrawals. Bank profits arise from the difference between the interest earned from lending and the costs incurred, including the interest paid to depositors. (Bank lending rates are determined by base rate, which may differ between

banks. The greater the creditworthiness of a borrower the smaller is the premium charged above base rate.)

The clearing banks provide full banking services throughout Britain; however, other institutions, especially building societies (see p 339), have begun to compete strongly in this area. The 'big four' banks operate through some 11,000 branches and sub-branches. National Westminster has the largest number (3,200), followed by Barclays (3,000), Midland (2,500) and Lloyds (2,300). The banks are increasingly involved in international banking activities and, since the late 1970s, have become important lenders for house purchase, providing roughly one in three of all new mortgages. They have also acquired substantial interests in finance houses and leasing agencies and some have set up their own unit trusts and merchant banks.

The deposit banks' main liquid assets consist of balances at the Bank of England, money at call (mainly loans to discount houses), their holdings of Treasury and some other bills and short-dated British government securities. The banks also hold a proportion of their assets as portfolio investments (mainly longer-dated British government securities) or trade investments.

The introduction in 1981 of a loan guarantee scheme (see p 207) has widened the involvement of banks in financing small businesses. Steps had already been taken in this direction by, for example, the establishment in 1979 by Midland Bank of an independent business banking unit and a venture capital scheme; most other banks have similar schemes.

The bank giro, a credit transfer scheme, and direct debiting, by which a creditor, with the prior approval of the debtor, may claim money due direct from the latter's bank account, have greatly speeded the money transmission services. An increasing number of banks have automatic cash dispensing machines and many are also introducing more automated banking facilities. Cheque cards entitle holders to cash a cheque up to the value of £50 at any office of major British and Irish banks and are also generally acceptable as a guarantee for payments by cheque up to that amount. Credit cards (Access and Barclaycard) associated with the clearing banks are also a widely used method of payment; Access operates within the international Mastercard system and Barclaycard within the VISA system.

Membership of the London Bankers' Clearing House, which deals with the clearing of cheques and drafts, consists of the Bank of England, the London clearing banks, the Co-operative Bank and the Central Trustee Savings Bank. The National Giro bank (see below) is to join the clearing house. In 1981 cheques and drafts worth over £4,800,000 million passed through the London clearing system. Town clearing enables transfers of funds between banks within the City of London to be settled the same day. By 1983 the proposed Clearing House Automated Payment System (CHAPS) will make available same-day settlement elsewhere in Britain. A similar approach in automated banking is the agreement by the clearing banks to introduce point-of-sale terminals in retail outlets, which would enable the value of shoppers' purchases to be deducted from their personal bank accounts.

National Girobank

The National Girobank, part of the Post Office, was established in 1968 to provide a low-cost current account banking and money transfer service. It operates through more than 20,000 post offices in Britain. All accounts and transactions are maintained by means of a computer complex at Bootle,

Merseyside. In March 1982 Girobank had over 1.1 million account holders, with balances of over £600 million. The number of transactions was over 300 million in the year ended March 1982. In addition to its services to individuals, Girobank's services to business customers include a facility whereby organisations with dispersed branches, depots and representatives can rapidly channel receipts into their central account. Some 190 local authorities as well as voluntary housing associations use Girobank's rent collection services. Girobank's international services also provide money transfer facilities for the 20 million account holders in the European Community and other countries.

The range of banking services provided by Girobank includes current accounts, personal loans, a cheque guarantee card, limited overdrawing for personal customers and overdrafts for corporate customers, deposit accounts, budget accounts, bridging loans, travellers' cheques and foreign currency, bureaux de change and postcheques for drawing cash at post offices in 29 overseas countries.

Trustee Savings Banks

The Trustee Savings Banks (TSBs), most of which were founded in the nineteenth century, operate under their own trustees but are subject under legislation to the supervision of the Trustee Savings Banks Central Board and the Treasury. Following a planned programme of amalgamations, there were 16 individual banks in June 1982 (compared with 67 in 1975) with about 1,650 branches, 14 million accounts and total deposits of £6,100 million. TSBs provide a full range of banking services including cheque accounts and credit services.

Interest is paid on seven-day and one-month deposits and a higher rate on larger sums deposited for periods up to five years. Credit services include personal loans, overdrafts and mortgages. The TSBs have their own credit card, Trustcard, which operates within the VISA system, and TSB Trust Company provides a wide range of savings, insurance, life assurance and unit trust facilities. The TSBs have also begun to lend to smaller companies in the form of term loans.

Overseas Banks

Well over 450 overseas banks and financial institutions were represented in London in 1982 through branches, subsidiaries, representative offices and consortia. Some 390 banks were directly represented, while about 60 banks and financial institutions were represented through a stake in one or more of the 30 or so joint venture banks operating in London. Of those directly represented, some 85 were from the United States, about 30 from Japan and some 130 from Europe, of which well over half were from the European Community. They provide a comprehensive banking service in many parts of the world and engage in the financing of trade not only between Britain and other countries but also between third countries.

Merchant Banks

Merchant banks have traditionally been primarily concerned with acceptances¹ and with the sponsoring of capital issues on behalf of their customers. Today they have a widely diversified and complex range of activities with an important role in international finance and the short-term capital markets, the provision of expert advice and financial services to

¹The term is derived from the method of financing trade by which commercial bills are 'accepted' or guaranteed by a merchant bank against documents, after which they may be discounted for cash by a discount house or other intermediary.

British industrial companies, especially where mergers, takeovers and other forms of corporate reorganisation are involved, and in the management of investment holdings, including trusts, pensions and other funds.

The Discount Market

The discount market, an institution unique to the City of London, provides a financial mechanism which promotes an orderly flow of short-term funds by the discount houses borrowing 'at call' or at short notice from the banks and lending to the Government by buying Treasury bills (see p 330). The discount houses have recourse to the Bank of England as 'lender of last resort'.

Assets of the discount houses mainly consist of Treasury and commercial bills, government and local authority securities and negotiable certificates of deposit denominated in both sterling and United States dollars. Discount houses accept formal responsibility for covering the Government's need to borrow on Treasury bills which are offered for tender each week.

National Savings

The Department for National Savings is responsible for the administration of government savings schemes: National Savings Bank accounts, National Savings Certificates, National Savings Income Bonds, Premium Savings Bonds and Save As You Earn contracts. Government policy has traditionally been directed towards encouraging investment, primarily of personal savings, in these schemes, particularly as they represent a major source of funds for financing the public sector borrowing requirement. In May 1982 National Savings totalled £20,500 million. Facilities are provided by the Department for the purchase of government stocks; a selection of over 50 stocks is held on the National Savings Stock Register. Since 1980 initiatives to raise a larger share of personal savings directly for the public sector have been introduced and some existing facilities made more competitive.

National Savings Bank

The National Savings Bank provides a system for depositing and withdrawing savings at over 20,000 post offices around the country or by post. There are about 20 million active accounts. Ordinary Accounts earn interest at 5 per cent a year and the first £70 of annual interest is tax free. Up to £100 can be withdrawn on demand at any Savings Bank post office but a few days' notice is required for larger amounts. Investment Accounts earn a higher rate of interest (which is taxable) and one month's notice is required for withdrawals. At the end of May 1982 the sum of the two accounts totalled some £4,700 million.

National Savings Certificates

National Savings Certificates, in units of £10 (index-linked issue) and £25 (conventional issue), are encashable at par at any time. Interest, which is free of income tax (including investment income surcharge) and capital gains tax, is paid only on encashment. The maximum permitted holding of the current twenty-fourth issue is £2,500. Under the terms of the second index-linked issue of National Savings Certificates, the repayment value is related to the movement of the retail prices index (subject to the certificates being held for one year). If held for five years a bonus of 4 per cent of the purchase price is added to the repayment value. The maximum permitted holding is £10,000.

In May 1982 the total investment in all forms of National Savings Certificate was £12,400 million.

National Savings Income Bonds

National Savings Income Bonds, introduced in 1982, are designed to provide savers with a regular monthly income. Bonds are sold in multiples

of £1,000, with a minimum holding of £5,000 and a maximum of £200,000. Repayment is at either three or six months' notice.

Premium Savings Bonds

Premium Savings Bonds are in units of £1 (minimum purchase is £5) and individual holdings are limited to £10,000. After a qualifying period of three months the bonds give investors a chance to win tax-free prizes. There is a weekly draw for prizes of £100,000, £50,000 and £25,000 and a monthly draw offering thousands of prizes ranging in value from £50 to £250,000. Total net sales of bonds to May 1982 were £1,510 million.

Save As You Earn

The third issue of the Save As You Earn (SAYE) scheme, introduced in 1975, allows for regular monthly savings of fixed amounts, from £4 to £50, over five years. On the fifth anniversary of the start of the contract each payment is revalued in line with the retail prices index. Alternatively, the payments may remain invested until the seventh anniversary, when they will be index-linked again and a bonus equal to two monthly payments added. Uncompleted contracts repaid between the first and seventh anniversaries earn annual interest of 6 per cent but no interest is payable if repayment occurs before the first anniversary.

The fourth issue of SAYE, introduced in 1980, runs concurrently with the third issue and is available to individuals entitled to purchase shares under a share option scheme approved by the Inland Revenue. Regular monthly payments, of between £10 and £50, by deduction from pay over five years, qualify for bonuses equal to 18 and 36 monthly contributions on the fifth and seventh anniversaries respectively. Interest at the rate of 8 per cent a year is payable on completed contracts repaid between the fifth and seventh anniversaries and also on repayment of uncompleted contracts between the first and seventh anniversaries.

Any interest or bonus under a third or fourth issue savings contract is free from income tax (including investment income surcharge) and capital gains tax.

OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS

Many special financial facilities, supplementary to the credit facilities of the banks, are provided through institutions outside the banking system. These include institutions providing credit in specialised forms, such as finance houses, leasing and factoring companies; finance corporations; institutions which manage investments on behalf of the public, such as pension funds, and investment and unit trusts; intermediaries which are less dependent on the financial markets of the City of London, such as building societies and credit unions; the insurance market; institutions which provide financial services, such as the Stock Exchange; the foreign exchange market; the London gold market, commodity markets and the financial futures market.

Finance Houses

Finance houses are major suppliers of hire purchase finance for the personal sector and of short-term credit and leasing to the corporate sector. Over 80 per cent of all their business is accounted for by the 43 firms which constitute the Finance Houses Association (FHA). At the end of June 1982 credit outstanding to the members of the FHA was £11,030 million.

Leasing Companies

Leasing companies buy and own plant or equipment required and chosen by businesses and lease it at an agreed rental. This form of finance has grown quickly in importance, partly because the leasing companies can take

advantage of investment incentives to the benefit of customers whose tax position would otherwise make them unavailable. In 1981 the 58 members of the Equipment Leasing Association acquired assets in Britain valued at some £2,100 million, which represented about 11 per cent of total investment in plant, equipment and vehicles.

Factoring Companies

Factoring consists of making cash available to a company in exchange for its debts. Over the last 20 years it has developed as a major financial service, covering exports from and imports to Britain as well as domestic trade. In 1981 the Association of British Factors handled business of over £2,000 million and some 2,700 companies made use of the Association's services.

Finance Corporations

Finance corporations meet the need for medium- and long-term capital when such funds are not easily or directly available from traditional sources such as the Stock Exchange or the banks.

Finance for Industry Limited (FFI) was formed in 1973 as the holding company for two previously separate but related corporations, the Finance Corporation for Industry (FCI) and the Industrial and Commercial Finance Corporation (ICFC). The purpose of the merger was to provide, in one specialist financial institution, the capacity to support investment programmes over the whole range of industry. During the year ended 31 March 1982 FCI advanced a total of £31 million. The ICFC provides medium- and long-term funds at fixed interest rates for the small and medium sectors of industry. Within the last few years the ICFC has become increasingly prominent in financing management 'buy-outs', which involve the purchase of businesses by managing and other staff from their owners. At the end of March 1982 the ICFC had gross facilities outstanding of £515 million in 4,300 companies. The shares in FFI are owned by the Bank of England (15 per cent) and the individual London and Scottish clearing banks.

Other finance corporations include Equity Capital for Industry, the Agricultural Mortgage Corporation, the Commonwealth Development Finance Company and the Commonwealth Development Corporation (the last two being no longer confined to the Commonwealth in their activities).

Pension Funds

Pension funds are administered by trustees in order to invest members' pension contributions, either directly in the market or through intermediaries such as insurance companies. The market value of assets held by pension funds rose from £2,000 million in 1957 to about £53,000 million in 1980 when 22 per cent was in British government securities and 53 per cent in company securities. The growth of pension funds over the last two decades has been reflected in a marked decrease in the proportion of shares held by individual private investors.

Investment and Unit Trusts

Investment and unit trusts enable investors to spread their risks and obtain the benefit of skilled management. Investment trusts are companies which observe certain requirements of the Stock Exchange and the tax authorities and invest in securities for the benefit of their shareholders. At the end of 1981 their investments totalled nearly £9,000 million, of which 42 per cent was held overseas.

Unit trusts are constituted by trust deed between a management company and a trustee company which holds the assets. Normally, the managers sell units to the public and also repurchase them on demand. The

sums held must be invested in securities. The costs of running the trust are defrayed partly by an initial charge which forms part of the price of a unit and partly by a periodic service charge which is usually taken out of the trust's income. Authorisation by the Department of Trade is needed before units can be offered to the public; this is only granted if the trust deed meets the Department's requirements. In 1981 the Department granted unit trusts permission to hold up to 20 per cent of their assets in shares traded on the unlisted securities market (see p 341), in addition to the 5 per cent of assets that they were already allowed to hold in unlisted securities, whether or not traded on this market. In May 1982 there were 1.8 million unit holdings with a total value of £6,200 million.

Building Societies

Building societies are non-profit-making mutual institutions which borrow mainly short-term from individual savers, who are generally able to withdraw their money on demand (although fixed-term investments at higher rates of interest have become increasingly popular) and provide long-term loans at variable rates of interest on the security of private dwellings purchased for owner occupation. They also lend to a limited extent on the security of business or commercial property. Most societies pay and charge interest on the basis of a structure of rates recommended periodically by The Building Societies Association, the movement's representative body.

Building societies account for most lending for house purchase in Britain and in recent years they have overtaken the banks as the principal repository for the personal sector's total liquid assets. They have become increasingly involved in offering investors a full range of personal services comparable with those provided by the banks; various savings schemes have been expanded, cheque book facilities (provided in collaboration with banks) have been established and pension-linked loans have been introduced. Business has become concentrated in the hands of a few large societies, the five largest accounting for 55 per cent of the total assets of the movement. At the end of 1981 there were 251 registered building societies with total assets of £62,000 million and in the course of the year almost £12,000 million was advanced in new mortgages. Building societies are supervised by the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies under the Building Societies Act 1962.

Credit Unions

Credit unions are small savings and loan clubs where members agree to pool part of their savings in order to provide themselves with low cost credit. They have developed in Northern Ireland since the time of the Industrial and Provident Societies Act (Northern Ireland) 1969 and, more recently, have grown elsewhere in Britain. There are now nearly 80 in Great Britain. The Credit Unions Act 1979 requires that members of a credit union should have a 'common bond', such as working in the same factory, and provides a system for their registration and supervision by the Chief Registrar of Friendly Societies.

The Insurance Market

The British insurance industry provides a comprehensive and competitive service domestically and internationally. It has been estimated that British insurers handle some 20 per cent of general insurance business placed on the international market. The London market is the world's leading centre for insurance where, in addition to most British companies and Lloyd's, a large number of overseas companies are also represented. It is the world centre for the placement of international reinsurance and, partly as a

consequence of this, many British companies have formed close relationships with overseas companies.

Insurance Companies

Some British insurance companies confine their activities to domestic business but most large companies undertaking general business transact a substantial amount overseas through branches, agencies or affiliated local companies. There are about 800 companies authorised to carry on one or more classes of insurance business in Britain, of which about 180 are overseas companies.

Some 340 companies belong to the British Insurance Association and these account for about 95 per cent of the world-wide business of the British insurance companies market.

Life assurance is handled by some 300 authorised insurance companies and is also available through certain friendly societies and Lloyd's underwriters. About 90 per cent of this business is transacted through the 73 members of the Life Offices' Association or the nine members of the Associated Scottish Life Offices.

Lloyd's

Lloyd's, established in the seventeenth century, is an incorporated society of private insurers in London. Although its activities were originally confined to the conduct of marine insurance business, a very considerable world-wide market for the transaction of other classes of insurance business in non-marine, aviation and motor markets has been built up. Lloyd's, which does not accept insurance itself, is regulated by a series of special Acts of Parliament, dating from 1871 to 1982.

Lloyd's is not a company but a market for insurance administered by the Committee of Lloyd's, where business is transacted by individual underwriters for their own account and risk and in competition with each other and with insurance companies. Insurance may only be placed through Lloyd's brokers (see below), who negotiate with Lloyd's underwriters on behalf of the insured. Only elected underwriting members of Lloyd's, who must transact insurance with unlimited liability and who have met the most stringent financial regulations laid down by the Committee, are permitted to transact business at Lloyd's; these safeguards give security to the Lloyd's policy.

There are over 20,000 underwriting members of Lloyd's grouped into about 430 syndicates and represented at Lloyd's by underwriting agents who accept risks on behalf of the members of their syndicates.

Insurance Brokers

Insurance brokers, acting on behalf of the insured, are an essential part of the Lloyd's market and a valuable part of the company market. Many brokers specialise in reinsurance business, acting as intermediaries in the exchange of contracts between companies, both British and overseas, and often acting as London representatives of the latter. The Insurance Brokers (Registration) Act 1977 provides for the registration of insurance brokers by a Registration Council and makes Britain the first country to introduce self-regulation of insurance brokers.

The British Insurance Brokers' Association, which sponsored the Act, has over 4,000 members. They produce some £10,000 million annually in premiums for Lloyd's and insurance companies.

International Insurance Services

About one-half of the general (that is, non-life) business of members of the British Insurance Association originates from about 100 overseas countries, through establishments abroad, including overseas branches and agencies, and through reinsurance placed on the London market.

In accordance with the Treaty of Rome, insurance and reinsurance in the European Community are regulated by directives addressed to the governments of member states and intended to harmonise the legislation of the various member countries, thus providing a 'common market', which would avoid distortion of competition. Directives cover reinsurance, compulsory motor insurance, freedom of establishment for life and non-life insurers, Community co-insurance and insurance intermediaries. These directives have been implemented in British legislation.

The Stock Exchange

The Stock Exchange has its main trading floor and central administration in London. There are also trading floors in Glasgow, Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham and Dublin.

The number and variety of securities officially listed on the Stock Exchange are greater than in any other market in the world and its turnover of company securities is roughly equivalent to that of all the other European exchanges combined. Some 7,200 securities are quoted on the Stock Exchange; at the end of March 1982 these had a total market value of £456,000 million. About 5,600 securities of companies were quoted, including a number of leading overseas securities. Company issues represent more than three-quarters of the securities at market valuation, the remainder being British, Irish Republic and other overseas government and corporation stocks. Institutional investors, such as pension funds, now own a higher proportion of ordinary shares than individuals. A market in unlisted securities (generally those of small companies unable or unwilling to obtain a Stock Exchange listing) was opened in 1980.

A market in traded share options was opened in 1978 on the Stock Exchange. The market, in the shares of 15 prominent British companies, enables investors not only to buy options to purchase or sell shares in future at pre-fixed prices but also to trade in the options themselves.

The securities industry is subject to a combination of statutory and non-statutory regulation by the Council for the Securities Industry, formed in 1978 to provide cohesion between the self-regulatory elements. The law on investor protection is under review.

The Foreign Exchange Market

The market consists of banks and several firms of foreign exchange brokers which act as intermediaries between the banks. It provides those engaged in international trade with foreign currencies for their transactions. The foreign exchange banks are in close contact with financial centres abroad and are able to quote buying and selling rates for both spot and future delivery. The forward market enables traders who, at a given date in the future, are due to receive or make a specific foreign currency payment, to contract in advance to sell or buy the foreign currency involved for sterling at a precise fixed exchange rate.

The eurocurrency market provides a network of bank deposits and loans denominated in a currency other than that of the country in which the bank is situated. The eurobond market performs a similar service in transferring funds from lenders to borrowers but by means of bonds issued in currencies other than that of the issuing country. Transactions in both markets tend to be in large denominations. The markets developed in the late 1950s following the restoration of convertibility between the major currencies partly in order to avoid incurring the costs of exchange control and other regulations.

The London Gold Market

Anyone may deal in gold but, in practice, dealings are largely concentrated in the hands of the five members of the London gold market. The five members meet twice daily to establish a London fixing price for gold. This price provides a reference point for world-wide dealings in gold. Although much interest centres upon the fixings, active dealing takes place throughout the day. With the opening in April 1982 of the London Gold Futures Market, the only one in the European time zone, futures dealings in the metal around the world are now possible 24 hours a day.

Commodity Markets

Britain remains the principal international centre for transactions in a large number of commodities, although most of the sales negotiated in London relate to consignments which never pass through the ports of Britain. The need for close links with sources of finance and with shipping and insurance services often determined the location of these markets in the City of London. There are also futures markets in cocoa, coffee, grains (wheat and barley), rubber, soya bean meal and oil, sugar, wool and non-ferrous metals (aluminium, copper, lead, nickel, silver, tin and zinc), potatoes and gas oil.

Financial Futures

The London International Financial Futures Exchange began trading on the floor of the Royal Exchange in late 1982. Over 250 banks and other financial institutions are members of the market, which allows parties affected by movements in interest rates or exchange rates to reduce their vulnerability. Trading takes place in financial instruments of differing maturities and denominated in a number of currencies.

OVERSEAS TRADE AND PAYMENTS

Although small in area and accounting for only about 1·4 per cent of the world's population, Britain is the fifth largest trading nation in the world—and, as a member of the European Community, part of the world's largest trading area, which accounts for about one-third of all trade.

Overseas trade has been of vital importance to the economy for hundreds of years, and especially since the mid-nineteenth century, when the rapid growth of industry, commerce and shipping was accompanied by Britain's development as an international trading centre. It has become increasingly so during the 1970s and early 1980s with the lowering of trade barriers and greater specialisation of international production. Exports are equivalent to about 30 per cent of the gross domestic product at factor cost. Britain is a major supplier of machinery, vehicles, aerospace products, metal manufactures, electrical equipment, chemicals and textiles, and a growing oil exporter. It relies upon imports for about two-fifths of total consumption of foodstuffs, and for most of the raw materials needed for its industries. Invisible trade is also of great significance to the economy, accounting for one-third of overseas earnings; and Britain's net earnings from invisibles are second only to those of the United States.

OVERSEAS TRADE

VISIBLE TRADE

In 1980 Britain's exports of goods were valued at about £47,400 million and its imports of goods at about £46,200 million (both values are free on board, defined in Table 29, and are on a balance of payments basis, as distinct from an overseas trade statistics basis, which for imports includes the cost of insurance and freight, and for both exports and imports includes returned goods).¹ Between 1979 and 1980 the value of exports rose by 16 per cent while that of imports increased by 5 per cent. However, in terms of volume exports rose by 2 per cent, while imports fell by 5·5 per cent.

Commodity Composition

Britain has traditionally been an importer of food and raw materials and an exporter of manufactured goods. However, in recent years the import pattern has changed considerably, with nearly two-thirds being accounted for by finished and semi-finished manufactures, almost double the proportion of 1960.

Manufactured goods are still responsible for the bulk of exports (see Table 30), although there has been a shift towards finished, rather than semi-finished, goods. By far the most important group is machinery and transport equipment, which in 1980 accounted for 34 per cent of total exports. Exports of machinery alone accounted for 24 per cent of the total. The share

¹Publication of most of the visible trade statistics for 1981 has been delayed. Accordingly, this section describes visible trade in 1980, although Table 29 contains some published import statistics for 1981 and Table 33 contains a provisional estimate of the visible trade balance.

Table 29: Exports and Imports 1971-81 (balance of payments basis)

	1971	1976	1979	1980	1981
Value (£ million)					
Exports f.o.b.	9,043	25,191	40,687	47,396	na
Exports f.o.b. ^a	9,070	25,277	40,637	47,339	na
Imports f.o.b.	8,853	29,120	44,136	46,211	48,087
Imports c.i.f. ^a	9,799	31,084	46,925	49,886	51,348
Volume index (1975 = 100):					
Exports	85.9	109.9	125.7	128.0	na
Imports	85.5	105.8	125.6	119.1	119.1
Unit value index (1975 = 100):					
Exports	53.7	119.6	171.7	192.8	na
Imports	44.8	122.2	161.6	185.8	204.1
Terms of trade (1975 = 100)^b	119.8	97.9	106.3	103.7	na

Sources: *Monthly Review of External Trade Statistics and United Kingdom Balance of Payments 1982 Edition*

^aOn an overseas trade statistics basis.

^bExport unit value index as a percentage of import unit value index.

Notes: f.o.b. = free on board, that is all costs accruing up to the time of placing the goods on board the exporting vessel having been paid by the seller.

c.i.f. = cost, insurance and freight, that is including shipping, insurance and other expenses incurred in the delivery of goods as far as their place of importation in Britain. Some of these expenses represent earnings by companies resident in Britain and are more appropriate to the invisibles account.

na = not available.

of chemicals has also grown fairly steadily, to reach 11 per cent. The greater importance of North Sea oil exports is reflected in the recent rapid rise in the share of fuels in total exports, from 4 per cent in 1975 to 14 per cent in 1980. Sectors which have become relatively less important include passenger motor cars and textiles, the latter accounting for under 3 per cent of exports in 1980, compared with 7 per cent in 1960.

Recent changes in Britain's import pattern are similar to those which have affected other major industrialised countries, although to a lesser degree. There has been a large rise in the share of finished manufactures and semi-finished goods, particularly the former which accounted for 35 per cent of imports in 1980, as against 11 per cent in 1960. Since 1962 imports of semi-manufactures have formed a larger part of the total import bill than basic materials, reflecting the tendency for producer countries to undertake processing of primary products up to the semi-finished and occasionally finished stage. The decline in the proportion of food imports reflects the increasing extent to which demand for food has been met by domestic agriculture and the smaller share of expenditure devoted to food.

About three-quarters of Britain's exports and imports are with other developed countries. In the last 30 years trade with the rest of Western Europe has become increasingly important, representing nearly 60 per cent of Britain's trade in 1980, compared with about 30 per cent in 1950.

European Community countries account for six of the top ten export markets and for six of the ten leading suppliers of goods to Britain (see Table 31), and in 1980 Britain had a surplus on trade with the rest of the Community. In general, there has been a decline in the importance of North America (the United States and Canada) as a trading partner, while

Geographical Distribution of Trade

Table 30: Commodity Composition of Trade 1980^a

	Exports (f.o.b.)		Imports (c.i.f.)	
	£ million	per cent	£ million	per cent
Non-manufactures:	11,136	23.5	17,136	34.4
Food, beverages and tobacco	3,269	6.9	6,178	12.4
Basic materials	1,450	3.1	4,050	8.1
Fuels	6,417	13.6	6,908	13.8
Manufactured goods:	34,814	73.5	31,240	62.6
Semi-manufactures of which,	14,036	29.6	13,493	27.0
<i>Chemicals</i>	5,290	11.2	3,148	6.3
<i>Textiles</i>	1,363	2.9	1,545	3.1
<i>Iron and steel</i>	984	2.1	1,449	2.9
<i>Non-ferrous metals</i>	1,760	3.7	2,487	5.0
<i>Metal manufactures</i>	1,310	2.8	866	1.7
<i>Other</i>	3,329	7.0	3,997	8.0
Finished manufactures of which,	20,778	43.9	17,747	35.6
<i>Machinery</i>	11,473	24.2	7,733	15.5
<i>Road vehicles</i>	3,156	6.7	3,348	6.7
<i>Other transport equipment</i>	1,645	3.5	1,489	3.0
<i>Other manufactures</i>	4,504	9.5	5,177	10.4
Miscellaneous	1,388	2.9	1,510	3.0
Total	47,339	100	49,886	100

Source: *Monthly Review of External Trade Statistics*^aOn an overseas trade statistics basis.

Note: Differences between totals and the sums of their component parts are due to rounding.

other recent features of Britain's trade have been a decline in the proportion of trade with other Commonwealth countries and the emergence of oil-exporting countries as a major market for British exports.

INVISIBLE TRANSACTIONS

Britain has nearly always earned a surplus from its invisible transactions. These fall into three main groups: services (receipts and payments arising from services, as distinct from goods, supplied to and received from overseas residents); interest, profits and dividends (income arising from outward and inward investment and other capital transactions); and transfers between Britain and other countries. In 1981 there was a surplus of £3,023 million on Britain's invisible earnings (see Table 32), some £1,340 million more than in 1980, mainly as a result of a return to a substantial surplus on interest, profits and dividends.

Gross earnings from invisible exports (which amounted to £29,338 million in 1981) are normally equivalent to about half of the earnings from visible exports. Earnings from services rose by 6 per cent in 1981 to £16,754 million, although in volume terms this represented a fall of about 7 per cent. Debits, at £12,779 million, were 9 per cent higher by value but 1 per cent lower by volume. A notable feature was a 22 per cent rise in net earnings from financial services to £1,954 million in 1981. Earnings from travel moved into deficit with debits 20 per cent higher than in 1980 as the number of British residents travelling abroad rose by 9 per cent and their average expenditure per visit by 10 per cent. Earnings from sea transport were also

Table 31: Principal British Markets and Suppliers 1980^a

Main markets	Value £ million	Share per cent
Exports		
Federal Republic of Germany	5,071	10.7
United States	4,535	9.6
Netherlands	3,843	8.1
France	3,586	7.6
Irish Republic	2,637	5.6
Belgium/Luxembourg	2,259	4.8
Switzerland	1,953	4.1
Italy	1,896	4.0
Sweden	1,618	3.4
Nigeria	1,195	2.5
Imports		
United States	6,034	12.1
Federal Republic of Germany	5,666	11.4
France	3,851	7.7
Netherlands	3,407	6.8
Belgium/Luxembourg	2,384	4.8
Italy	2,304	4.6
Switzerland	1,897	3.8
Saudi Arabia	1,887	3.8
Irish Republic	1,773	3.6
Japan	1,709	3.4

Source: *Monthly Review of External Trade Statistics*

^aOn an overseas trade statistics basis. Exports are f.o.b., imports c.i.f.

in deficit, but earnings from other types of service showed substantial surpluses.

There was a surplus on interest, profits and dividends of £1,004 million in 1981, compared with a deficit of £273 million in 1980, as credits rose by 22 per cent, partly as a result of a fall in sterling's exchange rate. Earnings on borrowing and lending abroad by British banks rose particularly strongly and earnings from portfolio investment (investment in overseas securities) continued to rise, mainly reflecting the large increase in such investment since the abolition of exchange controls (see p 350).

Substantial government transfer payments comprise contributions to the European Community, contributions and subscriptions to international organisations, and bilateral aid. There was a significant improvement in the balance of transfers with the European Community where the deficit fell from £825 million in 1980 to £530 million in 1981, mainly owing to a rise in gross budget refunds as a result of the agreement negotiated in 1980.

Britain has long been an advocate of the removal of artificial barriers to trade, and to this end has taken a leading part in the activities of such organisations as the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the Organisation for Economic Co-

Table 32: Britain's Invisible Transactions 1981

£ million

	Credits	Debits	Balance
Services:	16,754	12,779	+ 3,975
Private sector and public corporations of which,	16,290	11,540	+ 4,750
<i>Sea transport</i>	3,772	3,870	- 98
<i>Civil aviation</i>	2,359	1,922	+ 437
<i>Travel</i>	2,999	3,285	- 286
<i>Financial services^a</i>	1,954	—	+ 1,954
<i>Other</i>	5,206	2,463	+ 2,743
General government	464	1,239	- 775
Interest, profits and dividends:	10,082	9,078	+ 1,004
Private sector and public corporations	9,142	7,458	+ 1,684
General government	940	1,620	- 680
Transfers:	2,502	4,458	- 1,956
Private	844	1,119	- 275
General government	1,658	3,339	- 1,681
Total invisible transactions	29,338	26,315	+ 3,023

Source: *United Kingdom Balance of Payments 1982 Edition*^aThe figure is obtained net of overseas payments, and similar earnings in Britain by overseas financial institutions are negligible. For these reasons the item appears only as a credit entry.

operation and Development (OECD) and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) (see p 90). Since joining the European Community in 1973, Britain has conducted many of these activities in collaboration with its Community partners. Britain also participates in the development of the Community's commercial policy. The Community's common customs tariff is, on average, at a similar level to the tariffs of other major industrial countries.

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade

Protective tariffs have mostly been considerably reduced in recent years as a result of negotiations held under the auspices of the GATT. These also reduced other barriers to trade and discrimination in international commerce. In the latest series of the GATT Multilateral Trade Negotiations, the 'Tokyo Round' (1973-79), a number of agreements dealing with both tariff and non-tariff barriers to trade were concluded. The non-tariff agreements have the common aim of reducing or eliminating existing non-tariff barriers to trade and preventing the erection of new obstacles. They cover areas such as technical barriers (calling for the use of international standards whenever possible), government procurement (calling for liberalisation of government purchasing), customs valuation (aiming at greater uniformity for customs valuation methods), and an agreement on subsidies and countervailing duties. Developed countries have undertaken not to grant any forms of export subsidies and all signatories undertake not to apply countervailing duties unless it can be clearly demonstrated that a subsidy causes or threatens to cause material injury to the domestic market of the country concerned.

The GATT Anti-Dumping Code sets out criteria for the investigation of complaints of alleged dumping and the imposition of appropriate remedies.

As a signatory of the code, the European Community has adopted an implementing regulation to provide for action in cases in which industry in Britain or other Community countries is suffering from unfair trade practices.

Community Trade Agreements

With the exception of transitional tariff arrangements for certain products from Greece, all tariffs on trade between Britain and the other European Community countries have been eliminated. Britain applies the common customs tariff to all countries neither belonging to, nor having any special arrangement with, the Community, subject to special arrangements for some industrial materials.

The Community has reciprocal preferential trading agreements with the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) countries (Austria, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Portugal, Sweden and Switzerland), Cyprus, Israel, Malta, Spain and Turkey, and non-reciprocal agreements with Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, Yugoslavia, and a group of African, Caribbean and Pacific countries (see below). Tariff preference is also given to developing countries (under the Generalised Scheme of Preferences), the Faroe Islands and the overseas countries and territories of member countries.

Former Commonwealth preferential agreements have been phased out and replaced, in the case of a number of developing Commonwealth countries in Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific, by the trade provisions of the Convention of Lomé which came into effect in 1975. This was succeeded by a second convention, Lomé II, in 1981. A number of non-Commonwealth developing countries within the same geographical area are also signatories.

CONTROLS ON TRADE

Britain maintains few restrictions on its international trade. Most goods may be imported freely and only a narrow range of goods is subject to any sort of export control.

Import Controls

In accordance with its international obligations under the GATT and to the European Community, Britain has progressively removed almost all quantitative restrictions imposed on economic grounds. The few remaining quantitative controls mainly affect textile goods (in view of the rapid contraction of the domestic textile industry in the face of competition from low-cost supplying countries). All quantitative restrictions have been removed from imports of goods of Community origin, with the exception of certain internationally recognised restrictions operated by the Department of Trade on a few goods such as firearms, ammunition and radioactive materials. Other government departments operate certain restrictions on non-economic grounds (on goods such as animals and plants and some of their derivatives, drugs, explosives, certain 'citizens band' radios and pornographic material) for reasons of health, safety, conservation or social policy.

Export Controls

The great majority of British exports are not subject to any government control or direction. However, there are controls governing exports of military and strategic significance which also apply to certain metals, metal products (including certain British coins), waste and scrap, on cattle, sheep, swine, goats, horses, asses and mules, for humanitarian purposes; on salmon and trout, to inhibit out-of-season fishing; on cattle, swine and

certain meat exported to another member state of the European Community, for health certification purposes; on endangered species of animals and plants and some of their derivatives, in accordance with international agreements; on photographic material over 60 years old and valued at £200 or more per item and other articles over 50 years old, to restrict the export of items of national importance; on dangerous drugs; on British spirits (beverages) in casks of less than 40 litres; and on Common Agricultural Policy products.

GOVERNMENT SERVICES

The Government assists exporters by creating conditions favourable to the export trade and by providing information and advice about opportunities for trade in other countries and credit insurance facilities. Export promotion is also assisted by the Scottish Council (Development and Industry), the Development Corporation for Wales and in Northern Ireland by the Department of Economic Development.

British Overseas Trade Board

The British Overseas Trade Board (BOTB) directs Britain's official export promotion services, which include the provision of export intelligence assistance to British exporters in appointing agents and locating potential customers, help at trade fairs and other promotional events overseas, and support for firms participating in trade missions. It includes representatives of commerce and industry, the Trades Union Congress, the Department of Trade and the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and operates under the general authority of the Secretary of State for Trade, who is the president.

Exporters wanting assistance and advice can consult the offices of the BOTB throughout Britain and, through these offices, the commercial posts of the British Diplomatic Service overseas.

Export Credit Insurance

The Export Credits Guarantee Department (ECGD) provides credit insurance for about a third of the country's export trade and insures exports of both goods and services. The main risks covered include insolvency or protracted default of the buyer, governmental action which stops the British exporter receiving payment, new import restrictions, and war or civil disturbance in the buyer's country. Cover may commence from the date of contract or (at lower premiums) from the date of shipment.

This insurance may be supplemented by unconditional guarantees of repayment given direct to banks financing exporters, whether in sterling or foreign currencies. Alternatively, for contracts over £1 million the ECGD will guarantee loans direct to overseas buyers enabling them to pay on cash terms, or 'lines of credit' similarly covering an agreed buying programme of an overseas country. The banks provide finance against these guarantees. The ECGD is also prepared to support the issue of performance bonds in the commercial market in respect of cash or near-cash contracts worth over £250,000.

Investment insurance is provided for new British investment overseas against expropriation, war damage and restrictions on remittances.

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

The balance of payments statistics record transactions between residents of Britain and non-residents. The balance on current account shows whether Britain has a surplus of income over expenditure.

In recent years Britain's balance of payments has usually shown a deficit on visible trade offset wholly or partially by a surplus on invisible earnings. However, in 1980 there was a substantial improvement in visible trade, resulting in the first visible trade surplus since 1971, and there was also a large visible trade surplus in 1981. As the balance on invisible transactions also rose substantially in 1981, there was a large current account surplus estimated at £6,036 million (see Table 33). This indicates a substantial increase in Britain's net overseas assets. Although non-residents continued to invest substantially in Britain during 1981, the total invested was lower than in 1980, while Britain's overseas investment rose sharply. Total investment and other capital transactions resulted in a large net outflow from Britain, reflecting the current account surplus.

A description of visible trade and invisible transactions is given on pp 343-7 and capital transactions are described below.

Table 33: Britain's Balance of Payments 1971-81

	£ million				
	1971	1976	1979	1980	1981
Visible trade balance	+ 190	- 3,929	- 3,449	+ 1,185	+ 3,013 ^a
Invisible transactions balance	+ 934	+ 3,054	+ 2,596	+ 1,680	+ 3,023
Current balance	+ 1,124	- 875	- 853	+ 2,865	+ 6,036
Investment and other capital transactions	+ 1,790	- 3,009	+ 2,307	- 1,864	- 7,209
Allocation of Special Drawing Rights	+ 125	—	+ 195	+ 180	+ 158
Official financing:					
Net transactions with overseas monetary authorities	- 1,817	+ 984	- 596	- 140	- 145
Foreign currency borrowing (net) by the Government and public sector	+ 82	+ 1,791	- 250	- 941	- 1,587
Official reserves ^b	- 1,536	+ 853	- 1,059	- 291	+ 2,419
Balancing item	+ 232	+ 256	+ 256	+ 191	+ 328

Source: *United Kingdom Balance of Payments 1982 Edition*

^aCalculated using a provisional estimate of exports for 1981, based on data for ten months.

^bDrawings on (+)/additions to (-).

CAPITAL FLOWS

Britain's exchange controls were abolished during 1979 and residents are free to acquire foreign currency for any purpose including direct and portfolio investment overseas. Controls on the lending of sterling abroad have also been removed and non-residents may freely acquire sterling for any purpose. Gold may be freely bought and sold. The abolition of exchange controls means that Britain meets its full obligations on capital movements under the OECD Code on Capital Movements and under European Community directives. The Government welcomes both inward and outward investment. Outward investment encourages output abroad and develops markets for British exports, while providing earnings in the

form of interest payments, profits and dividends. Foreign investment in Britain often helps to increase the efficiency of industry by introducing new technological developments.

In 1981 direct investment overseas by British companies, excluding oil companies, was £5,157 million, while British residents' portfolio investment overseas totalled £4,100 million, over four times the amount in 1979, as the overseas proportion of portfolios has gradually been built up to the desired level. The inflow of direct, portfolio and other investment into the British private sector amounted to £3,168 million. An analysis of investment and other capital transactions is given in Table 34.

EXTERNAL ASSETS AND LIABILITIES

At the end of 1981 Britain's aggregate identified external assets were valued at £106,148 million¹: £89,921 million belonging to the private sector (£64,780 million of investment overseas and £25,141 million of banking and commercial claims) and £16,227 million to the public sector including official reserves (gold, convertible currencies and IMF Special Drawing Rights) estimated at £11,960 million.

Table 34: Analysis of Investment and Other Capital Transactions 1979-81^a

	£ million		
	1979	1980	1981
Overseas investment in Britain:			
<i>British public sector</i>	+ 902	+ 589	+ 188
<i>British private sector</i>	+ 3,459	+ 4,654	+ 3,168
British private investment overseas	- 6,555	- 8,204	- 10,637
Official long-term capital	- 401	- 91	- 334
Import credit ^b	+ 61	- 268	+ 115
Export credit ^b	- 856	- 902	- 999
Foreign currency borrowing or lending abroad by British banks	+ 1,623	+ 2,018	+ 1,404
Changes in external sterling liabilities ^c	+ 3,336	+ 3,820	+ 2,747
External sterling lending by British banks ^d	+ 205	- 2,500	- 2,980
Other external borrowing or lending	+ 601	- 763	+ 39
Other transactions	- 68	- 217	+ 80
Total	+ 2,307	- 1,864	- 7,209

Source: *United Kingdom Balance of Payments 1982 Edition*

^aAssets: increase (-)/decrease (+); liabilities: increase (+)/decrease (-). Excludes official financing.

^bExcluding trade credit between related firms; after deducting advance and progress payments to suppliers.

^cExchange reserves and other external banking and money market liabilities in sterling.

^dExcluding credit for exports from Britain.

At the end of 1981 direct private investment overseas (investment in branches, subsidiaries and associated companies), excluding insurance (other than in the United States) and oil, totalled £32,560 million, portfolio investment £22,000 million and investment by oil companies £9,100

¹The significance of any inventory of Britain's aggregate external assets and liabilities is limited because a variety of claims and obligations are included that are very dissimilar in kind, in degree of liquidity and in method of valuation.

million. At the end of 1978 over three-quarters of direct investment (including investment by oil companies) was in other developed countries, with North America and the European Community each receiving about one-quarter. The main individual countries were the United States (which has about 21 per cent of Britain's overseas direct investment), Australia (13 per cent) and the Federal Republic of Germany (7 per cent). Just under half of direct investment is in manufacturing units, 13 per cent in distribution and just over 40 per cent in other activities.

Britain's aggregate identified external liabilities were valued at £78,275 million at the end of 1981. Overseas investment in the private sector accounted for £63,818 million, comprising £16,975 million of direct investment (excluding that of oil and insurance companies), £5,800 million of portfolio holdings of British company securities and £9,550 million of investment by overseas oil companies. At the end of 1978 investment from developed countries accounted for virtually all of overseas direct investment (excluding insurance) in Britain, with 60 per cent originating in the United States and 23 per cent in the European Community. Slightly under 50 per cent is in manufacturing industry.

PROMOTION OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Britain has for centuries encouraged research and innovation, and its record of achievement in relation to size of population is in many respects unsurpassed. This record has been maintained throughout the twentieth century. For example, fundamental contributions to modern molecular genetics were made by the working out of the structure of the molecule of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) by Professor Francis Crick, Professor Maurice Wilkins, and an American colleague, James Watson, at Cambridge University in 1952. A more recent achievement was the research carried out by Mr Patrick Steptoe and Dr Robert Edwards which made possible the birth of the world's first test-tube baby in Britain in 1978. Other notable contributions in recent years have been made by Professor Dennis Gabor on holography (the production of three-dimensional images using lasers), Dr Brian Josephson on superconductivity (abnormally high electrical conductivity at low temperatures), Professor Stephen Hawking on black holes (hypothetical regions of space), Sir Martin Ryle and Professor Antony Hewish on radio-astronomy, Professor Frederick Sanger on molecular biology, and Dr Godfrey Hounsfield on computer-assisted tomography (for medical diagnosis), among others. Nobel prizes for science have been won by 64 British citizens, a number exceeded only by the United States.

The Government keeps under review facilities for training scientists and ensures that adequate research is devoted to matters of national interest, which include defence, industrial innovation, environmental protection, use and conservation of natural resources, the provision of good food, shelter and energy and of efficient transport and communications.

Total expenditure in Britain on scientific research and development in 1978-79 (the latest year for which complete estimates are available) was £3,250 million, or 2 per cent of the gross domestic product. About half was provided by industrial enterprises, with a significant contribution also being made by private endowments, trusts and charities. The other half was financed by the Government, which carries out roughly a quarter of Britain's research and development in its own establishments. Government finance for research and development also went to industry and the universities.

Government and Scientific Research

Responsibility for basic civil science in Britain rests with the Secretary of State for Education and Science, and responsibility for technology mainly with the Secretary of State for Industry, but in all cases the Prime Minister has overall responsibility. Other government departments are concerned with research and development related to their functions. Government responsibility for space activities is undertaken by the Secretary of State for Industry, the Secretary of State for Education and Science (through the Science and Engineering Research Council, see p 355), and the Secretary of

State for Defence according to the nature of the project. Applied research and development is controlled by the 'customer-contractor principle' under which government departments, as customers, define their research requirements. The work is undertaken by contractors who may be, for example, government laboratories, research councils, research associations, industry or the universities. Departments with major technological needs generally have a Chief Scientist's organisation, which helps to formulate requirements, select the most suitable contractors and co-operate with them to obtain the best value for money.

Advice on scientific and technological matters is provided by the Advisory Board for the Research Councils, the Advisory Council for Applied Research and Development, and a committee of Chief Scientists and Permanent Secretaries. These bodies ensure that scientific questions are brought before ministers as appropriate and that scientific priorities reflect those of the Government as a whole.

Expenditure

Total government expenditure on research and development in 1982-83 is estimated (at outturn prices) to be some £3,500 million. The largest departmental research and development budget is that of the Ministry of Defence for defence equipment (see also p 93). The main civil departments involved are the Department of Education and Science, which supports the research councils and the universities; the Department of Industry; the Department of Energy; the Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food and the Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland; and the Department of the Environment and the Department of Transport. More details of the kinds of research carried out are given in the relevant chapters.

The Department of Education and Science

The Department of Education and Science discharges its responsibilities for basic and applied civil science mainly through the five research councils to which it allocates funds from its science budget (the budget, at cash prices, totals £478 million in 1982-83). The councils and their allocations are: the Science and Engineering Research Council (£234.4 million), the Medical Research Council (£107.4 million), the Natural Environment Research Council (£57.6 million), the Agricultural Research Council (£43.6 million) and the Social Science Research Council (£20.9 million). Science budget grants are also made to the British Museum (Natural History) and to the Royal Society. The budget is allocated for research grants and contracts to universities, polytechnics and elsewhere, research units and other establishments of the research councils, postgraduate support and subscriptions to international scientific organisations. The Department is also responsible for some aspects of international scientific relations (see p 362) and helps to co-ordinate government policy regarding scientific and technical information.

The Advisory Board for the Research Councils

The Advisory Board for the Research Councils advises the Secretary of State on civil science, particularly with regard to the research council system, on the support of postgraduate students, on the proper balance between national and international scientific activities, and on the allocation of the science budget among research councils and other bodies. It also promotes close liaison between the councils and users of their research. Its membership includes the chairman or secretary of each of the research councils, the chairman of the University Grants Committee, the Chief

Scientists from departments with a major interest in the work of the research councils, the Chief Scientist to the Central Policy Review Staff, and independent members drawn from universities, industry and the Royal Society.

THE RESEARCH COUNCILS

Each of the five research councils is an autonomous body established under Royal Charter with membership drawn from the universities, professions, industry and the Government. They conduct research through their own research establishments and by supporting selected research in universities and other higher education establishments. As well as being financed from the science budget, three of the councils receive commissions, estimated (at cash prices) at £77 million in 1982–83, from departments under the customer-contractor principle. In 1982–83 the Agricultural Research Council is expected to earn 51 per cent of its total income from commissions, the Natural Environment Research Council 31 per cent and the Medical Research Council 0.6 per cent.

Science and Engineering Research Council

The Science and Engineering Research Council (SERC) supports basic research in astronomy, geophysics, the biological sciences, chemistry, mathematics, physics, and engineering and applied sciences, in furthering its primary purpose of sustaining standards of education and research in the universities and polytechnics. A large proportion of the SERC's resources is devoted to the provision of research grants to help academic staff to carry out fundamental research, either in their own institutions or in the Council's research establishments or elsewhere; the encouragement of active collaboration between higher education establishments and industry, particularly in areas of national importance; the award of studentships to suitable graduates for training in methods of research or a specialised branch of science or engineering of importance to British industry; and the award of fellowships to promising scientists or engineers to enable them to carry out their own independent research programmes.

Research Establishments

The SERC maintains four research establishments: the Daresbury Laboratory at Warrington (Cheshire), the Royal Greenwich Observatory at Herstmonceux (East Sussex), the Royal Observatory, Edinburgh, and the Rutherford Appleton Laboratory at Chilton (Oxfordshire). The establishments are centres of specialised research, and are also used for the development and operation of central experimental facilities beyond the resources of an academic institution. They provide support for scientists whose research needs access to facilities run by international research organisations, such as the powerful particle accelerators at the European Organisation for Nuclear Research (CERN) near Geneva, Switzerland, and the high-flux neutron source at the Institut Laue-Langevin (ILL) at Grenoble, France.

International Collaboration

The SERC provides national contributions to CERN, the civil science programme of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation, the Anglo-Australian Telescope, and the European Incoherent Scatter Project; and, also, part of Britain's contribution to the European Space Agency (see p 363). It also contributes to, and shares with its French and Federal German partners, the control of the ILL nuclear reactor at Grenoble. In addition, the SERC encourages scientists and engineers to initiate or extend collaborative projects with colleagues overseas, particularly in Europe, by using its existing fellowships, studentships and grant schemes.

Engineering

Developments in engineering research and training geared to the needs of industry are major concerns of the SERC. Some special programmes are being supported within a general effort to develop research and post-graduate training in university and polytechnic engineering departments. Subjects receiving major support include biotechnology, marine technology, polymer engineering, microelectronics and computer applications (such as industrial robotics), materials conservation, energy in buildings, radio communications systems, medical engineering, combustion engines and coal technology. The Teaching Company Scheme, jointly sponsored by the SERC and the Department of Industry, supports collaborative ventures between academic engineering departments and industrial companies to improve their manufacturing methods and performance. A network to provide an interactive computing facility to universities has been built up and is serviced at Chilton.

Astronomy

Astronomy uses both ground-based techniques, such as optical and radio telescopes, and space-based methods (see p 363). Optical astronomy is carried out in university departments and, within the SERC, at the Royal Greenwich Observatory and the Royal Observatory, Edinburgh. Instruments include the Royal Greenwich Observatory's Isaac Newton Telescope, of diameter 2.5 metres, which is being installed at a new site on the island of La Palma in the Canary Islands (the 4.2-metre Herschel Telescope, destined for La Palma, is under construction); the Anglo-Australian Telescope, of diameter 3.9 metres, at Siding Spring, Australia, in a joint project with the Australian Government; a 1.2-metre Schmidt telescope on the same site; optical telescopes operated by the South African Astronomical Observatory, to which the SERC contributes; and a 3.8-metre infra-red telescope, the largest telescope in the world designed specifically to make infra-red observations, at Mauna Kea, Hawaii. The SERC is also proposing to construct on Hawaii a special 15-metre radio telescope for observing wavelengths of less than a millimetre. Cambridge and Manchester Universities are the main centres for research in radio astronomy with substantial support from the SERC. The Starlink network of computer systems, centred at Chilton and located at many centres of astronomical research in Britain, provides and co-ordinates image processing and data reduction facilities for use by British astronomers.

Nuclear Physics

The SERC establishments concerned with the provision of facilities for university research in nuclear physics are at Chilton, which supports university teams engaged in experiments in particle physics at CERN and other centres, and the Daresbury Laboratory, where a 30 million-volt tandem accelerator for research into nuclear structure is due for completion by the end of 1982. Research projects using these and other facilities are funded through research grants to universities.

Natural Sciences

Support is provided for high-quality research in biological and natural sciences, mathematics and science-based archaeology. Where experimental facilities are too expensive to be provided for individual universities and polytechnics, central facilities have been provided. For example, at the Daresbury Laboratory a new synchrotron storage ring came into operation in 1980. It provides high intensity electromagnetic radiation used in a wide range of experiments in materials science, surface physics, crystallography and molecular biology. Other central facilities include a high-powered laser

facility at Chilton, which is used to study plasmas, and a spallation neutron source being built, also at Chilton, to provide a pulsed beam of neutrons.

Medical Research Council

The Medical Research Council (MRC) is the main government agency for the support of biomedical research. Its major research establishments are the National Institute for Medical Research at Mill Hill, London, which carries out fundamental research relevant to medicine, the Clinical Research Centre at Northwick Park Hospital, London, and the Laboratory of Molecular Biology at Cambridge. The Council also has over 50 research units, mostly located in university departments, medical schools and hospitals in Britain. In addition to the work it supports in its own establishments, the Council provides further support for research through grants to workers in universities, polytechnics and other centres, and through awards for those undertaking research training.

The MRC is assisted by four advisory boards: the Neurobiology and Mental Health Board; the Cell Biology and Disorders Board; the Physiological Systems and Disorders Board; and the Tropical Medicine Research Board.

Natural Environment Research Council

The Natural Environment Research Council (NERC) is responsible for encouraging, planning and executing research in the physical and biological sciences relating to man's natural environment and its resources. The work is broadly divided into groups defined as: the Solid Earth—its physical properties and mineral resources; Seas and Oceans—their behaviour and living and mineral resources; Inland Waters—their behaviour and living resources; Terrestrial Environments—wildlife communities and their resources; Atmosphere—its structure and interactions; and a number of interdisciplinary studies including pollution and the physical and biological properties of the Antarctic environment. Research programmes which the NERC is planning to expand include those on geological work in connection with deep drilling and mapping, which is important for future mineral and energy exploration; new means of insect pest control using viruses harmless to man; the climate; remote sensing by satellite, for resource and ecological surveys; and modelling the behaviour of British estuaries.

The Council's research institutes are: the British Antarctic Survey, the Institute of Geological Sciences, the Institute of Hydrology, the Institute of Marine Biochemistry, the Institute for Marine Environmental Research, the Institute of Oceanographic Sciences, the Institute of Terrestrial Ecology, the Institute of Virology and the Sea Mammal Research Unit. The Council also operates the Research Vessel Services and maintains a central computing service in support of all its institutes.

Research institutes aided by council grants are: the Freshwater Biological Association, the Marine Biological Association of the United Kingdom, the Scottish Marine Biological Association, the Unit of Marine Invertebrate Biology, the Unit of Comparative Plant Ecology and some university units.

Agricultural Research Council

The Agricultural Research Council (ARC) has eight institutes under its direct control: the Animal Breeding Research Organisation, the Institute for Research on Animal Diseases, the Institute of Animal Physiology, the Food Research Institute, the Letcombe Laboratory, dealing with the growth of crops in relation to soil conditions and cultivation, the Meat Research Institute, the Poultry Research Centre, and the Weed Research Organisation. There are four ARC units under distinguished scientists

associated with universities. The ARC is also responsible for 15 independent state-aided agricultural research institutes, notably the Rothamsted Experimental Station, at Harpenden (Hertfordshire), which is the largest agricultural research institute in Britain (and was the first in the world to be established, in 1843), and deals with research on soils, fertilisers, crop physiology and crop husbandry; and the National Institute of Agricultural Engineering, at Silsoe (Bedfordshire). There are also seven independent institutes in Scotland financed by the Department of Agriculture and Fisheries for Scotland with advice from the ARC on their scientific programmes, staffing and equipment.

The ARC is planning to devote additional sums to research in a number of areas including the study of photosynthesis with the aim of increasing crop yields, the genetic manipulation of plants, the breeding of plants which could make their own nitrogen and so bring savings in the use of fertilisers, and work on studying animal behaviour and diseases to obtain healthier and more productive livestock.

Social Science Research Council

The Social Science Research Council's (SSRC) interest covers the broad areas of social affairs, education and human development, industry and employment, economic affairs, environment and planning, and government and law. It sponsors a number of designated research centres and initiates research into such topics as industrial policy, energy policy, population studies, central and local government, young people in society and inner city areas. Grants are provided for research projects at universities and other institutions, and awards made to postgraduate students. The SSRC also has five research units: the Industrial Relations Research Unit; the Cambridge Group for the History of Population and Social Structure; the Research Unit on Ethnic Relations; the Centre for Socio-legal Studies; and the Social and Applied Psychology Unit (run jointly with the Medical Research Council).

UNIVERSITY RESEARCH

Of the total estimated university expenditure on scientific research in the academic year 1980-81 (£508 million), the largest government contribution (£275 million) was through the University Grants Committee.

Scientific research in the universities and other institutions of higher education is also supported through the research councils. This support takes two forms. First, nearly two-thirds of the postgraduate students in science and technology receive maintenance awards from the research councils, through postgraduate studentships. These awards are in some cases for periods of up to three years of training in research work and in others for shorter periods for advanced studies. Second, grants and contracts are given to the universities and other institutions by the research councils for specified projects, particularly in new or developing areas of research. The ARC, MRC and SSRC maintain a number of research units within universities. In addition, the research councils provide central facilities in their own establishments for use by university research workers. The other main channels of support for scientific research in the universities are various government departments, the Royal Society, industry and the independent foundations.

A number of universities in industrial centres have acquired outstanding reputations in studies relating to their local industries, and on a national scale close relationships are fostered between the universities, industries and the Government in numerous joint projects. Britain has six science



OLD AND NEW BUILDING

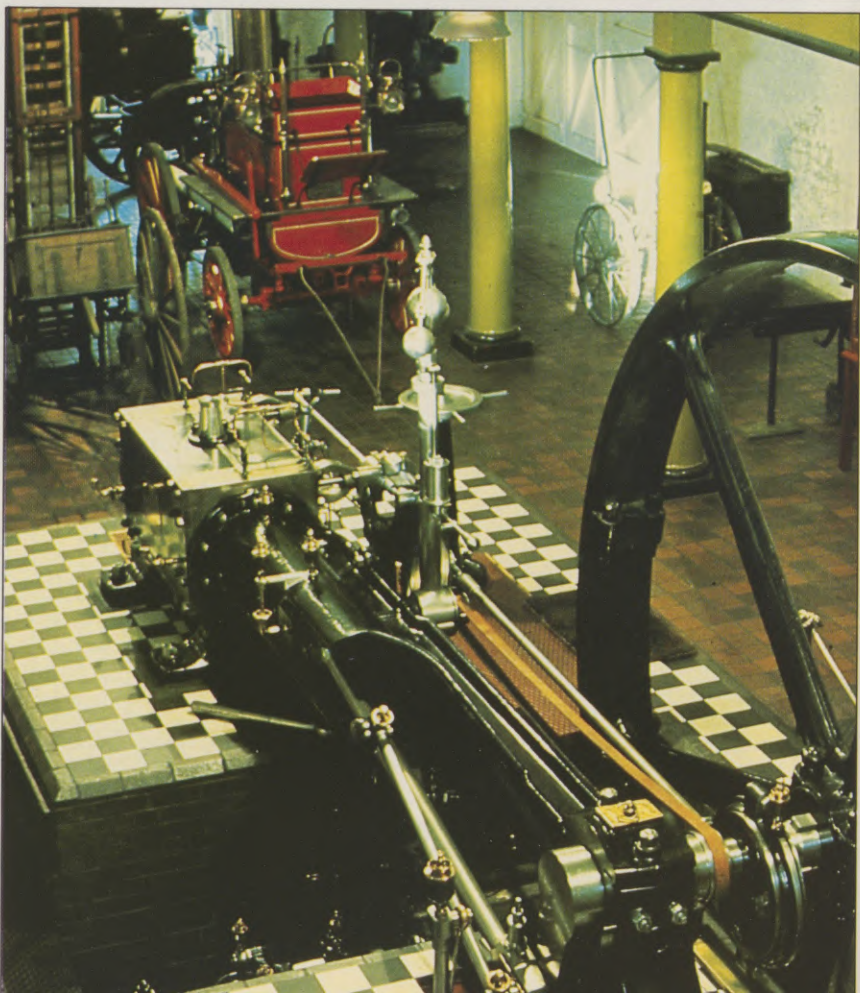
A large area of 18th century warehousing in the City of London has been redeveloped, harmonising new building with the historic atmosphere of the area. Cutlers Gardens includes offices, linked shopping arcades, sports facilities and residential units.



MUSEUMS

Above: The City Museum and Art Gallery at Stoke-on-Trent in the heart of the 'Potteries' region of England was chosen as the 1982 Museum of the Year. It includes among its exhibits one of the finest collections of ceramics in the world.

Right: The main exhibition hall of the new British Enginearium, Hove, East Sussex. In addition to collecting, restoring and exhibiting mechanical antiquities, it provides courses and lectures on the national engineering heritage.



NEW FRUIT

The Scottish Crop Research Institute, Dundee, has, after nearly 20 years' work, developed the 'Tayberry' (named after the nearby River Tay) which is a cross between a blackberry and a raspberry.

Below: The size of the fruit compared with a 10p coin.



SPORT

The 1982 London Marathon in which over 16,000 men and women took part. Many of the athletes were sponsored and raised thousands of pounds for various charities.

Below: The men's start.

Right: The finish on Westminster Bridge.

Far right: Cyclist Mandy Jones winning the 1982 women's 38-mile (61 km) road race, to become world champion.



parks, with a further 15 being constructed or planned. These are sites usually near universities containing science-based industries and designed to facilitate commercial developments in advanced technology through collaboration between university and industrial scientists and technologists.

THE LEARNED SOCIETIES

Although today most research is conducted under other auspices, the learned societies, of which there are more than 300, have retained their traditional function of facilitating the spread of knowledge. The most eminent of those concerned with science in its broadest aspects (as distinct from those societies with specialised interests and activities) are the Royal Society, Royal Society of Arts, Royal Institution and British Association.

Royal Society

The Royal Society, or, more fully, the Royal Society of London for Improving Natural Knowledge, founded in 1660, occupies a unique place in Britain's scientific affairs and is equivalent to national academies of sciences in other countries. It is the oldest such academy in the world to have enjoyed continuous existence. There are today three main categories of Fellowship: Royal Fellows; Foreign Members, of whom there are about 85; and the main body of Fellows numbering about 950. Election to the Fellowship, which is for life, is restricted to 40 persons a year. The Royal Society is governed by a council of 21 members. The President of the Society is consulted on scientific appointments to research councils (other than the Social Science Research Council) and Fellows serve on most governmental advisory councils and committees concerned with research.

The Royal Society recognises the highest standards of scientific and technological achievements through its elections to the Fellowship and the award of its medals and endowed lectureships. It awards 14 medals (not all annually) including the Copley Medal (its highest award) and three Royal Medals, while there are seven endowed lectureships. The Society encourages research through the award of grants and research appointments. It administers 18 research professorships, of which four are supported from private funds and the remainder from its parliamentary grant. A further 12 senior research fellowships and 30 other research fellowships are supported in British universities. Grants for research are made from its private funds and from its parliamentary grant, and particular funds are available for scientific investigations and expeditions, for travel by individual scientists, for studies in the history of science and for scientific publications. The dissemination of scientific knowledge is encouraged by a programme of scientific discussion meetings and through its publications. It has an extensive library of works relating to the history of science. The council gives advice to the Government and other bodies on matters relating to science and technology and their application, and study groups on particular aspects of science are established at intervals to prepare reports which are widely distributed to the scientific community. A number of committees of the council, some of them jointly with other bodies, promote improvements in education in science subjects and emphasise the importance of the applied sciences and engineering in industry.

The international relations of the Royal Society are extensive. As the national academy of science, it represents Britain in all but one of the 18 international unions comprising the International Council of Scientific Unions. It is a member of the European Science Foundation and certain other organisations, and also plays a leading part in international scientific programmes. It has agreements for exchange visits by scientists and

co-operative research with many academies throughout the world, and maintains informal relations to promote scientific co-operation with many other countries. The largest formal scheme is the European Science Exchange Programme, which provides for fellowships (usually of one year) and study visits (lasting about two months) with 16 other countries in Western Europe.

Royal Society of Arts

The Royal Society of Arts (properly, the Royal Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce) is concerned with arts, architecture and design, science and technology, industry and commerce, the environment and education. Since its foundation in 1754, one of the Society's principal objects has been to promote the progress of all branches of practical knowledge, chiefly by means of lectures and conferences, and by the publication of a monthly journal designed to enable leading authorities to report on developments of public as well as specialist interest.

Royal Institution

The Royal Institution was founded in 1799 as a public body for facilitating the introduction of useful mechanical inventions and improvements, and for teaching the application of science to everyday life. Later it undertook the 'promotion of chemical science by experiments and lectures for improving arts and manufactures', and 'the diffusion and extension of useful knowledge'. Its character, however, was largely determined by the early nineteenth-century work of Sir Humphry Davy and Michael Faraday, who established a tradition of research. Today the Royal Institution has extensive laboratories which undertake research on subjects including fast chemical kinetics, photosynthesis and solar energy. Lectures are given on recent developments in science and other branches of knowledge with particular emphasis on encouraging young people to take an interest in science.

British Association

The British Association for the Advancement of Science was founded in 1831 to promote general interest in science and its applications. One of its chief activities is the Annual Meeting, attended by many young students as well as by eminent scientists. In addition, the Association plans special lectures, exhibitions and discussions (some designed for young audiences), the publication of pamphlets, the organisation of conferences, and the appointment of study groups. The Association has 16 branches and five lectureships for young scientists (dealing with the physical, biological and social sciences) to encourage scientists to make their activities known to wider audiences. The British Association has made an important contribution to the development of science by taking or recommending action to remove obstacles to the discovery and application of scientific knowledge.

Professional Institutions

There are numerous technical institutions and professional associations, many of which promote their own disciplines or are interested in the education and professional well-being of their members. The Council of Engineering Institutions represents the chartered engineering institutions, such as those for electrical, mechanical, civil and chemical engineers. The Council of Science and Technology Institutes is a federal body with 11 member institutes representing, among others, biologists, chemists, mathematicians, metallurgists, physicists and geologists.

The Fellowship of Engineering

The Fellowship of Engineering was formed in 1976 from distinguished engineers in the Royal Society and the leading chartered engineering institutions. Its object is the pursuit, encouragement and maintenance of excellence in engineering. It provides, through the interdisciplinary character of its membership, advice on all aspects of engineering to the Government and other relevant bodies. It also arranges lectures, seminars and conferences on matters of national importance in engineering. Some 60 leading engineers in Britain are elected each year and there were 450 Fellows in 1982.

Zoological Gardens

The Zoological Society of London, whose main function is as a scientific organisation, runs the world-famous London Zoo, opened in 1828, which occupies 14 hectares (36 acres) of Regent's Park, London. In 1931 the Society opened Whipsnade Park Zoo near Dunstable (Bedfordshire) where over 2,000 animals roam a 200-hectare (500-acre) park. The Society is responsible for the Institute of Zoology, which carries out research in conservation and comparative medicine. It also organises scientific meetings and symposia for zoologists, publishes scientific journals and maintains one of the largest zoological libraries in the world. Other well-known zoos (of which there are some 150 in Britain), include those at Edinburgh, Bristol, Chester, Dudley, Marwell (near Winchester), Chessington and Jersey. There are also a number of 'safari parks' containing reservations of wild animals through which the public can pass in closed motor cars.

Botanical Gardens

The Royal Botanic Garden (founded in 1759) covers 120 hectares (300 acres) at Kew (West London) and a 200-hectare (500-acre) estate at Wakehurst Place, Ardingly (West Sussex). The Herbarium houses one of the largest collections of specimens in the world and is primarily concerned with research into the classification of plants and the preparation of floras and plant lists as well as the identification of about 50,000 specimens a year from overseas. A Conservation Unit gathers and provides information on endangered species of plant on a world-wide basis. The study of plant anatomy, plant biochemistry, cytology and genetics is undertaken in the Jodrell Laboratory at Kew. The laboratory's plant physiology section is based at Wakehurst Place where research is being carried out into seed germination and storage. A wide range of living plants, comprising some 110,000 different kinds of plant representing most plant families, is displayed at Kew.

The Royal Botanic Garden at Edinburgh was founded in 1670. Associated gardens are the Logan Botanic Garden at Ardwell near Stranraer, the Younger Botanic Garden at Benmore near Dunoon, and Dawyck Garden at Stobo near Peebles. The large collection of living plants, both out of doors and in greenhouses, is used for taxonomic research (into plant classification).

Scientific Museums

The British Museum (Natural History) is one of the world's principal centres for the general study of natural history, particularly for specialised research into taxonomy. It has five scientific departments: botany, entomology, mineralogy, palaeontology and zoology. It possesses extensive collections of extant and fossil animals and plants and of minerals, rocks and meteorites. The Science Museum illustrates the development of pure and applied science in all countries, but chiefly in Britain. The geology of Britain is probably known in more exact detail than that of any other

country in the world, and the Institute of Geological Sciences has an outstanding collection of exhibits in its Geological Museum. These three museums are in South Kensington, London. Other important collections include the Museum of Science and Industry, in Birmingham, the Museum of the History of Science, at Oxford, and the Royal Scottish Museum, Edinburgh.

INTERNATIONAL SCIENTIFIC RELATIONS

Britain is represented on the European Community's Scientific and Technical Research Committee, the object of which is to co-ordinate national policies on these matters and to implement joint projects of interest to the Community, and the Committee for Scientific and Technological Policy of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). Other intergovernmental organisations involved in scientific co-operation with which Britain is concerned include: European Co-operation in Science and Technology; specialised agencies of the United Nations such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation; the International Atomic Energy Agency; the Nuclear Energy Agency and the International Energy Agency of the OECD; the European Organisation for Nuclear Research; the European Space Agency; the European Molecular Biology Laboratory; the International Agency for Research on Cancer; and the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation Science Committee. Among non-governmental organisations Britain is represented in the international unions comprising the International Council of Scientific Unions (see p 359). The five research councils, the Royal Society and the British Academy were founder members of the European Science Foundation set up in 1974. Since 1968 Britain has signed over 35 intergovernmental agreements with other countries on co-operation in science and technology or technical co-operation. These agreements are usually intended to promote mutually beneficial exchanges and are administered by various government departments.

There are science and technology offices in the British Embassies in Washington, Paris, Bonn, Moscow, Tokyo and Peking, whose staff, among other things, promote contacts in science and technology between Britain and the countries to which they are accredited. They serve all central government departments concerned in overseas scientific affairs, as well as research councils and the Royal Society, which is the main representative of Britain in areas of non-governmental collaboration.

Increasing use of the services of the overseas science and technology offices is being made by industrialists. Reports from the embassies on overseas science and technology are disseminated to several hundred British companies. Administrative support for the overseas scientific network is provided in Britain by the Department of Industry's Overseas Technical Information Unit.

The British Council (see p 67) fosters co-operation between British scientists and scientists of overseas countries to promote among overseas specialists a better understanding and knowledge of Britain and its scientific achievements, and, in the developing countries, to identify and manage development projects in the technological, scientific and educational sectors. The Council helps British scientists to visit other countries, makes its own awards for postgraduate study in Britain by scientists from overseas and supervises programmes for senior specialists and students who come to Britain through United Nations agencies or bilateral technical co-operation schemes.

SPACE ACTIVITIES

A number of government departments have an interest in space activities, including the Department of Industry, the Department of Education and Science (through the Science and Engineering Research Council) and the Ministry of Defence. Expenditure on civil space activities in 1981-82 was about £78 million.

Britain is a member of the European Space Agency (ESA) together with Belgium, Denmark, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, the Irish Republic, Italy, the Netherlands, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland. The Department of Industry is responsible for leading the British delegation to the ESA and for British participation in its space applications programmes, with emphasis on the development of land and maritime communications satellites but including earth observation satellites, and Spacelab, a manned laboratory to be carried on board the United States Space Shuttle. In 1982 Britain joined the ESA's 'ARIANE' launcher programme, having previously been involved in the development and production of equipment for the project through the bilateral agreement with France. The Department also promotes technological development in Britain's space industry through a national space programme; the industry has advanced and wide-ranging capabilities, particularly in telecommunications. The Department of Education and Science, through the Science and Engineering Research Council, provides Britain's representatives and financial contribution for the ESA's scientific satellite programme.

There are bilateral arrangements for space research with other countries, notably the United States through its National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA). British experiments have provided information which has helped to increase scientific knowledge, especially in astronomy and astrophysics, and to interpret climatic patterns. The British Ariel series of scientific satellites (concluded in 1982 after 20 years) found several hundred new X-ray sources in space. Britain is to put an X-ray telescope on board the Federal Republic of Germany's X-ray satellite ROSAT, due to be launched on the Space Shuttle in 1987, and other international satellite missions for astronomy are being planned.

PROMOTION OF THE ARTS

Artistic and cultural activity in Britain ranges from the highest standards of professional performance to the enthusiastic support and participation of amateurs. London is one of the leading world centres for music, drama, opera and dance, and festivals held in towns and cities throughout the country attract much interest. Many British playwrights, composers, sculptors, painters, writers, actors, singers, choreographers and dancers enjoy international reputations. Television and radio play an important role in bringing a wide range of artistic events to a large audience. At an amateur level, activities which make use of local talent and resources take many forms. Amateur choral, orchestral, operatic, dramatic and other societies for the arts abound, and increasing numbers of people take an interest in crafts such as pottery, weaving and woodwork. New art forms introduced by the ethnic minorities are beginning to flourish and range from Indian dance to Pakistani poetry and Caribbean steel bands.

Promotion and patronage of the arts are the concern of both official and unofficial bodies. The Government and local authorities take an active part, and a substantial and increasing amount of help also comes from private sources, including trusts and commercial concerns. Policies towards support for the arts are broadly similar, however, and there are two main aims. One is to maintain the cultural heritage and to encourage interest in the traditional arts, and to make them more accessible to greater numbers of people. The other is to provide financial aid to working artists and craftsmen, and to encourage more people to take part in creative leisure pursuits.

A Minister of State at the Department of Education and Science, known as Minister for the Arts, is responsible for general arts policy, and administrative work connected with the arts is undertaken by the Office of Arts and Libraries within the Department. The Secretaries of State for Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland are also concerned with cultural matters. In addition, the Government is responsible for the upkeep of ancient monuments and historic buildings, and grants are made towards the maintenance of privately owned historic buildings (see p 171).

Arts education in schools, colleges, polytechnics, evening institutes and community centres is the responsibility of central government education departments, in partnership with local education authorities and voluntary bodies.

Arts Councils

Much government support for the arts takes the form of grants to independent agencies. The most important of these is the Arts Council of Great Britain, established by Royal Charter in 1946, whose main objects are to develop and improve the knowledge, understanding and practice of the arts, to increase their accessibility to the public, and to advise and co-operate with government departments, local authorities and other organisations.

Government allocations to the Arts Council in 1982-83 amount to £86 million. The Council gives financial help and advice to many organisations,

from the major opera, dance and drama companies, orchestras and festivals, to the smallest touring theatres and experimental groups. It encourages such interests as contemporary dance, photography and art films, and helps professional creative writers, choreographers, composers, artists and photographers through a variety of subsidy schemes. It promotes art exhibitions and tours of opera, dance and drama companies. Funds are provided for specialist training courses in the arts and for help with the construction or conversion of premises under its 'Housing the Arts' programme.

Organisations in Scotland and Wales receive their subsidies through the Scottish and Welsh Arts Councils which are committees of the Arts Council of Great Britain with a large measure of autonomy.

In Northern Ireland there is an independent Arts Council with aims and functions similar to those of the Arts Council of Great Britain. It receives an annual grant from the Northern Ireland Department of Education.

British Council

The British Council promotes knowledge of British culture and literature overseas (see p 70), and maintains libraries in most of the countries in which it is represented. The Council may initiate or support overseas tours by British theatre companies, orchestras, choirs, and opera and dance companies, as well as by individual actors, musicians and artists. It promotes fine arts and other exhibitions overseas, organises British participation in international exhibitions, and encourages professional interchange in all cultural fields between Britain and other countries.

Broadcasting Organisations

The BBC has orchestras employing many of the country's full-time professional musicians, and each week it broadcasts nearly 100 hours of serious music (both live and recorded) on its Radio 3 channel. It regularly commissions new music, particularly by British composers, and sponsors concerts, competitions and festivals. Independent television companies make grants for the promotion of the arts in their regions and transmit general magazine programmes on the arts. Both the BBC and IBA broadcast a wide range of new drama together with adaptations of novels and stage plays.

Local Support

In addition to their responsibilities for education (including specialised art education) and the public library service, a large number of local authorities maintain local museums and art galleries. Almost all contribute to regional arts associations, and many towards the expenses of professional symphony orchestras and local theatre companies, and towards the cost of new buildings, especially theatres.

Business Sponsorship

Valuable support for the arts comes from many voluntary sources, a practice encouraged by the Government. Industrial and commercial concerns offer a vital source of sponsorship and patronage to a wide range of arts, for example, museum exhibitions, concerts, and opera seasons, often advised by the Association for Business Sponsorship of the Arts and the Arts Council.

Regional Arts

Regional co-operation in arts patronage is encouraged through 15 regional arts associations in England and Wales which aim to ensure that the arts are more widely available. They offer financial assistance to arts organisations and advise on and promote activities. They are financed by Arts Council, local authority and private funds, these interests being represented in the governing bodies of the associations.

Festivals

Considerable interest and enthusiasm is shown for more than 200 professional arts festivals which take place each year. Those concentrating on music include the Three Choirs Festival which has taken place annually for more than 250 years in Gloucester, Worcester or Hereford; the Cheltenham Festival, largely devoted to contemporary British music; and the Aldeburgh and Bath festivals. Among others catering for a number of art forms are the Edinburgh International Festival, the Royal National Eisteddfod of Wales, the Llangollen International Musical Eisteddfod and those in Belfast, Brighton, Chichester, Malvern, Harrogate, Salisbury, Windsor and York.

Arts Centres

The 200 or so arts centres in Britain provide opportunities for enjoyment of and participation in the arts. The centres are supported mainly by regional arts associations and local authorities with some help from the Arts Council and other organisations. Many theatres and art galleries provide a focal point for the community by offering facilities for other arts.

DRAMA

Britain is one of the world's major theatre centres. As well as theatre in London and the regions, touring companies visit many of the new arts centres and community festivals. Many British actors and actresses enjoy international reputations; among those honoured for their work are Dame Peggy Ashcroft, Glenda Jackson, Lord Olivier, Sir John Gielgud and Sir Ralph Richardson.

Professional Theatre

There are some 300 theatres intended for professional use which can accommodate more than 200 people. Some are owned by non-profit-distributing companies, 50 of which receive Arts Council subsidies. The remainder are operated commercially or owned by local authorities.

London is the focus with a hundred or so subsidised and commercial theatres including those in the suburbs, varying in size from under 100 to over 1,000 seats. Most are let to producing managements on a commercial basis, but 17 are permanently occupied by subsidised companies. These include the National Theatre, which stages classical and modern plays in its three auditoria on the South Bank of the River Thames, and the Royal Shakespeare Company which, in addition to presenting seasons of Shakespearian plays at Stratford-upon-Avon, is now resident at the Barbican Theatre, in the new Barbican Centre for Arts and Conferences in the City.

Outside London there is a range of theatres, the majority jointly subsidised by the Arts Council and local authorities. Most present about ten productions a year on their main stage; some also have studio theatres which may be made available to small touring companies. A number are linked with groups which give special performances in schools. Among the best known are the Cockpit Theatre in Education Team and the Leeds Playhouse Theatre in Education Company. Some theatres accommodate tours of the major London productions and performances by companies specially formed for touring. (Both the National Theatre and the Royal Shakespeare companies have toured in Britain and overseas.) Many towns and universities have built theatres which present mixed programmes of drama and musicals, variety shows and other entertainments, and a number of towns have old theatres and opera houses which have been handsomely restored.

In order to encourage the use of theatre premises by the public throughout the day, many have gallery space, a craft or book shop, and refreshment facilities.

Amateur Theatre

The several thousand amateur dramatic societies are encouraged by local education authorities, other public bodies, and four special organisations: the British Theatre Association, the National Drama Conference, the Scottish Community Drama Association and the Association of Ulster Drama Festivals.

Dramatic Training

Training for the theatre is provided mainly in drama schools. Among the best known are the Royal Academy of Dramatic Art, the Central School of Speech and Drama, the London Academy of Music and Dramatic Art, and the Guildhall School of Music and Drama, all of which are in London; the Old Vic School in Bristol; the Royal Scottish Academy of Music and Drama in Glasgow; and, in Cardiff, the Welsh College of Music and Drama. Several universities offer courses in drama.

Theatre for Young People

Theatre for young people is popular and concessionary ticket schemes encourage attendance. In 1970 the Young Vic was opened in London as a theatre for young people. The National Youth Theatre is based in London, and the Scottish Youth Theatre was established in Edinburgh in 1970. There are some ten specialist companies, including the Unicorn Theatre for Young People, Theatre Centre and the Polka Company, some of which are supported by the Arts Council. Most repertory companies provide programmes and other types of theatre activity for young people.

MUSIC, OPERA AND DANCE

Pop music, folk music, jazz, light music and brass bands all have substantial followings while the widespread interest in classical music is reflected in the large audiences at choral and orchestral concerts and at performances of opera, dance and chamber music. Singers like Dame Janet Baker and Benjamin Luxon and conductors like Sir Colin Davis and Neville Marriner reach a wide audience through their recordings as well as by their performances, and the works of composers such as Sir Michael Tippett, Sir William Walton and the late Lord (Benjamin) Britten enjoy international acclaim.

The Arts Council offers subsidies to orchestras, opera, dance and mime companies, music societies and festivals. It also provides bursaries and commissions for composers, musicians, designers and choreographers. Other sources of financial assistance include the regional arts associations, local authorities and commercial sponsorship.

The Master of the Queen's Music, Malcolm Williamson, holds an office within the Royal Household, with responsibility for organising and writing music for state occasions.

Music

Seasons of concerts are promoted every year in many of the large towns and cities. In central London the principal concert halls are the Royal Festival Hall, next to which are the Queen Elizabeth Hall and the Purcell Room accommodating smaller-scale performances; the Royal Albert Hall, where the annual summer season of Promenade Concerts is given; the Wigmore Hall, a recital centre; and St John's, Smith Square. The Barbican Centre for Arts and Conferences contains a large new concert hall.

Pop Music

Among the characteristics of modern pop music are the diversity of styles, the frequency with which new styles and stars emerge, and the short life-span of many groups. Usually electric guitars and drums provide the instrumental basis, but there has been an increasing use of brass instruments, while some groups have abandoned traditional instruments for

electronic synthesizers. Popular music is an integral part of 'youth culture', and is generally accepted to have been so since the early 1960s when groups such as The Beatles and The Rolling Stones, and later The Who and Led Zeppelin, achieved international success. British groups have continued to appeal to audiences worldwide and often set new trends in music; some of the more recent groups to have achieved international renown are Dire Straits, The Police and Ultravox.

Orchestral Music

The leading symphony orchestras are the London Philharmonic, the London Symphony (resident at the new Barbican Centre for Arts and Conferences), the Philharmonia, the Royal Philharmonic, the Royal Liverpool Philharmonic, the Hallé (Manchester), the City of Birmingham Symphony, the Bournemouth Symphony, and the Ulster and the Scottish National. The BBC's orchestras provide broadcast concerts which are often open to the public. There are also specialised string and chamber orchestras such as the English Chamber Orchestra, the Academy of St Martin-in-the-Fields, the London Mozart Players, the City of London Sinfonia, the Academy of Ancient Music, the Bournemouth Sinfonietta, the Northern Sinfonia (Newcastle upon Tyne), the Scottish Baroque Ensemble and the Scottish Chamber Orchestra. The London Sinfonietta specialises in performing contemporary music. Early music played on authentic instruments is attracting increasing interest throughout the country.

Choral Societies

Among the principal choral societies are the Bach Choir, the Royal Choral Society, the Cardiff Polyphonic Choir, the Edinburgh Royal Choral Union and the Belfast Philharmonic Society. Almost all the leading orchestras have close links with particular choirs, such as the Philharmonia Chorus and the London Symphony Chorus.

Amateur Interest

Amateur music-making is encouraged by county music committees aided by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and united in the Standing Conference for Amateur Music. The National Federation of Music Societies (the organisation for chamber music societies, amateur choirs and orchestras) receives Arts Council funds to help affiliated societies with the cost of engaging professional musicians. Some 1,200 music societies are members of the Federation, which advises them on concert planning and promotion. The Welsh Amateur Music Federation, funded by the Welsh Arts Council, and the Scottish Amateur Music Association similarly assist amateur music-making.

Opera and Dance

Regular seasons of opera and ballet are given at the Royal Opera House, Covent Garden, London, which receives financial assistance from the Arts Council and from private and business sponsorship. The Royal Opera House has a permanent orchestra which plays for the Royal Opera and the Royal Ballet. Seasons of opera in English are given by the English National Opera which performs at the London Coliseum and makes regional tours. Sadler's Wells Theatre houses many of the London performances of visiting opera and dance companies and the Sadler's Wells Royal Ballet which performs in London and the regions; the New Sadler's Wells Opera Company is to give its opening season early in 1983. Scottish Opera has regular winter seasons at its permanent home, the Theatre Royal in Glasgow, and tours mainly in Scotland and northern England. Welsh

National Opera has seasons in Cardiff and other cities and, with Kent Opera, provides most of the touring productions in England. Opera North, based in Leeds, undertakes tours in the north of England.

An opera season, for which international casts are specially assembled, is held every summer at Glyndebourne in Sussex; this is followed with an autumn tour by Glyndebourne Touring Opera with different casts. Opera in Northern Ireland is promoted by the Northern Ireland Opera Trust and the Studio Opera Group.

Dance and Mime Companies

Dance companies also include: London Festival Ballet, which divides its performances almost equally between London and the regions; Ballet Rambert (Britain's oldest ballet company, which re-formed in 1966 as a leading modern dance company); Scottish Ballet, based in Glasgow; London Contemporary Dance Theatre (which provides regular seasons of contemporary dance in London besides touring extensively); and Northern Ballet Theatre, based in Manchester. Extemporary Dance Company and Moving Picture Mime Show also provide programmes throughout the year. Several modern dance groups are supported by regional arts associations. About 20 small dance and mime groups or performers are assisted by the Arts Council.

Training in Music, Opera and Dance

Professional training in music is given mainly at colleges of music. The leading colleges, which are grant-aided, include the Royal Academy of Music, the Royal College of Music, the Guildhall School of Music and Drama and Trinity College of Music in London. There are also the Royal Scottish Academy of Music and Drama in Glasgow, the Royal Northern College of Music in Manchester, the Welsh College of Music and Drama, Cardiff, and the Birmingham School of Music. The National Opera Studio provides advanced training courses. The leading dance schools are the Royal Ballet School, the Rambert Academy and the London School of Contemporary Dance which, with many private schools, have helped in raising British dance to its present high standard. Dance is now a subject for degree studies.

Youth and Music, an organisation affiliated to the international Jeunesses Musicales, encourages attendance by young people at opera, dance and concert performances. Ballet for All, run by the Royal Academy of Dancing, presents lecture-demonstrations on classical ballet to young audiences. Scottish Ballet Workshop works in schools throughout Scotland.

Many children learn to play musical instruments at school, and some take the examinations of the Associated Board of the Royal Schools of Music. The National Youth Orchestras of Great Britain, of Scotland and of Wales and other youth orchestras are noted for their high standards. Over a third of the players in the European Community Youth Orchestra come from Britain.

FILMS

British films, actors and the creative and technical services which support them have achieved successes in international film festivals and other events. The British film *Chariots of Fire* won four United States 'Oscar' awards for 1981, including that for best film. Oscars have also been won by British technicians for work on American financed films made in Britain, for example, *Star Wars*. Besides feature films, including co-productions with other countries, the industry produces films for television as well as promotional, advertising and training films.

There are about 1,550 cinema screens in Great Britain, and estimated attendances in 1981 amounted to 86 million. Cinema attendance figures have been declining since the mid-1950s: in 1953 the average weekly cinema audience was some 25 million but by 1981 it was less than 10 per cent of that figure. A major reason for this has been the growth of television viewing, while a more recent development which is likely to have an effect on cinema-going is the rapid rise in the sale of home video cassette recorders, with feature and other films available at low cost for purchase or hire.

The Government does not invest directly in films. A levy on cinema admissions, the Eady levy, provides a fund (the British Film Fund) to benefit the makers of eligible films. The National Film Finance Corporation receives money from this fund for the production and distribution of feature films, and also provides loans for scriptwriting and other pre-production costs. Grants from the levy can be made to the Children's Film Foundation, the British Film Institute Production Board and the National Film School. The rest of the fund is distributed to makers of eligible films in proportion to a film's takings. The Government makes a grant to the Welsh Film Board as part of the funds allocated each year in support of the Welsh language.

A specified number of British or European Community main feature films and supporting programmes must be shown in British cinemas each year; the quota is 15 per cent.

Cinema Licensing and Film Censorship

Local authorities have powers to license cinemas and censor films. They have a legal duty to prohibit the admission of children under 16 to unsuitable films, and may censor films for adults. In considering the suitability of films the authorities normally rely on the judgment of an independent body, the British Board of Film Censors, to which most films for public showing are submitted. The Board was set up on the initiative of the cinema industry, to ensure a proper standard was maintained in films offered to the public. It does not use any written code of censorship, and may require cuts to be made before granting a certificate to a film; very rarely, it refuses a certificate. Films passed by the Board are put into one of four categories: 'U' (for general exhibition); 'A' (for general exhibition but parents are advised that the film contains material which they may not wish children under the age of 14 years to see); 'AA' (for persons of not less than 14 years of age); and 'X' (for persons of not less than 18 years of age).

Documentary Films

The documentary tradition in short film production in Britain was founded in 1929 when a group of directors began making factual films of a distinctive and imaginative kind for the Government, and later for commercial organisations. The war years saw a big expansion in this field and, since then, British documentary technicians have continued to produce, for both cinema and television, high quality factual films which have won numerous international awards. The British Industrial and Scientific Film Association promotes the use of films in industry, science and commerce. The Federation of Specialised Film Associations is the trade association of documentary, short, industrial, advertising and cartoon film makers. The National Panel for Film Festivals, under the aegis of the British Council, is responsible for the selection of British entries for international short and documentary film festivals.

The Government sponsors a wide range of documentary films for

selected viewing and for television in Britain and overseas. They are produced through the Central Office of Information and the majority are commissioned from private companies. Several major documentary film libraries provide films on hire or free of charge to a wide variety of educational, industrial and other users.

The Arts Council funds, promotes and distributes films on the arts. The films (many of which have won international awards) cover all arts subjects and are intended for educational and television use both in Britain and overseas.

Children's Films

Cinemas which give children's shows require a special licence from local authorities. About 145 cinemas provide programmes for children on Saturday mornings. The Children's Film Foundation, with aid from the British Film Fund, produces and distributes entertainment films specially designed for children.

British Film Institute

The development of film and television as an art is promoted by the British Film Institute, founded in 1933, and in Scotland by the Scottish Film Council; both bodies receive government grants. The Institute offers financial and technical help to new and experienced film makers who cannot find support elsewhere. It administers the National Film Theatre in London and the National Film Archive, and has a library from which films and video cassettes may be hired. The Institute's Information Division has extensive international collections of books, periodicals, scripts, stills and posters, offers an information service on all aspects of film and television, and produces a range of publications, including the British National Film Catalogue which records films and video cassettes available in Britain. The Education Department produces study materials and offers an advisory service to teachers of film and television at all levels of formal education and increasingly in adult education.

The National Film Archive contains nearly 40,000 films, including news-reels and other miscellaneous items, and over 10,000 television programmes. The National Film Theatre has two cinemas showing films of outstanding historical, artistic or technical interest. It is unique in offering regular programmes unrestricted by commercial considerations or by the age or nationality of the films. Each year it organises the London Film Festival. The British Film Institute has promoted and helps to fund the development of some 33 regional film theatres and is involved in establishing film and television centres with a range of activities and facilities in a number of major cities. It makes grants to the British Federation of Film Societies, the British Universities Film Council and the Society for Education in Film and Television. In Wales, the Welsh Arts Council acts as the Institute's agent. In Scotland, the Scottish Film Council is responsible for regional film theatres and administers the Scottish Film Archive; it is also responsible for promoting the use of film and television in education. Together with the Scottish Arts Council it makes grants towards film production in Scotland. Grants in Northern Ireland are made by the Arts Council of Northern Ireland.

Training in Film Production

An independent National Film School financed primarily by grants from the Government and the British Film Fund offers courses for writers, directors, producers and cameramen. Training in film production is also given at the London International Film School, the Royal College of Art, and at some polytechnics and other institutions.

VISUAL ARTS

A number of modern British sculptors and painters have a high international reputation, and have received many international prizes and commissions for major works in foreign cities. Two of the best known are Sir Henry Moore and David Hockney.

State support for painting and sculpture mainly takes the form of maintenance and purchase grants for the national museums and galleries, purchase grants for municipal museums and galleries, and grants towards the cost of art education. The Government also encourages high standards of industrial design and craftsmanship through grants to the Design Council.

The Arts Council maintains its own collection of contemporary British art, and organises or offers grants or guarantees for a variety of exhibitions throughout the country. It runs the Hayward and Serpentine galleries in London and finances a number of art and photography galleries in London and the regions; an example is the Side Gallery in Newcastle upon Tyne, which is the largest gallery in Britain devoted entirely to photography. The Council also provides support for artists and photographers through purchasing, commissioning fellowships and residences. Grant aid is also available to support art and photography books and magazines. The Scottish and Welsh Arts Councils have galleries in Edinburgh and Cardiff respectively, and the Northern Ireland Arts Council runs a gallery in Belfast.

The Art Market

London is a major centre for the international art market and regular sales of works of art take place in the main auction houses, two of the longest established being Sotheby's and Christie's. Certain items are covered by export control. These are: works of art and collectors' items over 50 years old and worth more than £8,000 (more than £2,000 in the case of British historical portraits); photographic material over 60 years old and worth more than £200; documentary material over 50 years old; and British archaeological material over 50 years old. A licence is required before such items can be exported, but this is granted automatically in the case of objects imported into Britain within the last 50 years. In other cases the application for a licence is considered by the Department of Trade, and, if the Department's expert advisers recommend the withholding of a licence, the matter is referred to the Reviewing Committee on the Export of Works of Art. If the Committee considers a work to be of national importance it can advise the Government to withhold the export licence for a specified time to give a public museum or art gallery an opportunity to buy at a fair price.

Museums and Art Galleries

Over 1,000 museums and art galleries are open to the public including the major national collections and a wide variety of municipally and independently owned institutions. More than 21.6 million people visited the national art galleries and museums in 1981.

The thirteenth conference of the International Council of Museums, *Museums for a Developing World*, is to be held at the Barbican Centre in London in 1983.

National Collections

The national museums and art galleries in London contain some of the most comprehensive collections of objects of artistic, archaeological, scientific, historical and general interest. They are the British Museum, the Victoria and Albert Museum, the Science Museum, the National Gallery,

the Tate Gallery, the National Portrait Gallery, the Imperial War Museum, the National Army Museum, the Royal Air Force Museum, the National Maritime Museum, the Wallace Collection, the British Museum (Natural History) and the Geological Museum. Some of these national museums also have branches outside London, examples being the National Railway Museum at York, which is part of the Science Museum, and portrait collections at Montacute House (Somerset) and Beningborough Hall (Yorkshire), administered by the National Portrait Gallery in collaboration with the National Trust.

There are three national museums and art galleries in Edinburgh: the National Museum of Antiquities of Scotland, the Royal Scottish Museum (including the Scottish United Services Museum), and the National Galleries of Scotland (comprising the National Gallery of Scotland, the Scottish National Portrait Gallery, and the Scottish National Gallery of Modern Art). The National Museum of Wales, in Cardiff, has a branch at St Fagan's Castle where the Welsh Folk Museum is housed, an Industrial and Maritime Museum in Cardiff's dockland, the Museum of the Woollen Industry at Drefach Felindre, and the North Wales Quarrying Museum at Llanberis. In Northern Ireland there are two national museums: the Ulster Museum in Belfast and the Ulster Folk and Transport Museum, County Down.

Most of the national collections are administered by trustees, but the Victoria and Albert and Science Museums are the responsibility of the Office of Arts and Libraries in the Department of Education and Science, and the Royal Scottish Museum, the Scottish Education Department. The Government has decided that these three museums, also, should be administered by independent trustees. A new Museum of Scotland, to record the country's cultural heritage, is planned.

Other Collections

Other important collections in London include the Armouries in the Tower of London, the Public Record Office, the Museum of London and Sir John Soane's Museum. In Buckingham Palace the Queen's Gallery has exhibitions of pictures from the extensive royal collections.

Most cities and towns have museums devoted to art, archaeology and natural history, usually administered by the local authorities, but sometimes by local learned societies or by individuals or trustees. Both Oxford and Cambridge are rich in museums, many of them associated with the universities (for example, the Ashmolean Museum in Oxford, founded in 1683, the oldest in the country, and the Fitzwilliam Museum in Cambridge). There are important museums and art galleries in Aberdeen, Belfast, Birmingham, Bristol, Cardiff, Dundee, Glasgow, Leeds, Leicester, Liverpool, Manchester, Norwich, Reading, Sheffield, Southampton and York. Many private art collections in historic family mansions, including those owned by the National Trust, are open to the public. An increasing number of open air museums depict the regional life of an area or preserve early industrial remains (for example, the Weald and Downland Museum in Sussex, the North of England Open Air Museum in Durham, and the Ironbridge Gorge Museum in Shropshire).

Finance

All national collections are financed chiefly from government funds. Besides meeting administrative and maintenance costs, the Government provides annual purchase grants and may also provide special purchase grants. An independent National Heritage Memorial Fund financed by the

Government provides assistance to organisations wishing to acquire land, buildings, works of art and other objects associated with the national heritage. Pre-eminent works of art accepted by the Government in place of capital transfer tax are allocated to public galleries.

Museums and art galleries, maintained by local authorities, universities and private benefactions, receive help in building up their collections through the annual government grants administered by the Victoria and Albert, Science and Royal Scottish Museums. Financial and practical assistance is also given by the Arts Council and by trusts and voluntary bodies, including the Calouste Gulbenkian Foundation, the National Art-Collections Fund, the Contemporary Art Society and the Association for Business Sponsorship of the Arts.

Policy and Co-ordination

The Government is advised on policy matters by the Museums and Galleries Commission which also promotes co-operation between national and provincial institutions. Nine area museum councils, grant-aided by the Government, provide technical services and advice on conservation, display, documentation and publicity.

The independent Museums Association, to which museums and art galleries and their staffs belong and which also has many overseas members, is a focus for the collection of information and discussion of matters relating to museum administration, and as a training and examining body for professional qualifications.

Exhibitions

In addition to temporary exhibitions provided by the Arts Council, the national museums and galleries and the area museums, there are many commercial exhibitions held in the galleries of dealers. There are also a number of national art exhibiting societies, some of which, notably the Royal Academy at Burlington House, have their own galleries in London. The Royal Scottish Academy holds annual exhibitions in Edinburgh. There are also children's exhibitions, including the National Exhibition of Children's Art.

Training in Art and Design

Art and design education is provided in colleges of art, further education colleges and polytechnics, maintained by local education authorities. Other institutions offering courses include universities, the Royal Academy Schools and private art schools. At postgraduate level there is the Royal College of Art which awards its own degrees. Art is also taught at an advanced level at the four Scottish Central (Art) Institutions administered by the Scottish Education Department.

The leading academic institutions for the study of the history of art are the Courtauld and Warburg Institutes of the University of London, and the Department of Classical Art and Archaeology in University College, London.

Art has a place in all school curricula, and the Society for Education through Art encourages, among other activities, the purchase by schools of original works of art by organising an annual Pictures for Schools exhibition.

Crafts

Government grants for the crafts, amounting to some £1.6 million in 1982-83, are administered in England and Wales by the Crafts Council. The Council holds regular exhibitions at its London gallery, which also houses a craft resource centre, including a colour slide library, and publishes *Crafts* magazine, books on craft subjects, and slides. It runs a number

of grant and loan schemes to help craftsmen and women at different stages in their careers. The Council runs activities in education and conservation and manages a craft shop at the Victoria and Albert Museum, which sells work by British craftsmen. The British Craft Centre in London, which receives an annual grant from the Crafts Council, holds some ten exhibitions a year. Scotland receives a separate government grant which is similarly administered by the Crafts Consultative Committee of the Scottish Development Agency. The Welsh Arts Council acts as the agent of the Crafts Council in supporting the crafts in Wales.

LITERATURE AND LIBRARIES

The study of literature is included in the curricula of all schools, colleges and universities. There are free public libraries throughout the country, private libraries and many private literary societies. Book reviews are featured in the press and on television and radio and there are numerous periodicals concerned with literature. Recognition of outstanding literary merit is provided by a number of awards, including the Booker, W. H. Smith & Son, and Whitbread prizes. Awards to encourage young writers include those by the Somerset Maugham Trust Fund and the E. C. Gregory Trust Fund. Many British writers are internationally recognised. Some of the best known living writers are Graham Greene, Anthony Burgess, William Golding, Margaret Drabble and Iris Murdoch.

A scheme to give authors the right to receive payment from government funds for the use of their books borrowed from public libraries began in 1982. The title Poet Laureate is conferred on a poet who receives a stipend as an officer of the Royal Household; the holder of the title is Sir John Betjeman.

Authors' Copyright

The author of any original literary, dramatic, musical or artistic work is automatically protected by the Copyright Act 1956 and its related international conventions¹ from the unauthorised reproduction of the work both before and after publication. The author of the work is the first owner of the copyright, and the normal term of copyright in published original works is the life of the author and a period of 50 years after his or her death.

Literary and Philological Societies

Societies to promote literature include the English Association and the Royal Society of Literature. The British Academy for the Promotion of Historical, Philosophical and Philological Studies (the British Academy) is the leading society of humanistic studies and receives a government grant.

Other specialist societies include the Early English Text Society, the Bibliographical Society, the Harleian Society, the Saltire Society, and several societies devoted to particular authors, the largest of which is the Dickens Fellowship. A number of societies, for example, the Poetry Society, sponsor poetry readings and recitals. There are also a number of clubs and societies, such as the Poetry Book Society, which distribute selected new books to their members.

Books

In 1981 British publishers issued over 43,000 separate titles: more than 32,400 new ones, and nearly 10,600 reprints, new editions and translations. There has been an increase in the number of book clubs, where books may be bought by mail order.

¹A copyright work first published in Britain has automatic copyright in all countries which are members of the Berne Copyright Convention and the Universal Copyright Convention. The law on copyright is under review.

Leading organisations representing book production and distribution interests are the Publishers' Association and the Booksellers' Association. The British Council also publicises British books and periodicals through its libraries in over 60 countries, its programme of book exhibitions (272 exhibitions were mounted in 1981-82) and its publications including the monthly *British Book News*. The Book Development Council promotes British books overseas. (For sales and exports, see p 232.) The National Book League, with a membership including authors, publishers, booksellers, librarians and readers, encourages interest in books and arranges exhibitions in Britain and overseas.

Libraries

The British Library, the national library for the United Kingdom, is organised in three divisions. The Reference Division, which receives a copy of each new book, pamphlet or newspaper published in Britain and acquires significant literature from other countries, includes the Department of Printed Books, holding about 10 million titles; the Department of Manuscripts; the Department of Oriental Manuscripts and Printed Books; the Science Reference Library, which holds collections in modern science, technology, patents, trade marks and designs; and the India Office Library and Records. The Lending Division at Boston Spa, West Yorkshire, has nearly 4.5 million volumes including some 56,000 current periodicals available on loan to other libraries. It also has access to many millions of books in other libraries and is the national centre for inter-library lending within Britain and between Britain and countries overseas. The Bibliographic Services Division processes the material deposited with the British Library for inclusion in its catalogues and publishes the *British National Bibliography* which lists all new books and new editions published in Britain, *The British Education Index*, *Serials in the British Library*, the *British Catalogue of Music* and other bibliographic records. It also provides automated information services of bibliographic data for libraries and their users throughout Britain. The Research and Development Department is a major source of funding for the support of research and development in library and information services. Construction of a new building for the British Library's London services began in 1982. Under copyright legislation, the National Libraries of Scotland and of Wales, the Bodleian Library of Oxford University and the Cambridge University Library can claim copies of all new British publications.

Some of the national museums also have large libraries, and many government departments have important libraries. The Public Record Office contains the records of the superior courts of law and of most government departments, as well as such famous historical documents as Domesday Book. In Scotland the Scottish Record Office serves the same purpose. The National Register of Archives (maintained by the Historical Manuscripts Commission) contains particulars of local and private records.

Besides the few great private collections, such as that of the London Library, there are the rich resources of the learned societies and institutions (for scientific societies and institutions, see p 359). Examples are the libraries of the Royal Institute of International Affairs, the Royal Commonwealth Society, the Royal Geographical Society, the British Theatre Association, the Royal Academy of Music, the National Library for the Blind and the National Book League.

University Libraries

The university libraries of Oxford and Cambridge are unmatched by those of the more recent foundations, although the combined library resources of the colleges and institutions of the University of London total some 5.5 million volumes, the John Rylands University Library in Manchester contains some 3 million volumes, and the university libraries of Edinburgh, Birmingham, Glasgow and Leeds each have over 1 million volumes. Many universities have important research collections in special subjects; for example, the Barnes Medical Library at Birmingham, and the British Library of Political and Economic Science at the London School of Economics.

Special Libraries

Many associations, commercial and industrial organisations, as well as government departments and other national institutions, operate library and information services. Although most of these are primarily intended for use within the organisation, many special libraries can by arrangement be used by people interested in the special area covered, and the specialist publications held are often available for inter-library lending.

Public Libraries

Britain's network of public libraries, administered by local public library authorities, has a total stock of some 131 million books.

Qualified and specialist staff are available for consultation in all but the smallest service points. About one-third of the total population are members of public libraries. Public library authorities in England and Wales have a duty to provide (with some limitations) a free lending and reference library service of books and periodicals. In Scotland local authorities must provide library facilities. In Northern Ireland the public library service is the responsibility of the education and library boards which also have a duty to make library services available to schools. There are some 5,500 public library service points in Britain; some areas are served by mobile libraries of which about 700 are in service, and domiciliary services cater for people who are unable to visit a library.

Many libraries have collections of records, cassettes and musical scores for loan to the public. Notable examples are the City of Westminster Central Music Library and the Henry Watson Music Library at Manchester Central Library. A number of libraries also lend from collections of works of art, either originals or reproductions. Nearly all provide children's departments, while reference and information sections and art, music, commercial and technical departments meet the growing and more specific demands in these fields. Most libraries hold documents on local history.

Under a voluntary system of library co-operation in England and Wales eight regional library bureaux (consisting mainly of public libraries in each area) aim to be largely self-sufficient in the interlending of current British books, achieved in some regions by a system of co-operative subject specialisation.

The National Libraries of Scotland and of Wales carry out functions similar to those of the regional bureaux and the Lending Division of the British Library. In Northern Ireland access to the stocks of all co-operating libraries is available to the libraries controlled by the five education and library boards and to the libraries of Queen's University and the New University of Ulster.

Library Association

The principal professional organisation is the Library Association. It maintains a Register of Chartered Librarians, publishes books, pamphlets and official journals, and holds regular conferences.

More daily newspapers, national and regional, are sold per person in Britain than in most other developed countries. On an average day nearly three out of four adults over the age of 15 read a national morning newspaper and about one in two reads an evening newspaper. National papers have a total circulation of nearly 15 million on weekdays and 17.2 million on Sundays though the total readership is considerably greater.

The press caters for a variety of political views, interests and levels of education. There is no state control or censorship of the press, but it is subject to the general laws on publication (see p 385). Newspapers are almost always financially independent of any political party and are not obliged to follow any specific line. Where they express pronounced views and have obvious political leanings, these derive from traditional, proprietorial and other non-party influences. In order to preserve their character and traditions, a few newspapers and periodicals are governed by various trustee-type arrangements. Others have management arrangements to ensure editors' authority and independence.

Against this background of press freedom, Britain's position within UNESCO discussions on a 'new world information order' and other communications questions has been to oppose measures which could have the effect of sanctioning the use of the media as an instrument of government policy and limiting the free flow of information. At the same time, it has reaffirmed its willingness to support, through existing aid channels, efforts to improve communications systems in the developing world.

Unlike most of its European counterparts the British press receives no subsidies and relatively few tax and postal concessions. Newspaper and magazine sales and advertising receipts are zero-rated for value added tax. Registered newspapers receive a concession on postal rates, and there are concessions on 'per-word' rates for international press telegrams and photo-telegrams. Like all postal customers, publishers can obtain reductions in charges for regular bulk postings.

There are over 120 daily (Monday to Saturday) and Sunday newspapers and about 1,000 weekly newspapers. These figures include certain specialised papers with circulations limited not by region but by interest; for instance, business, sporting and religious newspapers, and newspapers in foreign languages. Newsprint, some 90 per cent of which is imported, forms roughly a third of average national newspaper costs while labour represents about 45 per cent. Revenue from sales accounts for varying proportions of income with relatively small proportions in the case of some high circulation newspapers and periodicals which derive considerable earnings from their advertising. The financial problems which have led to the closure of some newspapers in recent years have resulted from rising costs of raw materials and labour in a highly competitive market. At the same time some new titles have been launched.

Ownership

Ownership of the national, London-evening and regional daily newspapers is concentrated in the hands of a number of large press publishing groups (the groups controlling the national press are listed in Table 35), but there

Table 35: National Newspapers

		Circulation ^a average Jan.–June 1982
Title and foundation date	Controlled by	
NATIONAL DAILIES		
<i>Daily Express</i> (1900)	Fleet Holdings	2,034,396
<i>Daily Mail</i> (1896)	Associated Newspapers Group	1,894,460
<i>Daily Mirror</i> (1903)	Reed International	3,355,688
<i>Daily Star</i> (1978)	Fleet Holdings	1,390,628
<i>The Daily Telegraph</i> (1855)	Telegraph Newspaper Trust	1,305,575
<i>Financial Times</i> (1888)	Pearson Longman	202,545
<i>The Guardian</i> (1821)	The Guardian and Manchester Evening News	420,271
<i>Morning Star</i> (1966)	The People's Press Printing Society	30,345
<i>The Sun</i> (1969)	News International	4,077,891
<i>The Times</i> (1785)	News International	300,700
NATIONAL SUNDAYS		
<i>The Mail on Sunday</i> (1982)	Associated Newspapers Group	n.a.
<i>News of the World</i> (1843)	News International	4,314,008
<i>The Observer</i> (1791)	George Outram & Co, a subsidiary of Lonrho	845,431
<i>Sunday Express</i> (1918)	Fleet Holdings	2,929,757
<i>Sunday Mirror</i> (1963)	Reed International	3,666,250
<i>Sunday People</i> (1881)	Reed International	3,483,183
<i>Sunday Telegraph</i> (1961)	Telegraph Newspaper Trust	850,326
<i>The Sunday Times</i> (1822)	News International	1,314,713

^aCirculation figures are those of the Audit Bureau of Circulations (founded in 1931 and consisting of publishers, advertisers and advertising bureaux) and are certified average daily or weekly net sales for the period. The circulation figure of the *Morning Star* is otherwise audited.

n.a. = not available; the paper was first published in May 1982.

are, in addition, some 200 independent regional and local newspaper publishers.

Although most enterprises are organised as limited liability companies, individual and partner proprietorship survives. The large national newspaper and periodical publishers are major corporations with interests ranging over the whole field of publishing and communications; some have shares in independent television and radio contracting companies while others are involved in industrial and commercial activities.

The law provides safeguards against the risks inherent in undue concentration of the means of communication. For instance, if it appears that newspaper shareholdings in television programme companies have led or are leading to results contrary to the public interest, the Independent Broadcasting Authority may, with the consent of the Home Secretary, notify the companies that their programmes may cease to be transmitted. There is a similar stipulation for independent local radio; if a local newspaper has a monopoly in the area, it is not allowed to have a controlling

interest in the local radio station. In addition, it is unlawful to transfer a newspaper or newspaper assets to a proprietor whose newspapers have an average daily circulation amounting, with that of the newspaper to be taken over, to 500,000 or more without the written consent of the Secretary of State for Trade. Except in certain limited cases, as, for example, in the change of ownership of *The Times* and *The Sunday Times*, this may be given only after the Secretary of State has referred the matter to the Monopolies and Mergers Commission and received its report.

The 'National' Press

Ten morning daily papers and eight Sunday papers (see Table 35) circulate throughout the country, and are known as national newspapers. They are produced in London (where Fleet Street is the traditional centre for the press), but six of the dailies and five of the Sundays also print northern editions in Manchester (accounting for about a quarter of the total production of the national press). An edition of the *Financial Times* is also printed in Frankfurt in the Federal Republic of Germany.

The leading Scottish papers, *The Scotsman* and the *Glasgow Herald*, have a considerable circulation outside Scotland.

National newspapers are often thought of as either 'quality' or 'popular' papers on the basis of differences in style, content and format (broadsheet or tabloid, though this is not a rigid distinction). Four dailies and three Sundays are usually described as quality newspapers. The three Sunday qualities and three populars produce colour supplements as part of the paper.

The slow decline in newspaper circulations as a whole (from 36 million in 1972 to 32 million in 1982) conceals the fact that the circulation of some newspapers has remained generally steady, while that of others has increased.

English Regional Newspapers

The regional newspapers of England (outside London, over 70 morning or evening dailies and Sundays and some 650 newspapers appearing once or twice a week) provide mainly regional and local news. The daily newspapers also give coverage of national and international affairs. Generally, regional evening newspapers are non-political, while the morning newspapers adopt a more positive political stance and tend to be independent or conservative in outlook.

The total circulation of these papers is estimated at over 7 million. Of the morning papers the *Yorkshire Post* (Leeds) and the *Northern Echo* (Darlington) have circulations of some 95,000 and two provincial Sunday papers—the *Sunday Sun* (Newcastle upon Tyne) and the *Sunday Mercury* (Birmingham)—have circulations of over 123,000 and 171,000 respectively. Circulation figures of evening papers start at about 15,000; most are in the 20,000–90,000 range, although the *Manchester Evening News* and the *Birmingham Evening Mail* have circulations of over 308,000 and the *Liverpool Echo* of over 219,000. Weekly papers are mainly of local appeal; they are also a valuable medium for local advertising. Most have circulations in the 5,000–30,000 range.

There are also many free distribution newspapers (mostly weekly), some published by orthodox newspaper publishers.

London Papers

The one London evening newspaper, *The Standard*, formed in 1980 from a merger of the *Evening Standard* (1827) and the *Evening News* (1881), has sales of some 569,000. The local weeklies (about 115) include papers for every district in Greater London. They circulate in as many as six to eight

local editions of individual papers, affiliated in some cases to larger groups. As elsewhere, there is a range of free distribution newspapers.

A number of evening newspapers, using the latest production technology, are published in the outer metropolitan area.

Wales

Wales has one daily morning newspaper, the *Western Mail*, published in Cardiff; its circulation of just under 81,000 is mainly in south Wales. In north Wales the *Daily Post*, published in Liverpool, gives wide coverage to events in the area. Evening papers published in Wales are the *South Wales Echo*, Cardiff; the *South Wales Argus*, Newport; the *South Wales Evening Post*, Swansea; and the *Evening Leader*, Wrexham. Their circulation range is between 27,600 and 103,000. North Wales is also served by the *Liverpool Echo*, while the *Shropshire Star* covers parts of mid- and north Wales, and there is coverage to a smaller extent by the *Manchester Evening News*. *Sulyn*, the first Sunday newspaper in Welsh was launched in October 1982.

The weekly press (some 60) includes English language papers, some of which carry articles in Welsh, bilingual papers, and Welsh language papers. Of the £1.75 million allocated by the Government for the support of the Welsh language, £15,750 is to help Welsh community newspapers.

Scotland

Scotland has six morning, six evening and four Sunday newspapers. The morning papers, with circulations of between about 92,000 and over 738,000, are *The Scotsman* published in Edinburgh; the *Glasgow Herald*; the *Daily Record* (sister paper to the *Daily Mirror*); the *Dundee Courier and Advertiser*; the *Aberdeen Press and Journal*; and the *Scottish Daily Express* (printed in Manchester). The evening papers have circulations in the range of 13,000 to 188,000 and are the *Evening News* of Edinburgh, Glasgow's *Evening Times*, Dundee's *Evening Telegraph and Post*, Aberdeen's *Evening Express*, the *Paisley Daily Express* and the *Greenock Telegraph*. The Sunday papers are the *Sunday Mail*, the *Sunday Post*, the *Scottish Sunday Express* (printed in Manchester), and the *Sunday Standard*, first published in 1981.

Weekly and local newspapers number about 130, with the *Hamilton Advertiser* and the *Falkirk Herald* having the largest circulations.

Northern Ireland

Northern Ireland has two morning newspapers, one evening and one Sunday paper, all published in Belfast with circulations ranging from 42,000 to 151,000. They are the *News-Letter* (Unionist) and the *Irish News* (Nationalist), the evening *Belfast Telegraph* and the *Sunday News*. There are 41 weekly newspapers.

New Technology

The large labour costs of newspapers continue to encourage publishers to look for ways of increasing productivity, often by use of the new composing technology which dispenses with traditional 'hot metal' typesetting, with type set in molten lead, and uses photographic methods to reproduce an image. It can combine photo-composition with computer storage and handling of data, and substitutes electronic for manual methods. It presents possibilities for reorganisation which can have effects throughout a newspaper office and may raise difficult problems of manning levels, health and safety; the introduction of the 'on-line' system, for example, under which text can be fed at electronic speeds to the computer store (and recalled for checking on visual display units) and can be passed between the store and the photosetters, can affect all the traditional departments of a newspaper up to the printing stage. The provincial press has generally led the way in adopting the new techniques.

The Periodical Press

The 6,000 periodical publications (including local free-sheets) are classified as 'general', 'specialised', 'trade', 'technical' and 'professional'. There are also about 800 'house magazines' produced by industrial undertakings, business houses or public services for their employees and/or clients. The 'alternative' press probably includes several hundred further titles, most of them devoted to radical politics, community matters, religion, the occult, science or ecology.

General and specialised periodicals include magazines of general interest; women's magazines; publications for children; religious periodicals; fiction magazines; magazines dealing with sport, gardening, hobbies and humour; journals specialising in a wide range of subjects; and the publications of learned societies, trade unions, regiments, universities and other organisations.

The weekly periodicals with the highest sales are: *Radio Times* and *TV Times Magazine* which have circulations of about 3.3 million and *Woman's Weekly*, *Woman's Own*, *Woman*, *Weekly News* (which sells mainly in Scotland) and *My Weekly* with circulations in the 820,000 to 1.4 million range. The leading journals of opinion are *The Economist*, a politically independent publication covering a wider range of topics than its title implies; the *New Statesman*, which reviews politics, literature and the arts from an independent socialist point of view; the *Spectator*, which covers much the same subjects from an independent conservative standpoint; *Tribune*, which represents the views of the left-wing of the Labour Party; *New Society*, covering the sociological aspects of current affairs; and *New Scientist*, which reports on science and technology in terms which the non-specialist can understand. *Punch*, traditionally the leading humorous periodical, and *Private Eye*, a satirical fortnightly, also cover public affairs. A more recent publication is *Financial Weekly*, a periodical for people with business and investment interests.

Literary and political journals and those specialising in international and Commonwealth affairs, published monthly or quarterly, generally appeal to the more serious reader.

Trade, technical, business, scientific and professional journals are an important aspect of British publishing. Many have a considerable circulation overseas. Their publication ranges in frequency from twice weekly to quarterly.

Periodicals published in England circulate throughout Britain. In Wales there are also several monthly and quarterly journals published in both Welsh and English; in Scotland there are three monthly illustrated periodicals, a weekly paper devoted to farming interests, a number of literary journals and numerous popular magazines; and Northern Ireland has weekly, monthly and quarterly publications covering farming, the linen industry, building, motoring, politics and social work.

News Agencies

The three principal British news agencies are: Reuters Ltd, The Press Association Ltd and The Exchange Telegraph Company Ltd.

Reuters Ltd, a world news organisation, is owned jointly by the Newspaper Publishers Association, The Press Association, the Australian Associated Press and the New Zealand Press Association; each is party to a trust deed which safeguards the independence and integrity of the news service. Reuters employs some 540 journalists and correspondents in 70 countries and territories, and has links with about 120 national or private news agencies, which give it access to coverage by many hundreds of local

reporters. Some 700,000 words of general news, sports, and economic reports are received in London every day and are retransmitted worldwide over a network of leased teleprinter lines, satellite links and cable and radio circuits. These news services are specially tailored to the needs of recipients and are distributed either direct or through national news agencies. Reuters Economic Services, one of the world's largest financial and business news services, supplies information to banks, brokers and other commercial undertakings throughout the world by means of computer-based video display units, teleprinters and bulletins.

The Press Association Ltd, the British national news agency, is co-operatively owned by the principal newspapers of the United Kingdom outside London, and of the Irish Republic. It provides a complete service of home news, including general and parliamentary news, legal reports, and all branches of financial, commercial and sports news; and includes in its services to regional papers the world news of Reuters and the Associated Press. News is teleprinted from London, certain items being available in teletypesetting form. Its photographic department serves London and regional newspapers with a daily service of pictures from home and overseas; these are wired to the regional press. Its Special Reporting Service supplies reports of local or special interest. Press Association Features provides exclusive rights to syndicated articles and visual features.

The Exchange Telegraph Company Ltd (Extel), an independent news agency, supplies financial and sporting news and, in conjunction with The Press Association Ltd, transmits racing services by telephone and video terminals from offices throughout Britain.

The British press and broadcasting organisations are also served by Associated Press Ltd, and by United Press International, which are British subsidiaries of United States news agencies.

A number of other British, Commonwealth and foreign agencies and news services have offices in London, and there are minor agencies in other cities, mostly specialising in various aspects of newspaper and periodical requirements. Syndication of features is not as common in Britain as in some countries, but a few agencies specialise in this type of work.

Training for Journalism

The National Council for the Training of Journalists (NCTJ), which represents the principal press organisations, sets and conducts examinations, and organises short training courses for journalists.

The two methods of entry into newspaper journalism are selection for a one-year NCTJ pre-entry course at a college of further education or direct recruitment by a regional or local newspaper. Both categories of entrant take part in an apprenticeship scheme consisting of 'on-the-job' training, and block release courses for those who have not attended a pre-entry course. There is also a centre providing courses of a similar pattern for press photographers. Other training facilities include postgraduate courses in journalism at University College, Cardiff, and at the City University (London), and courses provided by the Newspaper Society Training Service for regional newspapers in such subjects as circulation, advertising, industrial relations and management. The NCTJ co-operates closely with other bodies responsible for training in printing, publishing and professional photography.

Under the Commonwealth Press Union Harry Brittain Memorial Fellowship Scheme, several young Commonwealth journalists each year spend three months working and studying in Britain. The Thomson

Foundation holds training courses for journalists from all parts of the world and provides consultants and tutors for courses in journalism held overseas.

Training for work with periodicals was traditionally done 'on the job' but formal courses of instruction are becoming more widely available. The London College of Printing offers a one-year pre-entry course in periodical journalism as well as block- and day-release courses for those who have already started work as trainees. In addition, several of the larger publishing houses provide in-company training which includes periods in the classroom to supplement work experience. For publishers who do not offer training independently, a training group has been established.

Press Institutions

The most important employers' organisations are the Newspaper Publishers Association, whose members publish national newspapers in London and Manchester; the Newspaper Society, which represents the regional, local and London suburban press; the Scottish Daily Newspaper Society, which represents the interests of daily and Sunday newspapers in Scotland; the Scottish Newspaper Proprietors Association, which represents the owners of weekly newspapers in Scotland; Associated Northern Ireland Newspapers, whose members are the proprietors of weekly newspapers in Northern Ireland; and the Periodical Publishers Association, whose membership embraces the majority of independent publishers of business and professional periodicals and consumer magazines.

Organisations representing journalists are the Institute of Journalists, with about 2,400 members, and the National Union of Journalists, with more than 32,000 members. All practising journalists (including those engaged in radio, television, public relations, freelance journalism and book publishing editorial work) are eligible for membership of either, but not both. Two main printing unions are concerned with the press.

The Guild of British Newspaper Editors with about 500 members aims to maintain the professional status and independence of editors, defend the freedom of the press, and improve the education and training of journalists. The British Association of Industrial Editors is the professional organisation to which most editors of house journals belong.

The Press Council

The Press Council comprises equal numbers of press and non-press members, with an independent chairman. Its aims are: to preserve the established freedom of the press; to maintain the character of the press in accordance with the highest professional and commercial standards; to keep under review any developments likely to restrict the supply of information of public interest and importance; to deal with complaints about the conduct of the press or the conduct of persons and organisations towards the press (the Council's complaints committees comprise equal numbers of press and non-press members); to report on developments in the press which may tend towards greater concentration or monopoly; to make representation on appropriate occasions to the Government, the United Nations and press organisations abroad; to publish its adjudications and periodic reports recording its work; and to review from time to time developments in the press and the factors affecting them. The Council's annual reports include press statistics and articles on the structure of leading press groups.

Advertising Practice

Advertising practice in the press is regulated and controlled by the Advertising Standards Authority, an independent body which aims to promote and enforce the highest standards of advertising in the interests of the public and the industry, in particular through the British Code of Advertising Practice. The aims of this code are to ensure that advertisements are legal, decent, honest and truthful; that they are prepared with a sense of responsibility to the consumer; that they conform to the principles of fair competition as generally accepted in business; and that no advertisement brings advertising into disrepute or reduces confidence in advertising as a service to industry and the public.

The Press and the Law

The press has generally the same freedom as the individual to comment on matters of public interest.

Apart from legal requirements to register newspapers and periodicals, there are no specific press laws but certain statutes include sections which apply to the press.¹ These relate to such matters as the extent of newspaper ownership in television and radio companies; the transfer of newspaper assets; restrictions on the reporting of certain types of court proceedings; the right of press representatives to be admitted to meetings of local authorities; restrictions on the publication of (a) advertisement and investment circulars, which are governed by Acts dealing with the publication of false or misleading descriptions of goods and services and with fraud, and (b) advertisements of remedies for certain diseases, which are covered by public health legislation; agreements between British Telecom and newspaper proprietors on telegraphic communications, which must comply with telegraphs legislation; restrictions on certain types of prize competition; and copyrights, which come under copyright laws. In certain circumstances, where the defence authorities and press representatives in the Defence, Press and Broadcasting Committee agree that publication of information on particular topics would be detrimental to the national interest, defence notices ('D' notices) are circulated to the news media requesting that such information should not be published. Compliance with these requests is expected, but they have no legal force; the final responsibility for the decision whether or not to publish lies solely with the editor or publisher concerned.

Of particular relevance to the press are such laws as those on contempt of court, official secrets, libel and defamation. A newspaper may not publish comments on the conduct of judicial proceedings which are likely to prejudice their reputation for fairness before or during the actual proceedings, nor may it publish before or during a trial anything which might tend to influence the result. The obtaining and publication of information from state and official sources of a confidential or security nature is affected by the official secrets legislation. Newspapers are also liable to proceedings for seditious libel and incitement to disaffection. The majority of legal proceedings against the press are libel actions brought by private individuals. In such cases, the editor, proprietor, publishers, printer and distributor of the newspaper, as well as the author, may all be held responsible.

¹ A code of conduct on trade union closed shops has been issued under the Employment Act 1980 (see p 315). In relation to the press the code considers the position of editors and journalists and the essential freedom to collect and publish information and to publish comment and criticism.

TELEVISION AND RADIO

All British broadcasting is based on the tradition that it is a public service accountable to the people through Parliament. Two public bodies—the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA)—provide television and radio services; they work to broad requirements and objectives placed on them by Parliament, but are otherwise independent in the day-to-day conduct of business. This independence carries with it certain obligations over programmes and programme content. Programmes must display, as far as possible, a proper balance and wide range of subject matter, impartiality in matters of controversy and accuracy in news coverage, and must not offend against good taste. Codes of guidance on violence in television programmes, particularly during hours when large numbers of children are likely to be viewing, are operated by both authorities. A code of advertising standards and practice is also operated by the IBA. A complaints commission has been established to deal with complaints of unfair treatment or infringement of privacy against both the BBC and the IBA.

The Home Secretary regulates broadcasting generally, is answerable to Parliament on broad policy questions, and may issue directions on a number of technical and other matters.

Television viewing is by far the most popular leisure pastime in Britain, average viewing time per person being nearly 24 hours a week. Virtually everyone has access to television. Over 20 per cent of households have two or more receivers. Practically every home also has a radio set, and car radios and portable sets have made radio a major day-time diversion.

Households with television must buy an annual licence costing £15 for black and white or £46 for colour. Of over 18·5 million licences current in April 1982 about 14·2 million were for colour.

The British Broadcasting Corporation

The constitution and finances of the BBC are governed by the Royal Charter and by a Licence and Agreement. The Corporation of 12 governors (each appointed by the Queen on the advice of the Government and including separate governors for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland) is responsible for all aspects of broadcasting. Committees advise them on a wide range of matters including the social effects of television, religious broadcasting, music, agriculture, schools broadcasting, further education, programmes for ethnic minorities, science and engineering, and charitable appeals. The governors appoint the Director General who is chairman of the BBC's board of management.

The National Broadcasting Councils for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland control the policy and content of television and radio programmes intended primarily for reception in their respective areas. Local radio councils, representative of the local community, advise on the development and operation of the BBC's local radio stations.

The domestic services of the BBC are financed principally from the sale of television licences. This is supplemented by profits from trading

activities, including television programme exports, the sale of records and publications connected with BBC programmes, the hire and sale of educational films, film library sales, and exhibitions based on programmes. Nearly three-quarters of expenditure on domestic services relates to television. The BBC meets the cost of local radio stations but some local education authorities help to make educational programmes. The BBC's External Services are financed by a grant determined each year by the Government.

The Independent Broadcasting Authority

The IBA's constitution and finances are governed by statute. Its members (three of whom have responsibility for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland) are appointed by the Home Secretary. The IBA does not produce radio or television programmes; these are provided by commercial programme companies. Its main functions are to appoint the companies, supervise programme arrangements, control advertising and build, own and operate transmitting stations. The chief executive officer of the IBA, the Director General, is supported by a headquarters and regional office staff covering all technical and administrative services.

The IBA is advised by a General Advisory Council, by Scottish, Northern Ireland and Welsh committees, and by committees on educational broadcasting, religious broadcasting, charitable appeals and advertising. A specialist panel advises on advertisements of a medical nature. Local committees advise on local radio services.

The IBA's finance comes from annual rental payments made by the television and radio programme companies. The television and some independent local radio programme companies also pay to the IBA, for transfer to the Government, a levy related to their profits.

The Programme Companies

Fifteen television programme companies hold contracts to provide television programmes in the 14 independent television regions (two companies share the contract for London, one providing programmes during the week and the other at the weekend). A contract to provide early morning television from the beginning of 1983 has been awarded to another new company. The companies operate on a commercial basis, deriving their revenue from the sale of advertising time. The financial resources, advertising revenue and programme production of the companies vary considerably, depending largely on the size of population in the areas in which they operate. Although newspapers can acquire an interest in programme companies, there are safeguards to protect the public interest.

In consultation with the IBA, each company plans the content of the programmes to be broadcast in its area. These are produced by the company itself and by other programme companies or purchased from elsewhere. The five largest companies serving London, North-West England, East and West Midlands, and Yorkshire provide more programmes for broadcast elsewhere on the national network than do the smaller ones. A common news service is provided by Independent Television News Ltd, a non-profit-making company in which all the programme companies are shareholders. Negotiations for the supply, exchange and purchase of programmes and their co-ordinated transmission through the independent television network take place largely on the Network Planning Committee which consists of representatives of all the programme companies and of the IBA.

Similar principles apply in the case of independent local radio. The programme companies are under contract to the IBA, operate under its

control and are financed by advertising revenue. News coverage is supplied as a common service by Independent Radio News.

Television

Three television channels are in operation: BBC-1 and ITV broadcast on both 405 lines very high frequency (vhf) and 625 lines ultra high frequency (uhf); BBC-2 broadcasts on 625 lines uhf only. A fourth, Channel Four, will begin broadcasting in November 1982 and will form part of the independent television network. About 99 per cent of the population live within range of the uhf transmission. The 405-line (vhf) transmissions are being phased out between 1982 and 1986.

Apart from a break during the war years the BBC has been providing regular television broadcasts since 1936. All BBC-2 programmes and the vast majority of those on BBC-1 are broadcast on the national network. Of the BBC's 1981-82 television output over 69 per cent was produced in London and 31 per cent elsewhere in Britain.

Through co-ordinated planning on its two services the BBC caters simultaneously for people of differing interests. While both services cover the whole range of television output, BBC-1 presents more programmes of general interest, such as light entertainment, sport, current affairs, children's programmes and outside broadcasts, while BBC-2 places greater emphasis on minority interests, providing a larger element of documentaries, travel programmes, serious drama, music, programmes on pastimes and international films. An early morning television service providing about 2½ hours of news and information will start early in 1983. Initially the service will run from Monday to Friday but may later be extended into the weekend.

The first regular independent television programmes began in London in 1955. On average each of the 14 ITV areas transmitted over 100 hours of television programmes a week in 1981-82, nearly two-fifths of which comprised informative programmes—including news, documentaries, current affairs, education and religion. Three-quarters of the programmes are produced by the programme companies.

Channel Four, beginning in November 1982, will, except in Wales, be the responsibility of the IBA, operating through a subsidiary company. The IBA will be expected to ensure that the channel caters for tastes and interests not normally provided for by the existing independent service. It must provide a suitable proportion of educational programmes, encourage innovation and experiment, and include a substantial proportion of programmes from independent producers. The programme companies will, however, finance the new service and in return will have the right to sell advertising time in fourth channel programmes broadcast in their region. In Wales programmes on the fourth channel will be provided by a Welsh Fourth Channel Authority appointed by the Home Secretary. The Authority will be required to ensure that a substantial proportion of the programmes are in Welsh and that programmes broadcast between 18.30 and 22.00 hours are mainly in Welsh.

British television programmes have won many international awards, and Britain is one of the world's foremost exporters of television productions.

Radio

BBC Radio has four national channels. Radio 1 provides a programme of pop music, while Radio 2 provides light entertainment and music as well as being the principal channel for the coverage of sport. Radio 3 provides mainly classical music and in the evening also offers adult education programmes and works of artistic and intellectual interest. Radio 4 is the

main speech programme, providing the principal news and information service and a wide range of drama, music, talks and schools broadcasts.

Local radio is provided by 25 BBC stations in England and two in the Channel Islands and by 37 independent stations distributed throughout Britain. Another 32 independent stations are being established and 11 more for the BBC have been proposed. Broadcasts provide a comprehensive service of local news and information, music and other entertainment, education, consumer advice and coverage of local events, and offer listeners a chance to air their views, often by using the phone-in technique.

Cable Services

Nearly 14 per cent of households with television rely on cable systems for the reception of programmes. The systems are usually used to improve reception quality, to avoid 'screening' by buildings or the local topography, or because external aerials are not allowed on some residential buildings. Commercial relay operators are represented by the Cable Television Association of Great Britain. All operators of cable systems are licensed by the Home Secretary and the Post Office.

One local community cable television and six local community cable sound-only stations are in operation. These enable people both to see and hear programmes about local topics and issues and to take part in making the programmes. Six cable operators have been licensed to provide subscription television ('Pay-TV') services in a number of areas for an experimental period of two years.

The Government is considering the proposals of the Hunt inquiry into a possible expansion of cable television¹ examined in the official report.² The inquiry recommends developing cable television so as to provide the maximum variety and choice for the viewer, with the minimum constraints necessary to safeguard public service broadcasting and the wider public interest.

External Services

The BBC External Services broadcast by radio to most countries overseas, using English and many other languages. The main objectives are to give unbiased news, reflect British opinion and project British life, culture and developments in science and industry. News bulletins, current affairs programmes, political commentaries and topical magazine programmes form the main part of the output. A full sports service, music, drama and general entertainment are also included.

The languages in which the External Services broadcast and the length of time each is on the air are prescribed by the Government. Apart from this the BBC has full responsibility and is completely independent in determining the content of news and other programmes. A plan to improve audibility has been announced, with some of the costs being met from current operations. As a result of cuts in government expenditure the number of language services has been reduced to 36 with a weekly broadcast total of nearly 477 hours.

The BBC World Service broadcasts for 24 hours a day in English and is supplemented at peak listening times by programmes of special interest to Africa.

BBC news bulletins and other programmes are re-broadcast by the radio services of many countries. Re-broadcasting involves direct relays from

¹*Report of the Inquiry into Cable Expansion and Broadcasting Policy.* (Chairman: Lord Hunt) Cmnd 8679 HMSO, £4.40, ISBN 0 10 186790 5.

²*Cable Systems: A Report by the Information Technology Advisory Panel.* HMSO, £3.60, ISBN 0 11 630821 4.

BBC transmissions and the use of recorded programmes supplied through the BBC tape and disc transcription service. There are some 3,000 re-broadcasts weekly of World Service programmes in about 150 countries. The Transcription Service, which the Government hopes will become self-supporting, offers programmes to about 100 countries.

The BBC's English by Radio and Television Service is the most extensive language teaching undertaking in the world. English lessons are broadcast weekly by radio with explanations in 30 other languages, and recorded lessons are supplied to 300 stations in 90 countries. English by Television programmes are shown in more than 60 countries.

Another part of the External Services, the Monitoring Service, listens to and reports on foreign broadcasts, supplying a daily flow of significant news and comment from overseas to the BBC, the press, and the Government.

Radio for overseas is also produced by the radio services of the Central Office of Information (COI). A wide range of recorded material is sent to radio stations in over 91 countries. COI television services provide material such as documentary and magazine programmes for distribution to overseas television stations.

Advertising

The BBC does not give publicity to any firm or organised interest except when it is necessary to provide effective and informative programmes. It must not broadcast any commercial advertisement or any sponsored programme.

Advertisements are broadcast on independent television but there is no sponsoring of programmes by advertisers. Advertisements must be clearly distinguishable and separate from programmes, and the amount of time given to them must not be so great as to detract from the value of the programmes as a medium of information, education or entertainment. Advertising is normally limited to seven minutes in any one hour of broadcasting time and averaged over the day's programmes must not exceed six minutes per hour. The independent local radio stations are normally limited to a maximum of nine minutes of advertising each hour. The IBA has a code governing standards and practice in advertising on television and radio and giving guidance about the types and methods of advertisement which are prohibited; this includes advertising with a political or religious object or on behalf of cigarettes or betting. Advertisements may not be inserted in certain types of programme, such as broadcasts to schools.

Government publicity material to support non-political campaigns may be broadcast on independent radio and television. It is prepared through the COI and broadcast and paid for on a normal commercial basis. Short public service items, mainly about health, safety and welfare, are also produced by the COI for free transmission by the BBC and independent television and radio. The Government has no general privileged access to radio or television.

Parliamentary and Political Broadcasting

Parliamentary reporting includes a daily factual and impartial account of proceedings in Parliament. Proceedings, including those of committees, are broadcast on radio, some live and others in recorded form in radio and television news and current affairs programmes.

Ministerial and party political broadcasts are transmitted periodically on radio and television under rules agreed between the major political parties, the BBC and the IBA.

Technical Developments

Research into technical problems is carried out by scientific and engineering staffs of the BBC, the IBA, the Home Office, other government departments and the radio industry. One of the most important recent developments has been the introduction of smaller, lighter cameras and video recorders for use on location. Electronic news-gathering equipment, whereby pictures can be transmitted directly to a studio or recorded on videotape on location, reduces significantly the time before an item can be broadcast. Other developments include the use of new types of videotape recorders, the increasing use of computers to generate graphical shapes such as captions and credits, and the improvement of the quality of videotape pictures.

Advances by the BBC have included the electronic conversion of monochrome and colour television pictures between the European and the American systems, and the development of a sound-and-vision system, known as 'sound-in-sync', which enables the television sound and picture to be carried over a single 625-line vision circuit, eliminating the operational complexity and expense of a separate circuit for sound. IBA engineers were the first in the world to introduce a fully digital field rate standards converter to improve the interchange of programmes between areas using the 525-line system and those using the 625-line system. Current IBA research projects include the further development of the first digital videotape recorder with economical use of tape, and a study of the future use of space satellites for broadcasting which has included the development of a new Multiplexed Analogue Component (MAC) transmission system for use on future direct broadcast satellites.

The Government has decided in principle that Britain should make an early start with direct broadcasting by satellite, and the BBC has been authorised to go ahead with its proposals for starting two satellite channels by 1986. Plans have also been announced for the formation of a privately financed satellite system, to be designed and manufactured in Britain.

Both the BBC and the IBA have produced 'teletext' systems, known respectively as CEEFAX and ORACLE, which allow the broadcasting of simple graphical information to television receivers fitted with special adaptors. Both systems enable viewers to select a display of 'pages' of written information on the television screen; the system also allows subtitles to appear in conjunction with programmes, which is of great benefit to the deaf and hard of hearing. British Telecom's public viewdata service, Prestel, offers a wide range of information which is transmitted via the telephone and viewed on the screen of a television receiver (see p 301).

International Relations

The BBC and the IBA are active members of the European Broadcasting Union which manages Eurovision, and is responsible for the technical and administrative arrangements for co-ordinating the exchange of programmes over the Eurovision network and intercontinental satellite links, as well as maintaining a technical monitoring station where frequency measurements and other observations on broadcasting stations are carried out. The Union also provides a forum linking the major public services and national broadcasters of Western Europe and other parts of the world and co-ordinates co-operation in radio and television.

The BBC is a partner in Visnews, which supplies world newsfilm to 269 television stations in 88 countries and is the most widely used newsfilm agency in the world. The BBC is also a member of the International Television Federation (Intertel), which produces information programmes

which are exchanged overseas. United Press International, Paramount Pictures and Independent Television News jointly provide an international newsfilm service to more than 100 overseas television organisations via the Eurovision network and by satellite.

The BBC is an associated member of the Asian Pacific Broadcasting Union, and belongs to the Commonwealth Broadcasting Association whose members extend to each other such facilities as the use of studios, recording channels, and programme contributions. The BBC also provides technical aid, particularly in training the staff of other broadcasting organisations throughout the world; members of the BBC's staff are seconded for service overseas.

The Government finances a number of overseas students on the broadcasting training courses at the British Council (see p 70), the BBC and the Thomson Television College which is based in Glasgow.

The BBC and the IBA participate in the work of the International Telecommunications Union, the United Nations agency responsible for regulating and controlling all international telecommunications services (including radio and television), for allocating and registering all radio frequencies and for promoting and co-ordinating the international study of technical problems in broadcasting. The BBC is also represented on the United Kingdom Committee of the International Special Committee on Radio Interference.

SPORT AND RECREATION

Britain invented and developed many of the sports and games which are now played all over the world, and there is widespread interest and participation in almost every kind of sport throughout the country. Large crowds attend occasions such as the association football Cup Final at Wembley Stadium, the international rugby matches at Twickenham, Murrayfield and Cardiff Arms Park, the Wimbledon lawn tennis championships, the classic horse races, Grand Prix motor racing and the cricket Test matches. Many people take part in sports such as association and rugby football, cricket, golf, tennis, hockey and athletics; other forms of recreation such as climbing, rambling, horse-riding, boating, angling and other water-based sports, keep-fit, movement and dance activities are also popular, while in the last few years there has been an upsurge of interest in jogging and marathon running. Extensive coverage of sport on television has helped to generate interest in a wide variety of sports including rugby league, darts, snooker and skiing.

ORGANISATION AND PROMOTION

A Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State in the Department of the Environment co-ordinates government policy on sport and active recreation. The Secretaries of State for Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland have similar responsibilities in their areas.

The Government provides financial and other assistance through a number of official bodies. Some of these, such as the Sports Councils (see below) and the Countryside Commissions, have specific responsibilities for sport and recreation, and help other public and private bodies to provide facilities. Others, for example, the Forestry Commission, the British Waterways Board, the Nature Conservancy Council and the regional water authorities, provide recreational amenities in addition to their main functions.

Sports Councils

Government assistance to the development of sport in Great Britain is channelled through three independent bodies—the Sports Council (for England and for general matters affecting Britain as a whole), the Sports Council for Wales and the Scottish Sports Council. The Councils allocate government funds (in 1982–83 amounting to some £30 million) subject only to general ministerial directives. They award grants for sports development, coaching and administration to the governing bodies of sport and other national organisations, and administer the national sports centres. Grants and loans are made to voluntary organisations and local authorities to assist the provision of sports facilities. In some circumstances grants are also given to commercial organisations. The Councils also assist British representatives at international sports meetings and encourage links with international and overseas organisations. The Sports Council consults with the Central Council of Physical Recreation, comprising members of the national governing and representative bodies of sport and physical recreation in England. There are nine regional councils for sport and

recreation in England, on each of which sporting, countryside and local authority interests are represented. The Scottish Sports Council consults with the Scottish Standing Conference of Sport which comprises representatives of the national governing bodies of sport in Scotland; and in Wales the governing bodies of sport come together in the Welsh Sports Association and form a committee of the Sports Council for Wales. In Northern Ireland the Department of Education finances the Sports Council for Northern Ireland, and gives financial help to local authorities and voluntary sports bodies for the provision of facilities. Apart from grant aiding facilities the Sports Council for Northern Ireland has the same range of functions as the other Sports Councils, and works closely with the governing bodies of sport both directly and through the Northern Ireland Council of Physical Recreation.

A bibliographic service about sport is provided by the National Documentation Centre, set up by the Sports Council and based at the University of Birmingham. The Council also has an information centre providing data on a wide range of sports topics; similar services are provided by the Sports Council for Wales, the Scottish Sports Council and the Sports Council for Northern Ireland. The Sports Council's Technical Unit for Sport gives advice on the design and layout of sports halls and playing areas and carries out research.

Organisations

Individual sports are run by independent governing bodies whose functions usually include drawing up rules, holding events, regulating membership, selecting and training national teams and promoting international links.

There are also organisations representing people who take part in more informal physical recreation, such as walking, or cycling; others, for example the National Trusts (see p 173), are involved in leisure interests as part of a wider concern.

The British Olympic Association

The British Olympic Association, founded in 1905, organises the participation of British teams in the Olympic Games. The Association's committee consists of representatives of the 26 sports in the programme of the Olympic Games (summer and winter). It determines the size of the British team, raises funds, makes all the arrangements and provides a headquarters staff for the management of the team.

The National Playing Fields Association

The National Playing Fields Association encourages the provision of playing fields, playgrounds and recreational facilities, specialising in the play and recreational needs of children and young people, including the young handicapped. The Association maintains a Technical Advisory Service and an Information Centre in London, runs the Midlands Resource Centre in Birmingham, and publishes the magazine *Play Times*. Regional officers in England and Wales promote and advise on the provision of play opportunities. The Association is a national charity established by Royal Charter and depends mainly on voluntary contributions. There are affiliated associations in Scotland, Northern Ireland and in the counties of England and Wales.

Sport for the Disabled

The British Sports Association for the Disabled, founded in 1961, encourages greater sporting and recreational opportunities for disabled people. The Association, which receives an annual Sports Council grant,

provides advice on physical recreation for the disabled, arranges sports meetings and encourages the provision of facilities throughout the country. It co-ordinates the activities of its 31 member associations representing all categories of handicap—physical, mental and sensory. The first sports stadium in the world designed for the disabled was opened at Stoke Mandeville, Buckinghamshire, in 1969, and is owned and maintained by the British Paraplegic Sports Society.

Annual national games organised by several of the associations for the disabled take place at Stoke Mandeville, Crystal Palace in London and at other locations, while British teams participate at international events.

Private Sponsorship

Increasing numbers of sports receive financial sponsorship from commercial organisations. Sponsorship may take the form of financing specific events, or it may be granted to individual sports organisations.

A Sports Aid Foundation raises and distributes funds from industry, commerce and private sponsors in order to assist the training of talented individual sportsmen and sportswomen. The Foundation makes grants on the recommendation of the governing bodies of sport. In Wales the Welsh Sports Trust fulfils a similar function and in Northern Ireland this is done by the Ulster Sports and Recreation Trust. The Sports Council also runs a sponsorship advisory service.

PROVISION OF FACILITIES

Local authorities are the main providers of land and large-scale facilities for community recreation; their total expenditure on sport and outdoor recreation in England amounted to some £528 million in 1981–82, in Wales £43 million, in Scotland about £130 million and in Northern Ireland £5.5 million. The facilities provided include parks, playing fields, sports halls, tennis courts, golf courses, lakes, swimming baths and sports centres catering for a wide range of indoor and outdoor activities.

Increased emphasis is being laid on the need to improve facilities for sport in areas of urban stress. Many schemes are grant-aided under the Government's Urban Programme. In recognition of the special problems of Merseyside the Government has offered to match pound for pound up to £1 million the money raised by the private sector. In addition, the Sports Council is concentrating resources on the improvement of facilities and on ways of encouraging people, particularly the young, to take part in sport.

Publicly maintained schools must provide for the physical education of their pupils. All (except those solely for infants) must have a playing field, or the use of one, and most secondary schools have a gymnasium. Some have other amenities such as swimming pools, sports halls and halls designed for dance and movement. In many areas, schools' facilities are available to the community outside school hours. Sport and recreation facilities are likewise provided at universities (some of which have departments of physical education), and there are 'centres of sporting excellence' at universities and other colleges enabling selected young athletes to develop their talents and also providing for their educational needs.

Opportunities for outdoor recreation in national parks, nature reserves, forest parks and country parks are provided by public bodies (see p 174). Water-based activities on canals, rivers, lakes and reservoirs are increasingly popular.

In addition to the recreational facilities provided by public authorities, many facilities are made available by local voluntary clubs. Some cater for indoor recreation, but more common are those providing sports grounds,

particularly for games such as cricket, association and rugby football, hockey, tennis and golf. Clubs linked to business firms often cater for a wide range of activities, and in many cases make their facilities available to members of the public. Commercial facilities include tenpin bowling centres, ice- and roller-skating rinks, squash courts, golf courses and driving ranges, curling rinks and riding stables.

Sports Centres

National sports centres, some of which were initially financed by funds from voluntary sources, are run by the Sports Council, and provide a range of competition and training facilities. As well as offering residential courses for national teams, coaches and enthusiasts from all over Britain, the centres are used extensively by local sports clubs and the local community.

There are six national centres in England and Wales, financed mainly by the Sports Council. Combined facilities for a range of sports are provided at three centres: Crystal Palace in south-east London, Bisham Abbey in Buckinghamshire and Lilleshall in Shropshire. Crystal Palace provides major competition venues for athletics and swimming and a variety of indoor sports, and Lilleshall is also the training headquarters of the Football Association. The other three are specialist centres: the National Sailing Centre, Cowes, Isle of Wight; the National Water Sports Centre at Holme Pierrepont, Nottinghamshire, which caters for rowing, canoeing and water-skiing; and the Plas-y-Brenin National Centre for Mountain Activities in north Wales. Crystal Palace and Holme Pierrepont also receive financial support from the Greater London Council and the Nottinghamshire County Council. The Sports Council for Wales operates the National Sports Centre for Wales in Cardiff, and is constructing the National Outdoor Pursuits Centre at Plas-y-Deri in north Wales which is expected to be completed by the end of 1982.

The Scottish Sports Council operates three national sports training centres: Glenmore Lodge near Aviemore for outdoor sports, Inverclyde at Largs for general sports, and a national water sports training centre in Cumbrae Isle on the Firth of Clyde. The Sports Council for Northern Ireland operates one national facility, the Northern Ireland Mountain Centre at Tollymore in Co. Down.

Other centres (such as the Meadowbank Sports Centre administered by Edinburgh District Council) cater for a wide range of recreational activities and often attract more than purely local interest. About 950 indoor sports centres serve local rather than national needs; they range from purpose-built centres to school sports facilities available for public use outside school hours. Several centres cater for specialised interests, for example, the National Equestrian Centre, run by the British Equestrian Federation, and the Ludwig Guttmann Sports Centre for the Disabled, Stoke Mandeville, run by the British Paraplegic Sports Society (see p 395).

Northern Ireland has 18 major indoor sports centres, all of which include swimming pools. In addition, there are 18 public swimming centres. Five recreation halls are planned either as extensions of these locations or at separate sites.

POPULAR SPORTS

Some of the major sports in Britain are mentioned below. Sportsmen may be professionals (paid players) or amateurs. Some sports, such as rugby union, hockey and rowing, are amateur but in others the distinction between amateur and professional status is less strictly defined, or does not exist.

Association Football

Probably the most popular spectator sport is association football, which was first developed and codified in England during the nineteenth century, and is controlled by separate football associations in England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. In England over 350 clubs are affiliated to the English Football Association (FA) and some 40,000 clubs to regional or district associations. The principal clubs in England and Wales belong to the Football League (92 clubs) and in Scotland to the Scottish Football League (38 clubs); the clubs play in four divisions in England and Wales and three in Scotland. During the season, which lasts from August until May, attendances at Football League matches total about 20 million. The Football Association, formed in 1863, and the Football League, formed in 1888, were both the first of their kind.

The annual competitions for the FA Challenge Cup, the Milk Cup (formerly the League Cup), the Scottish FA Cup, the Scottish League Cup, the Irish Cup and the Welsh FA Cup are organised on a knock-out basis, and the finals are played at Wembley Stadium, London, at Hampden Park, Glasgow, at Windsor Park, Belfast, and on a two-leg home and away basis in Wales.

National teams representing England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland compete against one another annually and take part in European competitions, the World Cup competition and other international matches. England won the World Cup in 1966 and England, Scotland and Northern Ireland qualified to play in the final stages of the World Cup competition which was held in Spain in 1982. English clubs have been European club champions for the past six years (1977–82); another club won the Union of European Football Associations cup competition in 1981.

Attempts have been made to give football clubs closer links with the community in order to overcome problems of hooliganism. The Sports Council, using specially allocated funds, has made grants to a number of clubs to enable them to modernise or expand football and other sporting facilities which will attract young people.

Athletics

In England amateur athletics (including track, road and cross-country running, relay racing, jumping, vaulting, hurdling, steeplechasing, throwing and race walking) are governed by the Amateur Athletic Association (which, formed in 1880, was the first national governing body for athletics) and by the Women's Amateur Athletic Association. Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland have their own associations. The various organisations encourage the development of the sport, establish uniform rules and regulations and promote regional and national championships. Hundreds of clubs are affiliated to the various national associations.

International athletics and the selection of British teams are the concern of the British Amateur Athletic Board which is composed of representatives of the national associations. For the Olympic Games one team represents the United Kingdom but England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, Jersey, Guernsey and the Isle of Man compete separately in the Commonwealth Games and also organise their own international meetings. The Board also administers coaching schemes. Many British athletes have enjoyed distinguished reputations; for example, in 1954 Dr Roger Bannister became the first man to run a mile in under four minutes. More recently four athletes won gold medals in the 1980 Olympic Games, and in 1982 six world records were held by Britons: the 800 and 1,000 metres and the mile by Sebastian Coe; the 1,500 metres by Steve Ovett; the 5,000 metres by

The Highland Games

David Moorcroft and the decathlon by Daley Thompson.

The Scottish Highland Games, at which sports (including tossing the caber, putting the weight and throwing the hammer) and dancing and piping competitions take place, attract large numbers of spectators from all over the world. Among better-known Highland Games are the annual Braemar Gathering (traditionally attended by the Royal Family), the Argyllshire and Cowal Gatherings and the meeting at Aboyne.

Boxing

Boxing as a British sport is one of the oldest, probably originating in Saxon times. Its modern form, also adopted in many overseas countries, dates from 1865 when the Marquess of Queensberry drew up a set of rules eliminating much of the brutality that had characterised prize-fighting and making skill the basis of the sport. Boxing is both amateur and professional, and in both, strict medical regulations are observed.

The Amateur Boxing Association controls all amateur boxing in England including schoolboy, club and association boxing, and boxing in the armed services. There are separate associations in Scotland and Wales. Northern Ireland forms part of the Irish Boxing Association. The associations organise various amateur boxing competitions, and teams from England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland take part in international competitions such as the European and world championships and the Olympic and Commonwealth Games.

Professional boxing is controlled by the British Boxing Board of Control, founded in 1929. The Board appoints inspectors, medical officers and representatives to ensure that regulations are observed and to guard against over-matching and exploitation. At various times British boxers have held European and world championship titles. Some of the best known include Henry Cooper, John Conteh, Maurice Hope and Alan Minter.

Cricket

Cricket is among the most popular of summer sports and is sometimes called the English national game. It is known to have been played as early as the 1550s. Among the many clubs founded in the eighteenth century is the Marylebone Cricket Club (MCC) which was founded in London and which reframed the laws of the game. Cricket in Britain is now governed by the Cricket Council which consists of representatives of the MCC, the Test and County Cricket Board (representing first-class cricket) and the National Cricket Association (representing club and junior cricket).

The game is played in schools, colleges and universities, and in most towns and villages there are amateur teams which play weekly games from late April to the end of September. In England there is a network of league cricket contested by teams of Saturday afternoon players; in the Midlands and the north of England these teams include a full-time professional. Cricket is also played to a lesser extent in Scotland and Wales.

Some of the best supported games are the annual series of five-day sponsored Test matches played between England and a touring team from Australia, New Zealand, India, Pakistan or the West Indies. A team representing England usually tours one or more of these countries in the British winter. One-day international games also attract large crowds. A World Cup is played every four years, with some of the smaller cricketing nations as well as the major countries competing. There is also a sponsored First Class County Championship of three-day games played by 17 professional county teams who also take part in three one-day sponsored competitions—two knock-out competitions and the Sunday League.

Cricket is also played by women and girls, the governing body being the Women's Cricket Association, founded in 1926. Women's cricket clubs have regular week-end fixtures, and junior sides play both eleven and six-a-side competitions. Test match series are played against Australia, India, New Zealand and the West Indies and other international matches take place. The women's World Cup, in which England competes, is held every four years.

Field Sports

The British Field Sports Society looks after the interests of all field sports (including hunting, fishing, stalking, game shooting, falconry and hare coursing). The Society is a member of the British Shooting Sports Council which is the representative body for the recreational use of firearms.

Fox hunting on horseback with a pack of hounds is the most popular British hunting sport but there is also stag hunting, hunting the hare and the fast-developing sport of hunting mink and coypu. The fox hunting season lasts from early November to April; there are over 400 packs of hounds of all kinds in Britain. The sport is not without its critics, but a large number of people take a keen interest in it.

Game shooting as an organised sport probably originated in the early part of the nineteenth century. Game consists of grouse, black-grouse, partridge, pheasant and ptarmigan, species which are protected by law during a close season when they are allowed to breed on numerous estates supervised by game-keepers. It is necessary to have a licence to kill game, and a certificate must be obtained from the local police by anyone who possesses a shot-gun. The Game Conservancy, formed by landowners, farmers and others interested in game conservation, collects information and studies factors controlling game population.

The most popular country sport is fishing, and there are about 3.5 million anglers in Britain. Many fish for salmon and trout particularly in the rivers and lochs of Scotland and in Wales, but in England and Wales the most widely practised form of fishing is for coarse fish such as pike, perch, carp, roach, dace, tench, chub and bream. Angling clubs affiliate to the National Federation of Anglers and many clubs organise angling competitions. National championships are organised by the Federation which also enters a team in the World Angling Championship. Freshwater fishing usually has to be paid for; most coarse fishing is let to angling clubs by private owners, while trout and salmon fishermen either rent a stretch of river, join a club, or pay for the right to fish by the day, week or month. Coastal and deep sea fishing are free to all (apart from salmon and sea trout fishing which is by licence only). In Northern Ireland the Ulster Provincial Council of the Irish Federation of Sea Anglers, the Ulster Coarse Angling Federation and the Ulster Angling Federation look after the interests of the sport. In Wales all angling is the responsibility of the Welsh Anglers Council.

Golf

Golf originated in Scotland where it has for centuries borne the title of the Royal and Ancient Game, the headquarters of the Royal and Ancient Golf Club being situated at St Andrews on the east coast. The Club is the international governing body of the sport. Golf is played throughout Britain and there are golf courses in the vicinity of most towns, some of them owned by local authorities. The main event of the golfing year is the Open Golf Championship; other important events include the Walker Cup match for amateurs and the Ryder Cup match for professionals, both of which are played between Britain and the United States and Europe and

the United States respectively. One of Britain's best known golfers is Tony Jacklin who in 1969 won the British Open Championship and in 1970 the United States Open Championship. Among the leading players in European tournaments are Nick Faldo, Sandy Lyle, Mark James, Brian Barnes and Bernard Gallager.

Lawn Tennis

The modern game of lawn tennis was first played in England in 1872 and the first championships at Wimbledon in 1877. The controlling body in Great Britain, the Lawn Tennis Association, was founded in 1888. The main event of the season is the annual Wimbledon fortnight, widely regarded as the most important tennis event in the world; this draws large crowds, with the grounds at the All-England Club accommodating over 30,000 spectators. There are also county championships and national competitions for boys' and girls' schools. International events include the Davis Cup and Kings Cup for men and the Federation Cup for women. Women from Britain and the United States compete for the Wightman Cup. In Northern Ireland the Ulster Council of the Irish Lawn Tennis Association controls the game.

Motor Sports

Among the most popular spectator sports are motor racing and motor rallying. The governing body, RAC (Royal Automobile Club) Motor Sports Association, issues competition licences for a variety of motoring competitions and organises the RAC Rally, an event in the contest for the World Rally Championship. It also organises the British Grand Prix which counts towards the Formula One World Motor Racing Championship.

Motorcycle racing is governed by the Auto-Cycle Union and the most important events of the year are the Isle of Man Tourist Trophy races, the British Grand Prix, and the TT Formula World Championships. Speedway racing is governed by the Speedway Control Board.

Britain has had six world champion motor racing drivers, the most recent being Jackie Stewart (1969, 1971 and 1973) and James Hunt (1976); and three world champion motorcycle riders at 500 cc: Mike Hailwood (1962-65), Phil Read (1973-74) and Barry Sheene (1976-77).

Racing

Horse racing takes two forms—flat racing (from late March to early November) and steeplechasing and hurdle racing (from August to June). The Derby, run at Epsom, is the outstanding event in the flat racing calendar. Other classic races are: the Two Thousand Guineas and the One Thousand Guineas, both run at Newmarket; the Oaks, run at Epsom; and the St Leger, run at Doncaster. The most important steeplechase and hurdle race meeting is the National Hunt Festival Meeting at Cheltenham. The Grand National, run at Aintree near Liverpool, is the best known steeplechase and dates from 1837.

The Jockey Club administers all horse racing in Britain. Its rules are the basis of turf procedure and it also licenses racecourses. Racing takes place on most weekdays throughout the year and about 11,500 horses are in training. British thoroughbreds continue to be a source of the world's best bloodstock.

The racing of greyhounds after a mechanical hare (considered to be among Britain's most popular spectator sports) takes place at 105 tracks licensed by local authorities. Meetings are usually held two or three times a week at each track, up to a maximum of 130 days a year. The rules for the sport are drawn up by the National Greyhound Racing Club, which is the

sport's judiciary body. The Stewards of the Club are also responsible for overall administration and organisation. The representative body for the sport is the British Greyhound Racing Board.

Riding

The authority responsible for equestrian activities (other than racing) at international level is the British Equestrian Federation which co-ordinates the work of the British Horse Society and the British Show Jumping Association.

At national level the British Horse Society promotes the welfare of horses and ponies, the interests of horse and pony breeding and the art of riding. It provides information, publications, a film library, courses and examinations and, together with riding schools approved by it, helps to promote horsemanship. It also runs the British Equestrian Centre at Kenilworth, Warwickshire, where activities take place throughout the year. With some 32,000 members the Society is the parent body of the Pony Club and the Riding Club movement. These hold rallies, meetings and competitions, culminating in their annual national championships at the British Equestrian Centre.

Horse trials are held during the spring and summer under the auspices of the Society. The three-day events held each year are at Badminton (Avon) in April, Windsor (Berkshire) in May, Bramham (Yorkshire) in June, Burghley House (Lincolnshire) in September, and Wylde (Wiltshire) in October, and include dressage, cross-country riding and show jumping.

Show jumping is promoted by the British Show Jumping Association which draws up competition rules and prescribes the general standards and height of obstacles. The Association keeps a register of horses and ponies taking part in shows and seeks to improve the standard of jumping and to provide for British representation in international competitions. It has over 15,000 members and 1,293 shows are affiliated to it. The major show jumping events each year include the Royal International Horse Show, the Horse of the Year Show, and the Birmingham International Show Jumping Championships. British equestrian teams won gold medals at both the 1968 and 1972 Olympic Games, the riders including Captain Mark Phillips and Lucinda Prior-Palmer. Another member, Richard Meade, also won an individual gold medal in 1972. The best known show jumpers include David Broome, Marion Mould, Harvey Smith and Nick Skelton.

Rugby Football

Rugby football is played according to two different codes: Rugby Union (a 15-a-side game) is played by amateurs while Rugby League (a 13-a-side game) is played by professionals as well as amateurs.

Rugby Union is played throughout Britain under the auspices of the Rugby Football Union (in England), the Welsh Rugby Union, the Scottish Rugby Union and the Irish Rugby Football Union. International matches between England, Scotland, Wales, Ireland and France are played each year and there are tours by international teams.

Rugby League is played mostly in the north of England. The governing body of the professional game is the Rugby Football League which sends touring teams to Australia and New Zealand. Annual matches are also played against France. The Challenge Cup Final, the major match of the season, is played at Wembley Stadium in London. The amateur game is governed by the British Amateur Rugby League Association. Annual matches are played between England and France.

Sailing

Sailing has always been popular in Britain. The Royal Yachting Association has over 1,500 affiliated clubs and 46,000 personal members; some 640 practical and shore-based teaching centres in the country, including the National Sailing Centre at Cowes in the Isle of Wight, offer Royal Yachting Association courses in all branches of the sport. One of the world's principal regattas takes place each year at Cowes, and major events are held at other British sailing centres. British yachtsmen and women have undertaken many notable voyages. Sir Francis Chichester was the winner of the first single-handed transatlantic race in 1960 and made a solo circumnavigation of the world in 1966-67. The first non-stop solo circumnavigation was achieved by Robin Knox-Johnstone in 1968. In 1976 Clare Francis held the record for the fastest single-handed crossing of the Atlantic, as did Naomi James in 1980. Rodney Pattison won gold medals in the 'Flying Dutchman' class at the Olympic regattas of 1968 and 1972 with his crews Ian McDonald-Smith and Christopher Davies.

Swimming

Swimming is enjoyed by millions of people in Britain, many of whom learn to swim at public baths, schools or swimming clubs. Instruction and coaching is provided by qualified teachers who hold certificates awarded by the Amateur Swimming Association, to which over 1,700 clubs are affiliated. The Association also draws up and enforces regulations for amateur swimming, diving, synchronised swimming and water polo championships and competitions in England. Separate associations control the sport in Scotland and Wales. Northern Ireland forms part of the Irish Amateur Swimming Association. A number of British swimmers have had great success and Anita Lonsborough, David Wilkie and Duncan Goodhew won gold medals at the 1960, 1976 and 1980 Olympic Games respectively.

Underwater swimming (sub-aqua) is governed nationally by the British Sub-Aqua Club which promotes underwater exploration, science and sport. Formed in 1953, the club has become the largest in the world with some 30,000 members and more than 11,000 branches in Britain and overseas.

GAMBLING

Various forms of betting and commercial gaming are permitted under strict regulations and the total money staked in Great Britain in 1981 was about £5,924 million. It is estimated that some 94 per cent of adults gamble at some time or another, 39 per cent regularly.

Gaming includes the playing of casino and card games, gaming machines and licensed bingo, thought to be played by about 5 to 6 million people on a fairly regular basis. Betting takes place mainly on horse and greyhound racing, and on football matches (usually through football pools). Racing bets may be made at racecourses and greyhound tracks, or through some 12,000 licensed off-course betting offices which take nearly 90 per cent of the money staked. A form of pool betting (totalisator betting) is organised on, and off, course by the Horserace Totalisator Board (HTB). Bookmakers and the HTB contribute a 'betting levy' to the Horserace Betting Levy Board which promotes the improvement of horse racing and horse breeding and the advancement of veterinary science.

In addition, legislation allows local authorities and certain other bodies to hold lotteries.

APPENDIX I

Metric Equivalents for British Weights and Measures

Length		1 inch	=	2.54 centimetres
	12 inches	= 1 foot	=	30.48 centimetres
	3 feet	= 1 yard	=	0.914 metre
	1,760 yards	= 1 mile	=	1.609 kilometres
Area			1 square inch	= 6.451 square centimetres
	144 square inches	=	1 square foot	= 929.03 square centimetres
	9 square feet	=	1 square yard	= 0.836 square metre
	4,840 square yards	=	1 acre	= 0.405 hectare
	640 acres	=	1 square mile	= 2.59 square kilometres
Capacity		1 pint	=	0.568 litre
	2 pints	= 1 quart	=	1.136 litres
	4 quarts	= 1 gallon	=	4.546 litres
	8 gallons	= 1 bushel	=	36.37 litres
	8 bushels	= 1 quarter	=	2.909 hectolitres
Weight (Avoirdupois)			1 ounce (oz.)	= 28.35 grammes
	16 oz.	=	1 pound (lb.)	= 0.454 kilogramme
	14 lb.	=	1 stone (st.)	= 6.35 kilogrammes
	112 lb.	=	1 hundredweight (cwt.)	= 50.8 kilogrammes
	20 cwt. (2,240 lb.)	=	1 long ton	= 1.016 tonnes
	2,000 lb.	=	1 short ton	= 0.907 tonne

Double Conversion Tables for Measures and Weights

(Note: the central figures represent either of the two columns beside them, as the case may be, for example, 1 centimetre = 0.394 inch, and 1 inch = 2.540 centimetres.)

Centi- metres		inches		Metres		Yards		Kilo- metres		Miles		Hec- tares		Acres
2.540	1	0.394		0.914	1	1.094		1.609	1	0.621		0.405	1	2.471
5.080	2	0.787		1.829	2	2.187		3.219	2	1.243		0.809	2	4.942
7.620	3	1.181		2.743	3	3.281		4.828	3	1.864		1.214	3	7.413
10.160	4	1.575		3.658	4	4.374		6.437	4	2.485		1.619	4	9.884
12.700	5	1.969		4.572	5	5.468		8.047	5	3.107		2.023	5	12.355
15.240	6	2.362		5.486	6	6.562		9.656	6	3.728		2.428	6	14.826
17.780	7	2.756		6.401	7	7.655		11.266	7	4.350		2.833	7	17.298
20.320	8	3.150		7.315	8	8.749		12.875	8	4.971		3.237	8	19.769
22.860	9	3.543		8.230	9	9.843		14.484	9	5.592		3.642	9	22.240
25.400	10	3.937		9.144	10	10.936		16.094	10	6.214		4.047	10	24.711

										Metric Quintals per Hectare	Hun- dred- weight per Acre
Kilo- grammes		Av. Pounds	Litres		Pints	Litres		Gallons			
0.454	1	2.205	0.568	1	1.760	4.546	1	0.220	1.255	1	0.797
0.907	2	4.409	1.136	2	3.520	9.092	2	0.440	2.511	2	1.593
1.361	3	6.614	1.705	3	5.279	13.638	3	0.660	3.766	3	2.390
1.814	4	8.818	2.273	4	7.039	18.184	4	0.880	5.021	4	3.186
2.268	5	11.023	2.841	5	8.799	22.730	5	1.100	6.277	5	3.983
2.722	6	13.228	3.409	6	10.559	27.276	6	1.320	7.532	6	4.780
3.175	7	15.432	3.978	7	12.319	31.822	7	1.540	8.787	7	5.576
3.629	8	17.637	4.546	8	14.078	35.368	8	1.760	10.043	8	6.373
4.082	9	19.842	5.114	9	15.838	40.914	9	1.980	11.298	9	7.169
4.536	10	22.046	5.682	10	17.598	45.460	10	2.200	12.553	10	7.966

APPENDIX

Currency

The unit of currency is the pound sterling divided into 100 new pence (p). There are seven denominations: 50p; 20p; 10p; 5p; 2p; 1p; and $\frac{1}{2}$ p. A £1 coin is to be issued in 1983.

Bank of England notes are issued for sums of £1, £5, £10, £20 and £50.

Thermometrical Table

0° Centigrade = 32° Fahrenheit.

100° Centigrade = 212° Fahrenheit.

To convert $^{\circ}$ Fahrenheit into $^{\circ}$ Centigrade: subtract 32, then multiply by $\frac{5}{9}$; $^{\circ}$ Centigrade into $^{\circ}$ Fahrenheit: multiply by $\frac{9}{5}$; then add 32.

Bank and Public Holidays in Britain, 1983

Extra day because New Year's Day falls on a Saturday

Extra day because 2 January falls on a Sunday

(Scotland only)

St Patrick's Day (Northern Ireland only)

Good Friday

Easter Monday (England, Wales and Northern Ireland only)

Early May Bank Holiday

Spring Bank Holiday

Orangeman's Day (Northern Ireland only)

Bank Holiday (Scotland only)

Summer Bank Holiday (England, Wales and Northern Ireland only)

Christmas Day

Boxing Day

Extra day because Christmas Day falls on a Sunday

Monday 3 January

Tuesday 4 January

Thursday 17 March

Friday 1 April

Monday 4 April

Monday 2 May

Monday 30 May

Tuesday 12 July

Monday 1 August

Monday 29 August

Sunday 25 December

Monday 26 December

Tuesday 27 December

APPENDIX 2

Guide to Sources

The principal official periodical sources used in the preparation of this edition are given below:

Chapter 1	Land and People <i>Social Trends, Population Trends, Regional Trends, Employment Gazette, Census 1981 : Preliminary Report—England and Wales, Census 1981 : Scotland Preliminary Report</i>
Chapter 3	Overseas Relations <i>British Aid Statistics</i>
Chapter 4	Defence <i>Statement on the Defence Estimates</i>
Chapter 5	Justice and the Law <i>Criminal Statistics, England and Wales, Criminal Statistics, Scotland</i>
Chapter 6	Social Welfare <i>Health and Personal Social Services Statistics for England, with summary tables for Great Britain</i>
Chapter 7	Education <i>Statistics of Education</i> VOLUME 1 <i>Schools</i> , VOLUME 2 <i>School Leavers, CSE and GCE</i> , VOLUME 3 <i>Further Education</i> , VOLUME 4 <i>Teachers</i> , VOLUME 5 <i>Finance and Awards</i> . <i>University Statistical Record: VOLUME 1 Students and staff</i>
Chapter 8	The Environment <i>General Household Survey, National Dwelling and Household Survey, Housing and Construction Statistics, Northern Ireland Housing Statistics, Digest of Environmental Pollution and Water Statistics</i>
Chapter 10	National Economy <i>National Income and Expenditure (the 'Blue Book')</i>
Chapter 11	Framework of Industry <i>National Income and Expenditure (the 'Blue Book'), British business</i>
Chapter 12	Manufacturing and Service Industries <i>Report on the Census of Production, Monthly Digest of Statistics, Business Monitor MQ10 : Overseas Trade Analysed in Terms of Industries, Employment Gazette, British business</i>
Chapter 13	Energy and Natural Resources <i>Digest of United Kingdom Energy Statistics, Development of the Oil and Gas Resources of the United Kingdom (the 'Brown Book'), United Kingdom Mineral Statistics</i>
Chapter 14	Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry <i>Annual Review of Agriculture</i>
Chapter 15	Transport and Communications <i>Transport Statistics, Great Britain</i>
Chapter 16	Employment <i>Employment Gazette, New Earnings Survey</i>
Chapter 17	Public Finance <i>Financial Statement and Budget Report, The Government's Expenditure Plans</i>

Chapter 19

Overseas Trade and Payments

Monthly Review of External Trade Statistics, United Kingdom Balance of Payments (the 'Pink Book'), British business

Chapter 20

Promotion of Science and Technology

Economic Trends, British business

Full purchasing details of these and other British Government publications can be obtained from the annual list *Government Publications* issued by Her Majesty's Stationery Office (HMSO), which has agents overseas. The list includes all Bills and Acts of Parliament and the official parliamentary report *Hansard*, White Papers, annual reports, reports of official committees and most publications of government departments including the Central Statistical Office, which publishes a *Guide to Official Statistics*. HMSO also sells in Britain many titles published by international organisations such as the United Nations and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

A Catalogue of British Official Publications not published by HMSO, published by Chadwyck-Healey, lists the more specialised departmental publications. Details of this and other commercial publications are available from bookshops or, overseas, from the British Council.

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Items are indexed under England, Northern Ireland, Scotland or Wales only where they are matters peculiar to these countries; otherwise they are indexed under the relevant subject headings.

Bold type in a sequence of figures indicates main references.

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	Motorway Service Areas		Passenger Ferries
	Main Through Routes		Inland Car Ferries
	Other Important Roads		Airports
	Roads Under Construction		National Parks and designated Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty
	Road Numbers		International Boundary between the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Irish Republic
	Towns with over 500,000 inhabitants		
	Country Boundaries		
	Canals		

0 5 10 20 30 40 50 60 Statute Miles
0 5 10 20 30 40 50 60 Kilometers

